

Learning in a self-managed management career

The relation between managers' HRD-patterns, psychological career contracts and mobility perspectives

Eline S.K. Lankhuijzen

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Leren in een zelfgestuurde management loopbaan

De relatie tussen het HRD-patroon, het psychologisch loopbaancontract en het mobiliteitsperspectief van managers

(met een samenvatting in het Nederlands)

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Preface

One of the major ideas in this Ph.D. thesis is that a career does not unfold itself. It needs time and effort and a self-management attitude to make right and fulfilling career choices. On the basis of personal experience I can underline this idea. However, I am convinced that without the right circumstances and the help of many people around me, my career would have progressed quite differently.

After finishing my master's thesis in 1996, my career plans were yet unclear. Would my career get an academic continuation or would I prefer a job outside the boundaries of the university? My career self-management skills were then tested. After a six-month period of work in an extremely beautiful place in Southern Europe, I was pleased to be offered the opportunity to start working on a Ph.D. project at the Department of Educational Sciences. Jan de Jong already carefully predicted my choice for an academic career in the speech he held at my graduation as a master's student. Through the myth of Ariadne's thread, he stated that I would find my way back to the academic world. And indeed, Jan's prediction came true: I chose to be a Ph.D. student. I would like to thank Jan very much for being my daily supervisor and for his trust in me as a researcher. I have always admired his seemingly unlimited levels of creativity and his optimistic attitude. I am grateful for the valuable insights he added to the project.

I would also like to thank Jo Thijssen who has been my first promotor. Jo, together with Jan, initiated the project and stood by me as my first promotor during the past five and a half years. In this period of cooperation, I was often pleasantly surprised by Jo's ongoing enthusiasm for and trust in the project. I mostly thank him for giving me the freedom to find my own way and for supporting me at crucial moments. I am proud to have had him as my advisor.

I also wish to express my gratitude to Gellof Kanselaar who had a special position in the project too. In addition to being head of the department, he was my second promotor and gave me valuable advice, especially during the final phase of the project. I felt confident of a successful ending of the project when I heard my manuscript would be under his pillow while waiting for the final assessment.

Of course, the support I got from my fellow Ph.D. students should not be underestimated. What a great pleasure it was to be part of such a supportive group and to have shared experiences, to have tasted each other's cooking and to have walked all together hundreds of kilometres across the Uithof! Therefore, a big thank you to Joris Veenhoven, Jannet van Drie, Lisette Munneke, Marije van Amelsvoort, Maaïke Prangma, Chiel van der Puil, Dortie Mijs and Jakko van der Pol! I would also like to mention four names of "ex-Ph.D.-students" who went ahead of me in finishing their Ph.D. projects. Carla van Boxtel, Arja Veerman, Mariëlle Klerks and Marjan Glaudé: it was good to have had you as colleagues, and most importantly, it was a big motivation for me to see that it is indeed possible to finish such a long-term project as this Ph.D.-research. Thanks!

I am grateful to all other colleagues of the Department of Educational Sciences who supported me during my stay as a Ph.D. student at the department. I would like to mention Bert Versloot in particular. Under his guidance I gained my first experience with lecturing and coaching students. I enjoyed our discussions a lot and I consider it an advantage to have had the opportunity to work together. For the methodological assistance I would like to express thanks to Ronny Wierstra and Karel Stokking.

It would not have been possible to finish this project without the willingness of many managers of different organisations to fill out the questionnaires that I developed. Thanks are due to the following persons who gave me entrance into their organisations: Kina Zaagman, Reinier van Gerrevink, André

Hendrikse, Harry Vromen, Jack Snijders, Eric Verduyn and Ben van Bommel. Moreover I thank the people who coordinated my study in some participating local offices.

Four master's students contributed to the project in various ways, for instance by collecting data and by adding fruitful insights. Alien van den Akker, Irene Hanemaaijer, Tiemenna Oosterhof and Judith Lans: it was a pleasure to have worked with you.

Marjo, in this place I want to extend a word of thanks to you too for being a real good friend. The many e-mails and postcards you sent me to support me and to keep me going were heartwarming!

The (terrace-) meetings I had with the so-called "learning at the workplace" group were very pleasant. I would like to thank Marinka Kuijpers, Anja Doornbos, Marianne van Woerkom, Saskia Tjepkema, Isolde Kolkhuis and Rob Poell for the inspiring discussions. I wish them good luck with respectively finishing their Ph.D. theses and with the work as an assistant professor of HRD.

At the end of this preface I want to show my greatest gratitude to my family and friends. In particular, I want to thank my parents for their ongoing love and support. The numerous phone calls, encouraging words and all other attentions have really helped me to finish this thesis. For that I owe them my deepest gratitude. It is fantastic to have so many dear brothers and sisters on whom I can always count. Thanks a lot for all the support you gave me. Special thanks to my youngest brother and sister, Marco and Simone, in advance for standing by me as my 'paranimfs' during the defence of this thesis. Although from a distance, my Greek family supported me by always showing interest in the progress of my study. Offering me a perfect place to relax whenever needed has certainly contributed to finishing this book.

The final word of this preface is for you Stathis. What a decision we made almost six years ago to move back to Holland so I could start such a crazy thing as a Ph.D.project. I know that you have had to pay a price for my ambitions too. Fortunately, it was not in vain! I admire your perseverance and I am so very grateful to have your unlimited love and trust: Γ'αυτό σ'αγαπάω πάρα πολύ.

Eline Lankhuijzen

Zeist, april 2002

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Chapter 1

Introduction

This study was carried out in the field of Human Resource Development (HRD), or personnel development. This field is characterised by several developments, which form the context of this study. The relevance of the main research question becomes clear from these current trends. Beside a description of recent developments and the presentation of the general research question, both the practical and the theoretical relevance of the study will be addressed. Finally, the structure of this thesis will be described.

Several terms such as “HRD”, “learning” and “development” are used in this study. These terms are largely synonymous. The term “learning” will be used in a general sense. However, whenever we specifically address *activities* individual managers use *in order to learn*, we will use the term *HRD-activity*¹. An HRD-activity does not refer to a mental learning process (as in psychology; such as thinking or reflection), but to an action-oriented demonstrable activity (such as reading a manual or asking advice). The assumption is that HRD-activities bring about learning processes that in turn may lead to learning outcomes. These individual HRD-activities contain both informal and formal activities. HRD-activities should thus not be confused with formal organisational activities that may be carried out in the light of organisations’ HRD-policies. In chapter 2 this point will further be addressed.

1.1. Important developments in the field of HRD

The following developments in the field of HRD are relevant as a background for our study. These developments make up the problem situation in which this study is carried out.

Changes in organisations’ environments

In organisations, change tends to be the norm rather than the exception. Change is inherent as a result of, among other reasons, the drive for continuous improvement in the production process, a higher degree of job integration, new quality standards, flexible reaction to changes in the market (e.g. globalisation) and product differentiation (Onstenk & Voncken, 1996, p. 41). Furthermore, the demand side of the labour market (the requirements organisations formulate and employees have to meet) is strongly changing. Jobs disappear more rapidly and at the same time new jobs come into existence. As a result, required labour qualifications must also change continuously. The supply side of the labour market (what employees desire from the organisation) has changed as well.

Employees are higher educated and change jobs more often than before. In sum, the ability and the willingness of employees to become mobile are increasingly important.

¹ Throughout this introductory chapter and the theoretical chapters, the terms “learning activity” and “HRD-activity” are sometimes used simultaneously, depending on the terminology that other authors use. The term “HRD-activity” will be consequently used in the description of our research model and in the empirical chapters.

The new meaning of learning

Organisations operating in these increasingly complex and dynamic environments meet the challenge to remain competitive and to survive under often unpredictable and turbulent circumstances. In order to anticipate changes and to adapt whenever necessary, organisations need to have available a flexible workforce: individuals working within these organisations have to be ready and capable to fulfil different jobs, both within and outside the current organisation. As a consequence, continuous learning is acquiring a new significance (Onstenk & Voncken, 1996, p. 1). Continuous learning implies that learning is more concentrated later in one's career. Obviously, beside the improvement of performance in one's current job, learning can also be seen in a broader sense, as a means to survive in a changing labour market and to develop one's career. Continuous learning activities therefore need on-going attention (Thijssen, 1997a, p. 5). Especially generic learning activities contribute to the increase of employability and, consequently, they enlarge employees' chances of mobility and make them less restricted to a small occupational domain.

Beside the fact that learning has to take place continuously, a trend can be observed towards more emphasis on the workplace as an environment for learning and education (De Jong, 1996, 1997; Onstenk & Voncken, 1996). This can be seen as a result of the greater demands placed on productivity in which there is little time for training off the job. Moreover, training is not always available which makes continuous learning from and at work necessary. As a result, work and learning are becoming more and more interdependent. Work-based learning, in which the emphasis is more on learning than on education, is getting more and more attention.

New labour relations and modern careers

For individual employees employability is as important as it is for their employers, especially since new labour relations emerge on the basis of life-time employability instead of life-time employment. Obviously, the nature of careers has changed (Sullivan, 1999). While the traditional career is characterised by loyalty of the employee in return for job-security offered by the employer, the new career is characterised by an exchange of performance for continuous development opportunities and "marketability" (Sullivan, 1999, p. 458). A modern career goes beyond the boundaries of one organisation; they are "boundaryless" (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). Mobility thus gets a broader meaning than before; it concerns both organisation-internal and organisation-external job mobility.

The implication of modern careers is that there is no longer a guarantee for future employment; labour relations have ends, too (Van Hoof, 1990). Chances of future employment (or future employability) can be enlarged. By means of learning activities one's ability can be increased to change jobs and to move around as a post-modern nomad (Van der Zee, 1994), both within and between organisations. Learning, then, has become the key to employability.

Self-management

Because of the direct benefits that employability may have for the individual (e.g. future job security), it is not strange that employers expect their employees to take control of their own (career) development. Such a self-management attitude with regard to learning implies that learners themselves direct and organise their learning activities. Consequently, informal and self-directed learning processes have become more important. Managers have to be able to react to signals in their environment, to become aware of when, what and how to learn, thus taking control of their own learning and to be independent learners. Or as Walton (1999) puts it "individuals have shifted from being prime recipients of HRD to a customer of the learning process" (p. 69). As a consequence, terms such as self-management, self-directedness and initiative are increasingly emphasised.

In addition, employees have become more emancipated and want to be less dependent on one employer. The new employee more and more resembles a self-employed person and contractor of

work or assignments. The role of the organisation, however, remains to provide support for the increased self-management of its employees. These new ideas about the division of responsibilities for learning and career development have received a lot of attention lately and make up the new psychological career contract. This concept can be used to study the relation between career conceptions, managerial learning behaviour and mobility perspectives.

Managers

People in management positions form an important group of organisational members. Managers bear responsibility for the performance of their department or business unit and are held accountable for that. They are often focused on as the key to organizational effectiveness, "as it is the competence of managers that will influence the return that an organization will secure from its investment in both human and material capital" (Mangham & Silver as cited in Iles & Salaman, 1996, p. 207). Not only do top managers constitute an important level in the organisation, lower management levels are significant for organisations' survival as well. As a result of decentralisation and flattening processes more tasks and responsibilities are shifted towards lower levels of management, one of which is the decentralisation of responsibility for HRD-policies (Thijssen, 1998a; Warmerdam & Van den Berg, 1992), which before belonged to the responsibilities of (specialised) people at staff positions. As a result, the responsibility of line managers has increased, not only for the primary process, but also on other areas, such as information technology and human resources (Thijssen, 1998a, p. 25). Line managers are responsible for the development of their subordinates, thus being subject and object of HRD-policies simultaneously (Thijssen, 1998a). Managers are expected to self-direct their own career (development) and to be supported by their superiors. At the same time, they have to await increased self-direction from their subordinates as well, which implies that managers have to take a step back when it comes to direction of their subordinates. They should stimulate their subordinates to self-direct their work and learning processes. While a directive management style used to be common, the coaching style now becomes more valuable. The critical role of managers is also emphasised by the Human Resource Management approach. Storey (1996) states that line managers need to be closely involved both as deliverers and drivers of the HR-policies. In particular, because of this double role and the impact managers may have on organisational results, it is important to pay attention to the development of managers.

Nowadays, more initiative and responsibility is expected from employees. A condition, of course, is that people are given a certain amount of freedom, or autonomy, to be able to self-direct their activities. The fact that managers generally have a high level of autonomy in their work implies that they have a relatively high degree of freedom with regard to using learning activities for their work and career development as well (e.g. time and money). Moreover, because of their relatively high positions in the organisation, managers can more easily foresee changes and anticipate these changes (Thijssen, 1992a, p. 4). Managers are therefore an appropriate group to study self-direction and self-management with regard to learning.

Moreover, to develop effective managers, "we not only have to know what skills, knowledge, and attitudes are associated with excellent management, but also how those things can be learned" (Akin, 1987, p. 36). The significance of learning by managers, then, seems a relevant object of study.

In sum

We conclude the description of emerging trends in the field of HRD with a summary of two major points. First, a shift can be observed from an emphasis on short-term learning objectives (e.g. performance) to long-term learning objectives (e.g. employability). Secondly, whereas learning objectives for individual employees used to be determined mainly at the organisational level, the emphasis has now shifted towards the individual level. As a consequence, individuals have become increasingly responsible for the determination of learning objectives. This trend is illustrated by Versloot *et al.* (1998) who found that during the last three decades attention has shifted from employment at the societal, via the organisational to the individual level. The Nineties are characterised as the years of ‘flexibility of workers’. Like them, several other authors stress the central role of the individual in career development (e.g. Hall, 1996; Lankhuijzen, 2000a; Megginson, 1996; Sullivan, 1999; Van Tiem & West, 1997). More in general, the accent on individualism can be recognised in today’s society. This appears, for instance, from the eroding level of social solidarity, “which does not extend that far anymore at present” (Coenen, 1993, p. 173).

It should be stressed at this point that the trend towards more individual responsibility for career development started from the desire of organisations to decrease their responsibility for employees’ long-term development. As a consequence, they expected their employees to take over this responsibility. It remains to be seen, however, whether individual employees are able and willing to make the organisation’s wish come true.

In sum, topics such as employability, psychological success and individual career development have become more important. These shifts have been summarised in the following figure (1.1.). The arrow represents the general trend².

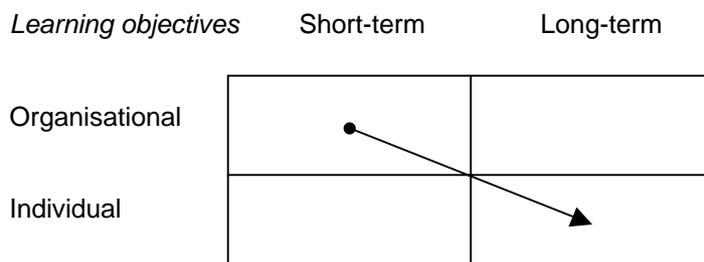


Figure 1.1. *Shifts in levels of learning objectives*

1.2. Research questions and aim of the study

The former developments form the starting-point for the following general research question:

What is the significance of learning in a manager’s career³?

We will approach this question both in a *descriptive* way and in an *evaluative* way. The descriptive approach to this research question entails the characterisation of all kinds of HRD- activities managers use to develop in their job as a manager. The evaluative approach of the question links learning to relevant outcomes in the light of modern career development. This includes the variables mobility scope and pursuit of mobility; together they constitute the mobility perspective. As a consequence, in

² Although the arrow has been drawn as a straight line from the upper-left corner to the lower-right corner, this does not mean that the other two combinations cannot occur. With this figure we mean to illustrate the general trend.

³ With the text “in a manager’s career” we do not intend a longitudinal research design. The purpose of these words is to make clear that, in the course of our study, learning will be related to certain career outcomes.

the course of this study the perspective has gradually shifted from an emphasis on learning for one's current job towards learning for a (possible) future job.

The aim of the project as a whole is to gain insight into the significance of learning by managers in the light of their careers. We address this aim by describing the whole set of HRD-activities managers may use and by studying the relation of HRD-activities to self-management perceptions within the new psychological career contract and the mobility perspective of managers. A number of personal and context variables influencing the model will be studied as well.

To reach our research goal we conducted a study in three phases. The three phases were directed at answering the following main research questions:

- I. What is the significance of learning in a manager's career in a *descriptive* sense?
How can managers' HRD-activities, directed at performing management tasks, be characterised (by type and extent of use) and what are influencing factors? This question will be addressed in the first research phase (chapters 2 and 3).

- II. What is the significance of learning in a manager's career in an *evaluative* sense?
What is the role of HRD-activities of managers in relation to perceptions of career self-management, as part of the psychological career contract, and to their mobility perspectives and what is the relation with background characteristics? This question will be addressed in the second and third research phase (chapters 4 to 7).

The first phase of the research project consisted of an exploratory study and was conducted in two organisations. The major components of the study involve management tasks, HRD-activities and influencing factors. Moreover, the exploratory study was supplemented by a post-inquiry study on learning by doing and on the division of responsibilities with regard to learning and career development.

The second phase of the study was a pilot study into the psychological contract, HRD-pattern and mobility perspectives of managers. The major aim of this phase was to develop and to test a research instrument. Participants in this research phase were taking a management course at a training institute and were working in different organisations. The final and third research phase consisted of survey research in six organisations. It was a large-scale repetition of the pilot study in the second phase.

To conclude, the question remains what, in modern times, the significance of learning in a manager's career is. The expectation that certain kinds of HRD-activities (e.g. generic HRD-activities) are more valuable for the broadening of work opportunities than other kinds of HRD-activities (e.g. specific HRD-activities) will be tested. But learning is certainly not the only influencing factor of mobility perspectives. Career self-management perceptions are expected to play a role in learning and the development of employability as well. The concept of the psychological contract is used to shed some more light on these topics. How career expectations, organisational support for these expectations and HRD-pattern relate to mobility perspective is still unclear and will therefore be object of our study. In the end, our study will reveal to what extent the relation between career self-management perceptions and mobility perspectives of managers are mediated by their HRD-patterns. From this information we will be able to conclude whether learning fulfils a significant role in a self-managed management career.

1.3. Relevance of the study

Research into the significance of learning by managers is both important for the academic field and for HRD-practitioners (policy makers, HRD-professionals and top management) within organisations. We will first describe the theoretical perspectives from which our research has been set up and carried out. Next, the practical relevance of this study will be addressed.

Theoretical relevance

The research theme is largely interdisciplinary. We use theories and useful insights from the disciplines of educational sciences, organisational and industrial psychology and from the field of economy.

First, from the educational sciences perspective (which is interdisciplinary itself) attention is paid to (dimensions of) labour-related HRD-activities of individuals within organisations, which may enhance their performance and/or employability. An individual perspective on learning is chosen.

Furthermore, we have restricted ourselves to labour-related HRD-activities, directed at management tasks. The consequence of this choice is that the structural dimension of management is especially emphasised, while the political and cultural dimension of management are given less attention (Bolman & Deal, 1995).

Secondly, from the perspective of organisational and industrial psychology, career development is addressed. In particular, the perceptions individuals have with regard to mutual expectations (of individual and organisation) and obligations with regard to career self-management. These mutual expectations form the psychological career contract. In this respect the organisational perspective is brought into play, although it is measured from the individual manager's perspective.

The third perspective represents an economic point of view. Theories are used from the field of Human Resource Management as a domain within business administration or personnel sciences. From this perspective we approach the employability situation or mobility perspective of employees, in particular of managers, measured as the mobility scope and the pursuit of mobility.

When we address the relationship between the various main variables in this research, we combine these three perspectives to be able to give an answer to the question whether the HRD-pattern of managers plays an intermediary role between perceptions within their psychological career contract and their mobility perspective.

A theoretical relevant problem statement contributes to theory building in the particular area. This can be by developing a new theory, or by adjusting or improving an existing theory.

This study intends to contribute to theory building on management learning, in particular work-based learning: informal and also formal HRD-activities directed at mastering management tasks. Moreover, the effect of HRD-activities will be studied in a more modern sense by linking learning to employability-related variables. Finally, we are interested in (individual) factors that relate to managers' career self-management perceptions, their HRD-patterns and their mobility perspectives, thus gaining insight into how managers' development can be optimised.

An innovative aspect of the study is that informal HRD-activities are emphasised. While ample research is done in the field of adult learning and HRD on the effects of formal training and courses, competence development and career development by informal learning is generally given far less attention. In other words, research into formal learning activities has progressed, but the study of informal learning is still in its infancy. The increasing attention of informal learning-activities is justified in order to survive in a changing environment (Thijssen, 1997a). This does not mean that informal

learning is more important than formal learning; a combination of both is probably the best solution to deal with all kinds of matters concerning personnel development.

Furthermore, a new element in this study is the link that we examine between career self-management perceptions and learning. Whereas several psychological contract instruments have been developed by other authors, the focus of none of these instruments is on the measurement of self-management perceptions.

Practical relevance

A practical relevant problem statement contributes to practice or society. It helps to solve a practical problem or to reach a desirable situation for society.

As mentioned before, managers fulfil central positions in organisations. They are given increasing responsibilities, one of which is the responsibility for personnel management directed at their subordinates. This double-role of managers as a subject and object of HRD-policy, in combination with the responsibility for the results of their business units, makes the performance of managers a crucial factor determining organisation's success. It goes without saying that management development deserves appropriate attention from the HRD-field. Competent managers serve the economy and hereby the society as a whole.

For organisations it is important to know what a manager must learn (who has just been promoted from a specialised non-managerial job) to be able to "manage" and also how this can best happen; what is the most effective way of learning management tasks? Moreover, for corporate life it is of the highest importance to know which factors influence the learning behaviour of their managers and how. Based on such empirical results, optimal conditions may be created for learning in organisations.

Empirical research into managerial behaviour and learning processes is therefore desirable.

Not only does learning contribute to performance improvement, nowadays the focus has shifted towards the employability of the workforce, being crucial for the modern society of today. People are more emancipated and will stand up for their rights. With regard to labour, the combination of work and non-work, for example, gains a lot of attention. Additionally, since work is one of the major factors people identify with, they seek for work that matches their norms and values. It is not the external success, but the internal psychological success that counts (Mirvis & Hall, 1994).

People taking control of their own life and career will use mobility as an instrument to reach their goals. It is no longer the norm to stay as long as possible in one firm, showing loyalty. The individual wishes and ambitions form the standard according to which labour decisions are made.

Especially in times of shortage on the labour market it is very important for organisations to attract "good" people, to get and to keep them inside. In other words, they have to make sure they are an attractive employer whom employees will choose to work for. To less competent employees (those who have less appropriate competences and qualifications for the current job / organisation) alternatives will be offered in order to have them leave the organisation. Unfortunately, even the best employees will not always choose to stay with the organisation forever. They may be offered attractive alternatives by other (competitive) organisations and may thus be pulled away. Other reasons for turnover may occur as well, for example, when somebody pursues another job based on the belief that talents can better be used in another department or organisation.

For the development of organisational policies and practices, it is very important to know why people have a need for mobility and how this need has developed over time. It makes a big difference whether people leave the organisation because of dissatisfaction with the current organisation, for example as a result of unmet expectations with regard to self-management, or because of their high level of ambition or over-qualification, in combination with a high extent of pull-related factors in the labour market with scarcely available talented labour supply.

In the latter case organisations may intervene by formulating and executing HRD-policies, while in the first case the intervention must be sought in adjusting career-related expectations, obligations, desires, etc., for instance by clarifying these mutual perspectives.

1.4. Structure of the thesis

After this introduction, we will report in chapter 2 on a literature study on management and learning. Several hypotheses are generated which are tested in chapter 3. This chapter will report on an empirical study on HRD-activities and management tasks of managers in two organisations. The significance of learning, here, is approached in a descriptive sense. The results of this study made a new theoretical framework necessary. In chapter 4 we will describe theories on career development and on the psychological career contract. This chapter will result in the description of a research model and a set of hypotheses.

Chapter 5 contains the description of a pilot study, which served to develop an instrument for the main study. The methods of the main study will be described here as well. Chapters 6 and 7 are empirical chapters and will approach the significance of learning by managers in an evaluative sense. Chapter 6 will characterise managers' HRD-patterns and their psychological career contracts. Moreover, the relation between these concepts will be addressed. In chapter 7, a characterisation of managers' mobility perspectives will be given and the influence of both the HRD-pattern and the psychological career contract on managers' mobility perspectives will be addressed. In this chapter the research model as a whole will be tested too. Finally, chapter 8 contains general conclusions, points of discussion and recommendations for future research and for the HRD-field.

Chapter 2

Theoretical framework: Management tasks and management learning

This chapter provides an introduction to management and learning. The guiding question is “what is the significance of learning in a manager’s career?” and will here be addressed in a descriptive way. The aim of this chapter is to make a choice for a description of the management job and for a categorisation of HRD-activities.

Prerequisite for studying HRD-activities of managers is to have a good insight into the nature of managerial work as the domain of learning. Therefore, we start in section 2.1. with reporting on a literature study we carried out on management. Topics that will be discussed are different approaches of the manager’s job, taxonomies of managerial behaviour and managerial effectiveness. The findings of this literature search will serve as the starting point for studying to what extent managers’ HRD-activities are task-related (see chapter 3). In section 2.2. the focus shifts towards the development of managers. It is our goal to find a workable and comprehensive categorisation of HRD-activities. Therefore, we will describe various HRD-activities managers may undertake in order to learn. Especially those activities which take place on the job are emphasised. Moreover, we report assumptions with regard to the significance of (informal and formal) learning we found in the literature. Section 2.3. concludes with an overview of hypotheses regarding HRD-activities, management tasks and background characteristics.

2.1. The manager and the management job

The first section of this chapter will address the management job and the tasks involved at which learning is directed. After a general introduction to this topic in 2.1.1., a description will be given of who a manager or a leader actually is (2.1.2.). Central in 2.1.3. will be the special position of first-line managers. Section 2.1.4. will summarise taxonomies of the management job, according to both the so-called classical and the empirical approach. In 2.1.5. comments will be given on the use of taxonomies of managerial behaviour. The issue of managerial effectiveness will be addressed in 2.1.6. Finally, 2.1.7. will give some final conclusions with regard to managers and their jobs. Moreover, a choice is made for a description of the management job, which we will further use in the course of our study.

2.1.1. Introduction

For everyone professionally involved in management and managers, it is – of course - an absolute requirement to have good insight into the management job (Van de Linde, 1983, p. 9). Unfortunately, this appears to be quite a difficult task. This is partly due to a lack of agreement on the definition of a manager and on what managers actually do. In 1970 Campbell and his colleagues (as cited in Van de Linde, 1983, p. 9) wrote that the description of managerial job behaviour was at an abysmally primitive level and added that “the domain of management behaviour remained an essentially undifferentiated mass”. After the change of the millennium, we still have to conclude that there is no agreement, but rather a “jungle of management theories” exists (Koontz, 1981). To illustrate, Koontz identified 11 schools, or approaches, to the study of management science and theory. We recognise elements of (at least) several approaches. An example is the managerial roles approach, which essentially observes what managers actually do and from such observations comes to conclusions as to what

managerial activities (or roles) are. In this study we have chosen a description of the management job overlapping with Mintzberg's managerial roles (see section 2.1.4.). The operational approach includes a central core of science and theory unique to management plus knowledge eclectically drawn from various other schools and approaches, for example knowledge about interpersonal behaviour and group behaviour is drawn from social psychology. Among other fields, we make use of knowledge from the fields "adult learning" and "organisational behaviour" to describe the nature of management learning.

To conclude, as long as managers and their jobs are subject to studies, different descriptions and definitions accumulate. Almost certainly, agreement will not (and should not) be reached at all. It is an advantage that descriptions of what managers do are more and more based on empirical research instead of on vague ideas of what managers should do.

Before reporting on the manager's job, both according to classical management theories and to more recent empirical approaches, in section 2.1.2. we will first address who a manager actually is.

2.1.2. Managers and leaders

Surprisingly, in many studies on managerial behaviour a definition is lacking of whom a manager actually is. Probably, authors assume that everybody interested in reading studies on management is familiar with whom a manager is and what a manager does. Moreover, nearly anyone engaged in a job will have to deal, at least from time to time, with a supervisor, leader or manager. It is likely, though, that the term "manager", or "leader", means different things to different people. This makes carefully defining what is meant by "manager" or "leader" important.

Hales (1986) defines a manager as someone who has responsibility for the operation of a discrete organisational unit and who is invested with at least formal authority of those working within that unit. The term "leader" seems to be closely related, which Luthans and Lockwood (1984) define as those in *managerial* positions (at all levels) with responsibilities for supervising two or more subordinates. In a personnel information brochure of Philips (electronics company) (1986), a manager is an employee who directly and formally *leads* other employees and who is responsible for optimally preserving the (sub-)organisation of which they are in charge. From the words put in italics, it becomes directly clear that "managing" and "leading" are closely related and are often used interchangeably.

Some authors have explicitly studied the differences and similarities between leadership and management. Kuipers (1989) puts forward that some people consider leadership and management to be synonyms or consider a distinction between these concepts to be irrelevant. Others do distinguish between leadership and management (e.g. Zaleznik, and Kotter as cited in Den Hartog, 1997, p. 1) or see leadership as an element of management (e.g. Mintzberg, 1989; Quinn, 1990; Van Minden & Van de Linde, 1983). According to this approach, the management tasks contain various elements such as decision making, planning and controlling, and also directing or leading others. Again, others consider management to be part of leadership. Leadership, then, is a broad phenomenon, which consists of setting goals, promoting norms and values and inspiring people. But management is an element of leadership as well, consisting of activities such as planning and organising.

The large overlap between definitions of leadership and management becomes clear when we take a closer look at the major elements of the definitions. In definitions of a *manager* we recognise elements such as "responsibility for reaching organisational goals" and "responsibility over subordinates". Bryman (1992) comes to a similar conclusion when he summarises the three major elements of *leadership*: "group", "influence" and "goal".

A definition of a manager represents perceptions and ideas about management from the time they were formulated. For example, definitions in which emphasis was put on directing subordinates in such a way that organisational goals were reached, are typically representative of the Eighties.

In more recent approaches towards management, the leadership component is more and more emphasised. Managers are expected to shift from a directive role to a more coaching role, in which there is more room for the attainment of individual career goals and personnel development (not purely job-related), in combination with organisational goals. This new approach can also be illustrated by the shift from transactional leadership towards “new” leadership styles such as transformational, charismatic and inspirational leadership (Den Hartog, 1997).

Next to the fact that definitions are time-related, it is because of their different theoretical origins that the concepts of leader and manager are interpreted differently, according to Segal (as cited in Kuipers, 1989). Leadership fits into the tradition of “affective collectivism”, while management stems from “rational individualism”. The interdependence of the concepts, again, becomes clear from Kuipers’ conclusion that leaders need to dispose of management skills and managers cannot do without leadership qualities (Kuipers, 1989, p. 144).

Because of the large parallel between the two concepts, we will use the words “leader” and “manager” interchangeably. We regard the supervisory responsibility over subordinates (part of a manager’s HRM-tasks) as a major aspect of management. This component will be emphasised in chapter 4, which further addresses modern ideas about careers, in which the manager plays a key role in the (career) development of subordinates.

2.1.3. First-line management

Commonly, in larger organisations a hierarchy of managerial jobs exists. This hierarchy of jobs is based on direct supervision; one of the co-ordination mechanisms Mintzberg (1983) distinguishes. Co-ordination is achieved through direct supervision, by having one person take responsibility for the work of others, issuing instruction to them and monitoring their actions.

Management jobs are defined at all organisational levels. In general, a distinction is made between senior management (or top management), middle management and first-line management (or supervision). These three levels are roughly parallel to the distinction in strategic, tactical and operational level. Managerial jobs shift in orientation as they descend in the chain of authority. In lower echelons, jobs are more detailed and elaborated, less abstract and aggregated, more focused on the work flow itself (Mintzberg, 1983). Tasks and responsibilities vary across these management levels. For example, Kraut and Pedigo (1989) found that supervising others is most important to first-level managers and decline in importance as one rises in management.

The title of first-line leader often carries the designation of supervisor, foreman, lead, coach, facilitator, trainer, team leader, developer of people and teams, planner, resource provider and boundary manager (Hardt, 1997, p. 36). First-level managers are those managers to whom those workers report who have no subordinates themselves (De Jong, Leenders & Thijssen, 1999, p. 176).

In most cases it concerns managers of departments, teams, or local offices. Because first-line managers are directly responsible for the primary process (the actual production of products and services), most of the time they can well be identified. It is even possible that in some cases participation in executing the primary process makes up part of the job, thus being part-time manager and part-time non-manager.

First-line managers are considered to fulfil a major role in establishing a learning organisation (e.g. Senge, 1990; Marsick & Watkins, 1996). One of the reasons is that they are the ones supervising the

primary processes executed by their subordinates. Furthermore, they sometimes make their own personnel policy, though at the lowest hierarchical level.

The level of first-line management can well differ between organisations. The educational level of a supervisor in a production plant is likely to be lower than the level of education of a team leader in an insurance company.

Often, first-line managers are working in (one of) their first supervisory positions and generally have little experience. Therefore, this group can also be labelled *junior managers*¹.

Line functions (at both senior, middle and first-line level) are directly concerned with achieving organisational goals, in contrast with staff activities, which consist primarily of advice, service or support. A staff department is for example a personnel department, or a research lab with distinct expertise. Staff departments are organised according to a certain hierarchy in tasks and responsibilities most of the time as well, thus employing managers and specialists.

In our first research phase we focus on first-line managers, who are supervisors at the lowest echelons of the organisational hierarchy².

In the next sub-section we focus on various taxonomies of the management job. These descriptions of what managers should do and what they actually do, give us more insight in who a manager truly is.

2.1.4. The management job: Overview of taxonomies

Since the beginning of the century, many studies have been carried out on managerial behaviour. Early studies differ in scope from more recent studies in that a shift in research tradition has taken place. Traditional management theories describe managers in terms of classical management functions; this approach refers to “what managers *should* do”. The more modern, observational studies show a different picture of managerial behaviour; this approach gives a description of what managers *actually* do. The former classical descriptions are general and vague; the latter empirical descriptions are more clear, detailed and realistic. Moreover, the descriptions have developed from being merely task or people-oriented to more specific types of behaviour to understand leadership effectiveness (Yukl, 1994).

Not surprisingly, a review of literature on management results in a long and varied list of definitions and descriptions of management and corresponding behaviours, activities, tasks, functions and responsibilities (Vinkenburg, 1997). Yukl (1994) gives an overview of several managerial behaviour taxonomies in which descriptions can be found in terms of roles, competencies (e.g. Akin, 1987; Boyatzis, 1982; 1992), skills (Whetten & Cameron, 1991) and activities (Luthans *et al.*, 1984). We can even further add taxonomies to this list by using terms such as qualifications, core qualifications (e.g. Luchters, 1989) and managerial practices.

In sum, in the past decades “a bewildering variety of behaviour concepts pertaining to managers and leaders appeared” (Yukl, 1994, p. 65). Ample reason may be given for this large amount of descriptions: In general, different terms have sometimes been used to refer to the same type of behaviour and at other times, the same term has been defined differently by various theorists. The chosen theoretical perspective is one of the factors determining in what terms the management job is described. From a psychological perspective, management is often described in terms of functions, traits and skills. In sociological research, management is mostly described in terms of roles.

The psychological approach emphasises the input side (job requirements in terms of necessary skills, attitudes, personality traits, competences, etc.), whereas the sociological approach puts emphasis on

¹ It is important to note that the term ‘junior’ refers to the extent to which a manager has experience in supervisory positions; it does not refer to age, although age and experience will often be related.

² As we shall address later, this group is especially relevant for studying HRD-activities (see 2.2.6.)

the output side (in terms of roles, activities, responsibilities, tasks, etc. of the management job). This difference in emphasis may originate from the type of job analysis used to develop the taxonomies. Task-oriented job analysis identifies necessary roles, tasks and duties of the occupations (=output) and is a common approach in the United Kingdom. The person-oriented job analysis identifies required skills, knowledge, personality traits and competencies (input) and is more common in the American tradition (Iles, 1995; Born, Algera & Hoolwerf, 1988, p. 40). Furthermore, Yukl (1994) adds that taxonomies that differ in purpose (e.g. studying managerial effectiveness or describing managerial activities) can be expected to have somewhat different constructs. Other sources of variety among behaviour taxonomies are the different levels of abstraction or generality at which they are formulated and the different methods used to develop them.

We will now give some examples of both the classical and the empirical approach. The empirical approach will be dealt with more extensively since we will follow this approach.

Examples of taxonomies according to the classical approach

Fayol (1949, in Vinkenburger, 1997) represents the classical or traditional approach by describing the so-called POC³-functions: planning, organising, controlling, coordinating and commanding. This list has been changed and supplemented by several authors. For example, Mahoney, Jerdee and Carroll (as cited in Carroll & Gillen, 1987, p. 40) describe eight basic managerial functions and labelled them the "PRINCESS" factors (planning, representing, investigating, negotiating, coordinating, evaluating, supervising, staffing). The fact that these descriptions have been developed some 40 to 50 years ago and were widely used makes them classical. In their article titled "Are the classical management functions useful in describing managerial work?", Carroll and Gillen (1987) conclude that the classical functions are still useful.

Examples of taxonomies according to the empirical approach

Although the classical functions remained valuable, the need for more comprehensive descriptions of the management job, and of what managers actually do", gradually became clear. It became necessary to focus on research that is based on actual managerial behaviour and has attempted to classify this behaviour (Vinkenburger, 1997). The empirical approach consequently became the dominant approach.

As we have mentioned earlier, taxonomies may vary, dependent on the method used to develop them. Yukl recognises the use of three different research methods for the development of such taxonomies (1994, p. 67). For every kind of method we will give one or more examples of taxonomies.

1. The factor analysis approach

This approach examines the pattern of covariance among items on a "behaviour description questionnaire" describing actual managers. Another term for this approach is empirical inductive. An example of this approach is Yukl's Managerial Practices Survey³ (MPS) (Yukl, Wall & Lepsinger, 1990; Yukl, 1994). Eleven categories of managerial behaviour were found and they could be clustered into four broad categories of managerial activities: making decisions, influencing people, building relationships and giving/seeking information (see also Appendix 2.1.a.).

³ The factor analyses were supplemented with a variety of other research methods (including e.g. diaries and critical incidents).

2. The theoretical deductive approach

In this approach the researcher tests a-priori assumptions to daily activities of managers. An example of this approach is Quinn's (1984; 1991) model of competing values in which he distinguished eight managerial roles: innovator, broker, producer, director, co-ordinator, monitor, facilitator and mentor. Each role consists of three managerial skills (see Appendix 2.1.b. for an overview of the 24 core skills).

3. The judgemental classification approach, or content analysis

Here, empirical data on managerial behaviour are collected through the sampling of work activities, use of diaries or unstructured observation which next are judgementally classified and described (Vinkenburg, 1997, p. 12).

Examples of this approach are:

- a. Mintzberg's (1973) managerial roles;
- b. Boyatzis' (1982; 1992) managerial competences;
- c. Luthans' (and colleagues) (1984; 1985; 1988; 1993) managerial activities.

We will describe the work of these three authors who made major contributions to the empirical approach.

Ad a. Mintzberg's managerial roles

Mintzberg was the first to really challenge the rather vague descriptions of the classical approach and described them as "folklore" compared to his observations of managers' day-to-day activities. The conclusion was that the manager's job is characterised by brevity, variety and discontinuity. Based on his observations, Mintzberg described ten managerial roles; a role is "an organised set of behaviours belonging to identifiable offices or positions" (Mintzberg, 1989). These roles capture the essential content of all managers' jobs and form a unified whole whose parts cannot be considered in isolation. The ten managerial roles are:

Interpersonal roles: 1. figurehead, 2. leader, 3. liaison;

The informational roles: 4. monitor, 5. disseminator, 6. spokesman;

The decisional roles: 7. entrepreneur, 8. disturbance handler, 9. resource allocator, 10. negotiator.

The interpersonal roles derive directly from the authority and status associated with holding managerial office. The informational roles deal with information-processing activities performed by the manager. The four decisional roles describe the manager's control of the strategy-making system in his organisation. The relative importance of these roles varies according to the type of job and level at which the manager is operating.

Even though the "leader" is only one of Mintzberg's ten managerial roles, he makes it clear that leadership permeates all managerial activities, even those with some other basic purpose (as cited in Luthans & Lockwood, 1984, p. 121). Once again, it appears to be difficult to separate "leadership behaviour" *per se* from the larger domain of managerial activities (Luthans & Lockwood, 1984, p. 121).

The realism of Mintzberg's approach in comparison to the classical writers is often commended. As Luthans and Lockwood (1984, p. 256) stated "Mintzberg's greatest contribution comes from his direct observations of real managers in real organisations, which provide insights into how managers actually behave".

Although the roles of Mintzberg have had a major impact, they have been criticised as well. Luthans (1985) argues that counter-evidence with regard to the roles is found when these roles are differently measured and when contingency variables (such as management level) are considered. Moreover,

Mintzberg argues that top managers show the behaviour of all ten roles, but he does not indicate the relative frequency of the behaviours. Furthermore, in Mintzberg's study it was found that top managers do not engage in planning, but Luthans (1985) found that they do plan and co-ordinate.

Kotter (1982) provided support for Mintzberg's roles. He agrees that most of the managers' activities involve networking (and agenda setting) and that the manager's job is not so systematic and organised as one would expect from management theory.

Ad b. Boyatzis' managerial competencies

Boyatzis (1982) was one of the first who approached the management job in terms of required competencies (that is, for effective job performance) and linked them to job demands and (internal) environmental demands, resulting in an integrated model of management.

The demands made of a person in a management job are described in terms of five basic functions: planning, organising, controlling, motivating and co-ordinating. In order to perform the tasks within these functions, various competencies are needed. Boyatzis distinguished thirteen competencies within these five clusters of functions (see Appendix 2.1.c.).

Ad c. Luthans' managerial activities

Luthans and Lockwood (1984) developed a leader observation system (LOS) for the measurement of leader behaviour in natural settings. A leader was defined as those in managerial positions, at all levels, with responsibilities for supervising two or more subordinates.

The managerial activities approach used attempts to determine what managers/leaders at all levels actually do in the natural setting and uses direct methods of measurement (Luthans & Lockwood, 1984, p. 121), such as unstructured observation. The LOS reflects the difficulty of separating leadership from management. Both typical leadership categories and management categories are included.

The study resulted in 12 categories of concrete managerial activities. Each category contained several behavioural descriptors (see Appendix 2.1.d.). The 12 activities were grouped into four clusters (Luthans, 1988, see Figure 2.1.).

I. Communication	1. Exchanging routine information 2. Processing paperwork
II. Traditional Management	3. Planning and co-ordinating 4. Decision making and problem solving 5. Monitoring and controlling performance
III. Networking	6. Interacting with others/outside 7. Socializing, politicking
IV. Human Resource Management	8. Motivating and reinforcing 9. Disciplining and punishing 10. Managing conflict 11. Staffing 12. Training and developing

Figure 2.1. Twelve categories of managerial activities (Luthans & Lockwood, 1984).

Note that we will further indicate these managerial activities as management *tasks*, in order not to confuse later on with HRD-*activities*.

Support was found for both convergent and discriminant validity and for reliability of the LOS (Luthans & Lockwood, 1984, p. 139; Luthans, Lockwood & Conti as cited in Luthans, Rosenkrantz & Hennessey, 1985, p. 258). The categorisation includes some of the classic notions of Fayol (the

traditional management activities) as well as the more recent views of Mintzberg (the communication activities) and Kotter (the networking activities). Moreover, it has a lot in common with Yukl's Managerial practices. As a whole, however, especially with the inclusion of Human Resource Management activities, this view of real managers' activities is more comprehensive than previous sets of managerial work (Luthans, 1988, p. 129).

Beside positive comments on Luthans' categorisation, critical points have been made as well. Forsblad (1984) argued that there is no discussion of what data the LOS can be expected to produce and how LOS-data can be used to further our understanding of leadership in "natural settings". Furthermore, it is argued that some of the observational categories do not seem to be quite observable.

2.1.5. Comments with regard to taxonomies of managerial behaviour

Evidently, many different taxonomies of the management job exist. It is not hard to find large overlap between them. A comparison by Yukl (1989) of the different taxonomies revealed considerable convergence among them, despite differences in e.g. purpose, development, scope and level of abstraction. Yukl further states that there is no absolute set of 'correct' behaviour categories (Yukl, 1994, p. 65), thus putting the uniqueness of the various management descriptions into perspective. Moreover, because descriptions of the management job are often carelessly formulated by confusing functional aspects with personality traits and roles (Van de Linde, 1983), comparison of taxonomies is a complicated task.

Despite the considerable similarities and therefore possibilities to combine the different taxonomies, some difficulties remain. Criticism that can be levelled at generic models of managerial behaviour in general has been summarised by Iles and Salaman (1995, pp. 216-218), who mention the conceptual ambiguity of underlying terms, the 'off-the-shelf' nature of these taxonomies, the present-focused or past-focused style instead of a strategic and prospective nature and finally the insufficient emphasis they give to key managerial activities and characteristics (personality traits) such as creativity, impact or sensitivity. They argue that despite these criticisms, such competence approaches are valuable in the light of a strategically focused Human Resource Management (p. 219).

2.1.6. Managerial effectiveness

In the former section we described several categorisations of managerial behaviour. The question remains on what basis these categorisations have been developed. In other words, where do these behaviours have to lead to and what is the desired goal of these behaviours? These questions all point at the theme of managerial effectiveness.

It is not obvious what is good or effective management. Questions such as what attributes and behaviours effective managers display and how an individual can learn to be a good manager are still unsatisfactorily answered. Moreover, one true definition of effectiveness does not exist.

There are no doubts about the importance of management for organisational effectiveness. As an illustration, the question "what are the factors that are most important in overcoming business failure?" is answered with "provide better managers and train and educate current managers" (Whetten & Cameron, 1991, p. 5). Other research showed that in 89% of the cases poor management was the reason for bank-failure. Other examples also point out that management is a key factor in both firm success and firm failure.

It is assumed that it is the competence of managers that will influence the return that an organisation will secure from its investment in both human and material capital (Mangham & Silver as cited in Iles &

Salaman, p. 207). Increasing emphasis has therefore been given to managerial competences and to the need to identify the key managerial skills that underlie or underpin effective management performance.

While effectiveness is clearly a construct of central importance, it is not without problems (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983, p. 363). In a major review of the effectiveness literature, Campbell (1977) was able to identify 30 different criteria of effectiveness. Quinn and Rohrbaugh used these criteria in a study on effectiveness. They conclude that organisational researchers share an implicit theoretical framework and, consequently, the criteria of organisational effectiveness can be sorted according to three axes or value dimensions: 1) focus (internal – external), 2) structure (stability – flexibility), and 3) means and ends (processes – outcomes).

The effectiveness criteria define four models of organisational effectiveness: 1) rational goal model, 2) internal process model, 3) human relations model, and 4) open system model. In the 20th century these four different models roughly appeared chronologically, each representing a time period of 25 years with accompanying norms and values of that time as a result of a complex interplay between economic, societal, technological and other factors. Ideas from all models are useful to develop effective leaders. Especially the ability to combine these models will have the best results. These four models together constitute the larger concept of organisational effectiveness.

To summarise, it is not possible to unambiguously describe what effective management is because it is time-dependent and location-dependent. Cultural conceptions and technological and societal developments play a role in this, and influence management theories as well.

In other work by Quinn (e.g. 1988; 1990), these four models are described as the competing values model. This competing values model can also be applied at the managerial level. As we discussed earlier Quinn, Faerman, Thompson and McGrath (1990) distinguished eight managerial/leadership roles, each divided into three skills (see Appendix 2.1.b.).

Based on these roles, profiles of effective and ineffective managers were described (Quinn, 1988, p. 90). The so-called “masters of management” score high on all eight roles and are seen as highly effective. Effective leaders are able to integrate these seemingly conflicting roles. Managers incapable of combining different roles run the risk of acting in the so-called negative zone and thus become ineffective.

The group of “masters” is a small group of people, mostly in upper-middle or top management positions, with a lot of managerial experience. But, fortunately, the “master” archetype is not the only effective profile. It appears that one does not have to emphasise all the roles in order to be seen as effective. The issue seems to be one of balance of the roles. If positive scores counterbalance negative scores, managers can still be perceived to be effective.

According to situational leadership theories (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982) a universal effective leader does not exist, either. Instead, the focus is on the effectiveness of a leader in a certain situation. The situation (e.g. group characteristics, individual subordinates) determines which management behaviour is effective. By adjusting to an existing situation when needed and by anticipating new situations the manager acts as a “situation manager” (Poll, 1995). Of course, not every manager is capable of adjusting one’s style whenever needed (e.g. changing from a socially-driven to a task-driven style). Not every manager is suitable for every situation, either⁴.

It is now clear that the situation takes an important place in the effectiveness of managers. In order to be able to study managers' HRD-activities, however, we need a more general model of managerial

⁴ Here, the selection or training discussion comes into play.

effectiveness. Therefore, we wondered whether it is possible to draw conclusions about managerial effectiveness in general. That is, what activities are included in a general model of managerial effectiveness?

Luthans carried out several studies on managerial successfulness and effectiveness (Luthans *et al.*, 1984; 1985; Luthans, 1988), making clear that different effect measures can be chosen.

Managerial success was defined in terms of speed of promotion (the number of promotions per year of employment within the current organisation) and by considering the top level managers of each organisation studied to be successful because of their positions within their respective organisations.

For the measurement of effectiveness a combined effectiveness index was used: 1) getting the job done through high quantity and quality standards of performance, and 2) getting the job done through people, which requires their satisfaction and commitment.

It was found that networking makes the biggest relative contribution to managers' *success* (Luthans *et al.*, 1985; Luthans, 1988). A study on Russian managers (Luthans, Welsh & Rosenkrantz, 1993) showed similar results. Importantly, human resource management activities make the least relative contribution to managerial success.

Successful managers already arrived at top levels give relatively more attention to activities associated with decision making and planning/co-ordinating (Luthans, Rosenkrantz & Hennessey, 1985, p. 269). This indicates that one needs power and political/social skills to get ahead in an organisation and that decision making and planning/co-ordinating are important to top management.

For the *effectiveness* of managers, on the other hand, the human-oriented activities - communication and human resource management activities - made by far the largest relative contribution (Luthans, 1988, p. 130). While networking is the most important activity in the light of success, it contributes least to real managers' effectiveness.

The ideal situation would be to be both successful and effective at the same time. It appeared that for less than 10% of the sample this was the case. Successful managers seem not to be engaged in the same day-to-day activities as effective managers. In fact, they do almost the opposite.

Real managers who can strike the delicate balance between all four managerial activities may be able to get ahead as well as get the job done (Luthans, 1988, p. 131). Since human-oriented activities, such as communication and human resource management activities, directly contribute to the effectiveness of real managers, they deserve special attention (p. 131).

Similarly, research by Hanson (as cited in Whetten & Cameron, 1991) revealed that one factor "emphasis on the management of human resources" was three times more powerful than all other factors combined in accounting for firm financial success over a five-year period. Good "people management" was more important than all other factors in predicting profitability.

2.1.7. Conclusion: The management job

We have described taxonomies of management behaviour from different angles and approaches. We also discussed some of the criticism found in literature. Major ideas about managerial effectiveness were described as well.

From all the approaches mentioned above in describing managerial behaviour, a taxonomy must be chosen as a starting point for studying managers' learning behaviour. We agree with Huijgen and Williams (1984) that management development should be more related to what managers actually do in the course of their jobs. After all, if management development activities would be directed at tasks that managers *should* do only, then no performance improvement can be expected with regard to tasks managers in reality do. This was one of the reasons why we chose Luthans' taxonomy, which describes what managers actually do.

Based on a comparison of the different taxonomies, we found some gaps in Luthans' taxonomy compared to others, which mainly concerned the expert role (e.g. Jansen & Stoop, 1997; Vinkenbunrg, 1997), team building⁵ (e.g. Yukl, 1994) and the innovator role (Quinn, 1988). However, overall the advantages of the taxonomy of Luthans and Lockwood (1984) prevail. It has a fairly complete and comprehensive (because of the precise behavioural descriptors) character. For our study on managers' learning behaviour, a detailed description of the management job is necessary. By using a general description of the management job, we would run the risk of also getting general and vague answers to our questions concerning HRD-activities. Moreover, the taxonomy has been empirically tested in the Netherlands (Jansen & Stoop, 1997; Vinkenbunrg, 1994; 1997).

The decision for Luthans' taxonomy implies that we follow the "new" descriptive, or empirical, approach. Vinkenbunrg (1997) also chose to develop a general applicable expert profile of managerial behaviour based on Luthans' taxonomy, thus succeeding in categorising specific management behaviour into a general profile of effective management behaviour. In our first pilot study we will use the original taxonomy by Luthans and will test it on several criteria (see section 3.2.2.), one of which will be completeness of the categories.

2.2. Management learning

In search of an answer to our question "what is the significance of learning in a manager's career", we will address "learning" in general and "management learning" in specific in this section. The aim of this section is to make a choice for a categorisation of HRD-activities, which can further be used to find an answer to the question how to characterise managers' HRD-activities. We will start this section with addressing Human Resource Development (HRD) as the field of study (2.2.1.). Then, our view on learning and HRD-activities will be explained by discussing some major ideas from the constructivist approach (2.2.2.), followed by comments on the specific choice we made for an activity-approach of learning (2.2.3.). In 2.2.4. we will specifically focus on learning by managers, or "management learning". We will continue with describing several dimensions by which management learning can be characterised in 2.2.5. Several hypotheses are formulated regarding the nature of HRD-activities, especially concerning the formalisation dimension (2.2.5.1.) of learning. Moreover, the location at which learning takes place may vary and seems an important dimension to include in our study (2.2.5.2.). In 2.2.6. it will be illustrated that one's first management job serves as a fruitful learning situation. In 2.2.7. we will describe the relation between some background factors (both at individual and management task level) and the use of HRD-activities. The relation between management tasks and HRD-activities will be addressed in 2.2.8. We will conclude this section with the presentation of a categorisation of HRD-activities we choose to work with in our study (2.2.9).

2.2.1. Human Resource Development (HRD)

As we have already described at the beginning of the introductory chapter, it is very important to make a distinction between HRD at the *organisational* and at the *individual* level. In other words, HRD may represent a learning and development orientation of both the organisation and the individual. Similarly, HRM (Human Resource Management) would represent the orientation on selection, management, planning, forecasting, compensation, and staffing of vital human resources within the organisation (Gilley & Egglund, 1989, p. 19).

Individual HRD-activities take place within an organisational context. In this context HRD-policies and HRD-practices are developed to organise and support employees' learning (or HRD-)activities.

⁵ Note that team building is covertly presented in the "managing conflict" activity. However, it is more negatively formulated than for example in Yukl's combined managerial practice "managing conflict and team building".

The efforts that organisations make in the light of HRD-policies and HRD-practices may have several purposes. Gilley and Egglund (1989) define HRD as “organised learning activities arranged within an organisation in order to improve performance and/or personal growth for the purpose of improving the job, the individual, and/or the organisation. In other words, HRD may be aimed at individual development (current job), career development (future job) and organisational development” (Gilley & Egglund, 1989). Moreover, team learning can be an objective of HRD (Marsick & Watkins, 1996), which, according to Walton (1999, p. 234), “is geared to creating a collective mix of employee skills appropriate to the responsibilities of the work group or department”.

HRD often refers to different methods such as training, development and education. Training usually refers to learning that is provided in order to improve performance on the present job. Development refers to learning that is not necessarily job-related, although it may have some impact on a present or future job. And education refers to learning provided to improve performance on a future job or to enable a person to accept more responsibility and/or new assignments (Gilley & Egglund, 1989, p. 7). Davies and Easterby-Smith (1984) add to the discussion by addressing the distinction between learning and development. Learning, then, refers to the short-term products of training and the knowledge and tricks managers (or individuals in general) acquire in the course of the years. In contrast, development refers to the longer term and is often linked to the acquisition of increased competence or capability in relation with promotion.

Marsick and Watkins (1990) argue that learning might also take place over a longer period of time. They prefer to distinguish learning from training and education. Whereas training and education are delivery systems, learning is more broadly defined as “the way in which individuals or groups acquire, interpret, reorganise, change or assimilate a related cluster of information, skills and feelings”. The perspective taken by Marsick and Watkins (1990) seems a constructivist one. This stems from the fact that they write that learning is primary to the way in which people construct meaning in their personal and shared organisational lives.

In sum, from an organisational perspective, HRD can be viewed as a delivery system of training, development and education. For our study in which we aim to shed light on the significance of individual learning by managers, such an organisational HRD-perspective is too narrow. We choose an individual perspective on HRD which provides more room for individually meaningful learning (or HRD-)activities, which are often informal and self-directed in nature. To further elaborate on this individual perspective on HRD, the constructivist view on learning is a fruitful approach (2.2.2.).

2.2.2. Learning according to the constructivist approach

In the field of Educational Sciences, a lot has been written about what learning is, and which processes take place when a person learns. These descriptions vary largely in their views on knowledge and in psychological and educational beliefs, depending on the perspective from which learning is described.

The field of Learning and Instruction is now dominated by new trends such as (socio-)constructivism, situationism and collaborative learning. In short, these views on learning entail that learners of all ages are encouraged to construct their own knowledge instead of copying it from an authority, in realistic situations instead of decontextualised, formal situations and together with others instead of on their own (Kanselaar, De Jong, Andriessen & Goodyear, 2000). Others, following a constructivist approach as well, emphasise that learners have to learn on their own, executing self-directed, self-managed or independent learning, and implicit and informal learning (Simons, 1996). Apparently, within a constructivist approach of learning, different views exist on the level of collaboration needed.

The important epistemological assumption of constructivism is that knowledge is a function of how the individual creates meaning from his or her experiences; it is not a function of what someone else says is true (Jonassen as cited in Kanselaar *et al.*, 2000). "Many tend to equalize learning with the intake of factual information through reproduction activities instead of realizing that learning is a constructive activity and process in its very essence" (Simons, 1996, p. 2). The constructivist approach is sometimes referred to as "new learning", which indicates that it is a modern approach to learning.

These constructivist assumptions influence educational beliefs, ideas about the best way to support learning. According to Duffy and Cunningham (1996, p. 171) instruction is a process of supporting knowledge construction rather than communicating knowledge.

According to De Corte (1998, p. 150) there is wide agreement on the following definition of learning: it is a constructive, cumulative, self-regulated, goal-directed, situated, collaborative and individually different process of knowledge acquisition, sense making and skill development.

Theories and ideas in the field of Learning & Instruction, mostly situated in a regular educational setting, influence theory development in the field of corporate education and vice versa. Not surprisingly, parallel developments are observed in the field of personnel development or Human Resource Development (HRD).

In the field of HRD, social-constructivism means in particular more room for self-direction of learning, and more emphasis on e.g. action learning and experiential learning (Simons, 1999, p. 1). Moreover, the exchange of organisations' interests and individuals' interests is stressed (p. 8). Obviously, both parties' interests do not necessarily match⁶.

New learning is situated in a concrete and authentic context, which implies that learning on the job is important. Examples of (instructional) methods used in organisations and fitting the constructivist approach are coaching and mentoring (Duffy & Cunningham, 1996), team learning and the use of individual development plans (Simons, 1996). Moreover, ideas about situated learning, learning by doing and discovery learning fit into these modern approaches of learning (see work of e.g. Dewey and Bruner as cited in Duffy & Cunningham, 1996, pp. 173-174).

2.2.3. Learning processes and learning (or HRD-)activities

In different areas of study the same term is sometimes given different meanings. This is also the case with the term *learning*, to which not everyone attaches the same meaning.

The distinction between learning processes and learning activities is an important one. The process approach puts more emphasis on construction of knowledge and the meaning of knowledge construction, while the activity approach⁷ assigns more importance to the demonstrable actions that people carry out in order to learn. The latter approach is more common in the field of HRD.

Learning *processes* are unconscious, hidden mental processes that result in changes in knowledge, attitudes and/or skills. Moreover, a time dimension is included in learning processes. In contrast, learning *activities* refer to (mental) activities people undertake in order to influence the hidden learning processes (such as comparing, summarising and analysing) (Simons, 1996, p. 3). They include more demonstrable activities such as studying a book and discussing with colleagues (Warmerdam & Van den Berg, 1992). The learner's activities bring about learning processes, which eventually lead to certain learning results (Boekaerts & Simons, 1995).

⁶ The individual's interest to work on one's own learning goals (e.g. personal development) may be in conflict with the organisation's interest in a high production.

⁷ It should be stressed that what we call an "activity approach" is different from the so-called activity theory (see e.g. Van Parreren, 1983), which primarily focuses on conscious goal-directed mental actions or activities that learners undertake to influence objects in their environment.

The definition of learning activities (or HRD-activities) we will use, according to the latter approach, is the following: all kinds of ways to acquire new competences, both on and off the job (Thijssen, 1996, p. 11). This includes the improvement of already existing knowledge, skills or attitudes as well.

An example of a study in which a learning activity approach is chosen is the one conducted by Warmerdam and Van den Berg (1992). They identified a fairly complete and comprehensive set of informal on-the-job learning activities. It consists of four main categories: 1) learning by doing (new things; inclusive self-instruction), 2) collegial consultation, 3) instruction and coaching, and 4) visiting professional fairs, conferences, etc. The fourteen learning activities are all directed at external objects and represent demonstrable actions; they do not refer to internal mental processes.

Based on a literature search, these categories of informal activities were rephrased into examples of various ways in which employees learn, without transforming these learning activities into formal training or courses (see Figure 2.2.).

Fourteen learning activities

1. Looking for information in manuals, professional handbooks, etc.
 2. Practising, experimenting with new tools and work methods
 3. Solving problems during work oneself
 4. Performing extra difficult jobs
 5. Going on excursion
 6. Visiting professional exhibitions and fairs
 7. Asking colleagues for help/advice
 8. Exchanging work experiences with colleagues
 9. Watching how colleagues/superiors perform tasks
 10. Consulting computer instructions
 11. Discussing one's tasks with a permanent mentor/coach
 12. Getting explanation/instruction from supervisor or expert
 13. Performing difficult assignments with coaching
 14. Getting instruction from supplier
-

Figure 2.2. Description of fourteen learning activities (Warmerdam & Van den Berg, 1992).

Kwakman (1992) carried out a factor analysis on the same set of activities, which resulted in three factors: 1) supported learning (through the availability of a supportive environment, e.g. colleagues or other social actors, and directed by both the environment and the learner him- or herself), 2) discovery learning (consisting of analysing problems, searching for solutions and experimenting and is directed by the learner him- or herself), 3) external learning (learning taking place outside the workplace). In these factors dimensions can be recognised, such as social versus non-social learning and learning on the job versus learning off-the-job (inside or outside business setting). A third distinction could be self-directed (initiated by learner) versus external-directed learning (initiated by others). In section 2.2.9. we will describe our own categorisation developed on the basis of the work of these authors (Kwakman, 1992; Warmerdam & Van den Berg, 1992).

2.2.4. Learning by managers

In this section we will focus on the development of a particular group of employees, those in management positions. In this respect literature on management learning and management development is relevant.

The term "management development" needs some explanation since different meanings are attached to it. Usually, the term is broadly interpreted and refers to the whole set of personnel activities that organisations carry out to secure the availability of qualified and motivated employees at key-positions (at the right time) (Haak *et al.*, 1998). Examples of such personnel activities are training and development, recruitment and selection, career management and succession planning. Beside this broader interpretation of the term, management development is also used as a synonym for

management learning⁸. Then, management development is explicitly reserved for managers' individual development issues. In this study we join the latter, narrower approach, which is represented by e.g. Hawrylyshyn (as cited in Huijgen & Williams, 1984), who argues that management development encompasses the whole complex process by which managers as individuals learn, grow and improve their ability to perform professional management tasks. It is differentiated from management training, which is aimed at developing managers' highly specific and immediately useful skills. Additionally, it is something else than organisational development, which is not only concerned with the individual but with the development of either the whole or at least major parts of an organisation.

Management development seems to be a major topic within the field of HRD. In almost any handbook on HRM, a lot of attention is given to development, in particular management development.

Baldwin and Padgett (1994, p. 309) argue that organisations are beginning to view management development as an integral component of competitive advantage and as an activity requiring a great deal of self-directed effort and life-long learning. With such high expectations, it is not surprising that management development will be the biggest challenge for HRD-professionals, especially the development of top management (Thijssen, 1992a).

The variation in management development programmes is large. While some organisations have an entire management development trajectory at their disposal in order to support management learning, in other organisations, management development is largely left to chance. There, organisations trust more on the self-direction of their managers.

There is a multitude of possible reasons why an organisation might want to develop its managers (see also introductory chapter). The most obvious ones are to improve performance in the current job or to equip the individual for some future role (Huijgen & Williams, 1984, p. 573). Depending on the aim of management development, the emphasis could lay on development of particular skills or techniques, or on learning general skills and learning how to learn. According to this latter approach, the type of learning which Argyris and Schön (1978) call double-loop learning is especially relevant.

In addition, reasons for management development can be to have people meet each other, as a mark of status, as a reward and as a means to have people flow out of the organisation.

Management learning can take several forms. Depending on the view on learning (see also section 2.2.2. about constructivism) the methods and techniques to be used for management development will vary. According to Huijgen and Williams (1984) there are two general views about management development: the instrumental and the existential one. These are two extremes on a continuum spreading from passive to active learner involvement in the learning process. It is clear that the latter approach is more like the constructivist approach we have discussed earlier. Informal ways of management development, suited for unstructured problems on the job, fit into this approach. A formal management development programme is more in line with an instrumental approach and is suitable to teach structured and predictable behaviour.

The variety of ways to organise management development processes in organisations appears from Mumford's work (1986) in which he describes various methods, such as using others to learn, self-managed learning, action learning, open and distance learning.

Although in the last decades, several studies have been carried out on management learning (e.g. Akin, 1987; Kelleher *et al.*, 1986; McCall *et al.*, 1988; Van der Sluis-Den Dikken, 2000) and several handbooks on management development have been published (e.g. Mumford, 1986), our knowledge of how managers learn is still rather limited. Therefore, studies on how managers actually develop are strongly needed.

⁸ We will use both terms, referring to the narrow meaning.

Akin (1987) underlines this need with his statement that “although many studies have given us insight into what successful managers do, they do not shed light on how they came to be doing it. To develop effective managers, we not only have to know what skills, knowledge, and attitudes are associated with excellent management, but also how those things can be learned.”

In order to illustrate the variation of HRD-activities that can be used by employees, and by managers in particular, we will now address several dimensions of HRD-activities.

2.2.5. Dimensions of HRD-activities

In organisations people, including managers, learn in many different ways. Next to training and education, all kinds of terms are used to specify more informal job-related HRD-activities, such as learning on the job, workplace learning, informal learning, experiential learning, immanent learning, incidental learning, day-to-day learning, self-managed learning and socialisation.

Several learning dimensions underlie these HRD-activities and can serve as a starting point to further describe and structure the variety of HRD-activities. Van Onna (1985) addresses two dimensions to describe job-related learning. The first dimension is the level to which there is pedagogical involvement, or in other words, the level to which learning is *formalised*. The second dimension is the distance between work processes and learning processes. Learning on the job is directly linked to the workplace, while learning off the job is indirectly linked to the workplace. This dimension is also referred to as the integration of work and learning (Poell, 1998).

The combination of these two dimensions results in a matrix with four cells which represent four types of HRD-activities (Figure 2.3.). Of each type of job-related HRD-activity we will give examples.

	Location	On the job	Off the job
Formalisation			
Formal		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • On-site training • On-site instruction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Following an external course • Getting instruction of supplier
Informal		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Solving a problem at work • Practising with new equipment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Experimenting with new software at home • Getting experience in heading a meeting of a football club

Figure 2.3. Types of job-related HRD-activities based on formalisation and location.

Beside the level of *formalisation* and the *location of learning*, the level of *intention* of learning (or planning) is identified as an important dimension by several authors (Marsick & Watkins, 1990; Onstenk, 1997; Watkins & Marsick, 1992), as is the level of self-direction (Durr *et al.*, 1996; Guglielmino *et al.*, 1987; Knowles, 1975; Long *et al.*, 1993).

Because these learning dimensions are not totally independent, the chance of confusion is apparent.

Formal and intentional (or planned) HRD-activities, for instance, are mixed up sometimes. Moreover, from time to time incidental and informal learning are incorrectly regarded to be synonyms (Kraayvanger & Van Onna, 1985). In order to prevent confusion with regard to these dimensions, some further explanation is needed.

To further structure and describe “learning”, we will use two learning dimensions⁹: formalisation (2.2.5.1.) and location (on-the-job versus off-the-job learning) (2.2.5.2.).

⁹ Another important learning dimension is generic versus specific value. This will be discussed in chapter 4, since this dimension is especially relevant in the light of career development and future career prospects. As mentioned above, in this chapter the focus is on learning activities directed at mastering one’s current job.

2.2.5.1. Formalisation of learning

In the field of HRD, it was common to regard learning to be synonymous with *formal* learning activities, such as education (in schools) and training off the job. Likewise, management development used to be seen as being similar to formal management training courses¹⁰. Although formal learning remains an important way of organising learning, many alternatives are available (Poell, 1998). Formal training certainly is not the only effective way of personnel development. The traditional view does not hold in a knowledge-society which highly values lifelong learning and permanent education.

The level of formalisation of an HRD-activity refers to the extent to which the activity is structured and/or organised by a pedagogical or didactical authority (e.g. teacher, trainer, coach). Formal learning takes place in a situation especially arranged for learning. Informal learning, on the other hand, occurs in authentic situations, which are not primarily organised for learning (such as the workplace).

Formal HRD-activities are generally assumed to be goal-directed, organised and structured and to have educational intentions (Warmerdam, 1993, Marsick & Watkins, 1990). Marsick and Watkins (1990) add that formal learning is institutionally sponsored and classroom-based. Examples of formal HRD-activities are courses and seminars.

It seems particularly difficult to define informal learning. One of the reasons for this is the diversity of objectives within various contexts. Depending on the actual situation, the objective can be the optimisation of work activities or the exchange of work experiences (Van Onna, 1992, p. 128).

It is widely acknowledged, however, that informal learning is a relevant issue of topical interest (Van Onna, 1992, p. 126). In spite of this, little is known about the forms, the effects and the conditions of informal learning.

HRD-activities which are mainly unorganised and which unfold within the work situation by executing normal labour tasks are normally indicated as informal learning. The integration with the actual work (processes) is closer than in the case of formal learning¹¹.

This definition of informal learning is based on the contrast with formal learning (e.g. Kwakman, 1995). Several authors follow this approach. It is the kind of learning that is not designed in a specific way and which is not structured by a pedagogical actor (Van der Krogt, 1995a).

In short, informal learning is defined as a rest category of everything which is not formal learning. Obviously, this way of defining this phenomenon is not largely satisfying.

Other authors have explicitly studied the nature of informal HRD-activities, which seems to give more insight into informal job-related learning. Marsick and Watkins (1990) posit that the control of informal learning activities primarily rests in the hands of the learner (Marsick & Watkins, 1990). It includes more self-direction and responsibility of the learners themselves. For example, learners may set learning-goals themselves and may choose learning material and the level of interaction as well. Many terms are common to refer to kinds of informal learning, such as everyday learning (Van Biesen, 1989), do-it-yourself learning, hidden learning and spontaneous learning (Van der Zee, 1989).

Kotter (1989), in underlining the importance of *informal* management development, mentions as an example of an informal learning activity on the job, that the (general) manager's boss can be a helpful coach and can arrange activities that foster the types of actions a new executive should be taking.

It is difficult to determine where exactly formal learning stops and informal learning begins. The fact that formalisation may refer to various aspects of a learning situation may illustrate this problem.

¹⁰ To illustrate, nowadays outdoor challenge training is a very popular formal method and is especially suitable for team-building purposes. Unfortunately, little is known about the effectiveness of these programmes.

¹¹ Although informal learning many times implies learning on the job, it certainly cannot be regarded to be synonymous. As we shall address in section 2.2.5.2., not all learning processes that take place on the job are informal.

According to Van der Krogt (1995a, p. 100) four starting points for standardisation (or formalisation) of learning exist: 1) standardisation of results (by setting goals), 2) standardisation of the learning process itself (for example sequential steps to be taken in a workshop), 3) standardisation of the learning-potential of the workplace (e.g. by making requirement for the learning-situation explicit) and 4) “standardisation of learners” by learning them how to learn in order to behave “correctly” in a training or learning situation.

The more these aspects are standardised by pedagogical authorities, the more formal learning becomes and the less active the learner needs to be. It is possible, however, that learners control (some of) these aspects themselves, thus taking more responsibility for their own learning. The emphasis then shifts towards more self-directed ways of learning. The transition from formal to informal learning is a gradual one.

Confusion may also arise from the fact that besides terms as formal and informal learning, other terms are used to point at the same learning dimension. Mandl and Reinmann-Rothmeier (1995, p. 7), for instance, distinguish explicit from implicit learning. Explicit learning is organised and takes place in planned learning environments, while implicit learning refers to a (incidental) learning process in which interaction with others is central. Evidently, a clear parallel exists with formal and informal learning.

The question remains why there is so much attention for informal learning. Several reasons can be mentioned. First of all, it fits in thoughts about lifelong learning and permanent education, which can be accomplished by both formal and informal kinds of learning activities. Additionally, informal learning activities seem to have possible effects on productivity, which are considered to be high, even in comparison with the value added due to formal learning (Van Onna, 1992).

Furthermore, the importance of informal learning appears from the estimation that about twice as much time is spent on informal learning as on goal-directed planned and organised educational activities (Mulder *et al.*, 1988). Carnevale (1984) even estimates that 83% of time and money is spent on informal and incidental learning, as opposed to 17% on formal learning. Others say that approximately 70% of the way employees learn their job is through informal learning¹². Finally, the economic benefit of informal learning to firms is statistically significant. We would like to stress the danger of such attempts to describe the amount of informal learning by precise numbers, especially because a major part of all informal learning activities is indiscernible as a direct result of the unorganised character.

Moreover, the financial advantages and the opportunities for tuning learning arrangements to the specific demands of the work context are factors that lead to a greater importance of (informal) on-the-job learning. Finally, because of the extra possibilities that arise for surviving in a changing work environment, the increasing attention for informal learning activities is justified (Thijssen, 1997a).

We should not forget that beside the fact that informal learning is an attractive alternative for formal learning, it is also a *necessary* supplement to formal learning. It is unrealistic to think that it would be possible to learn a job to its full extent in formally arranged settings. It is required to further develop oneself while actually carrying out one’s job. To illustrate, informal development on the job is indispensable when, for example, managers have to start their new job unprepared because of a vacant position that needs to be filled quickly. When such a promotion towards a management position occurs based on excellent performance in a former operational (non-management) job, satisfactory performance as a manager is not at all guaranteed. Then, informal HRD-activities on the job are needed to compensate for the lack of managerial experience.

¹² Education Development Center (the teaching firm) at <http://www.edc.org/>

So far, this section has described the meaning of formalisation of learning and the reasons for the increased attention for informal learning. This section will continue with some other issues related to the level of formalisation of learning. These issues are:

- a) the relation between formal and informal learning;
- b) examples of informal learning strategies: learning by doing and self-directed learning;
- c) level of intention of learning: intentional, incidental and informal learning;
- d) factors that influence informal learning.

Ad a. On the relation between formal and informal learning

Several studies have shown that when managers are asked to describe their most significant learning experiences, they invariably describe on-the-job experiences as having contributed most to their development (McCall, Lombardo & Morrison, 1988; Mumford, 1986; Davies & Easterby-Smith, 1984). In a study on the transition from employee to managers by Hill (1994, p. 213) it is stated that "all managers agreed to have become managers mainly through learning-by-doing"; adding that formal education also played an important, but restrictive, role. This restrictive role of formal education can be explained by the fact that managers learn from a tremendous amount of learning experiences on the job. As Salaman and Butler (1994, p. 38) state, "if managers didn't learn a lot during their work, there would be less resistance to following courses". Managers learn how to survive, how to operate in their organisational environment. This might be in tension with formal training.

Studies on learning style support the pragmatic attitude of managers towards learning. They are generally viewed as 'accommodators' and prefer to learn from concrete experience and active experimentation (Kolb, 1984).

Furthermore, it is assumed that managers will only learn when the subject has obvious and immediate practical application (Salaman & Butler, 1994, p. 36). The content and process of formalised management development programmes have changed as a result of the recognition that managers (and adults in general) learn best by actually doing things that are of practical relevance to them (Baldwin & Padgett, 1994).

Finally, Noe and Wilk (1993) concluded that on-the-job experience may be more valuable for skill and competency development than formal courses or seminars.

The principles of action learning are receiving more and more attention. It is based on the idea that people learn best from their personal experience of doing something (Baldwin & Padgett, 1994, p. 299) and includes an emphasis on developing management competencies (rather than knowledge acquisition), self-managed learning and learning from peers (Prideaux & Ford, 1988).

It seems to be a natural attitude of managers to learn from experience. It seems therefore most appropriate to take the manager's experience as a starting point for development and to use formal HRD-activities as a supplement¹³.

In sum, managers prefer to learn informally. We therefore expect that the more informal an HRD-activity is, the more managers will use it.

Although several advantages of informal learning have been mentioned, this does not automatically imply that informal HRD-activities are more important than formal HRD-activities. A combination of formal and informal HRD-activities would probably be the best solution for all kinds of developmental matters. The same point has been argued by Marsick and Watkins (1990) who do not advocate the elimination of training activities, but seek ways to enhance its linkage with informal and incidental learning.

¹³ In case someone has only limited interest in a certain domain, it is unlikely that informal and self-directed learning activities will be directed at this domain. Formal learning activities may be organised to compensate for possible gaps.

Informal learning might give an opportunity to better bridge the gap between what is learnt in schools and what is needed and useful outside schools, or in the workplace. Moreover, informal learning activities are sometimes seen as a replacement of or an alternative for formal learning. Unfortunately, in practice this seems too optimistic.

To conclude, it seems worthwhile to take a closer look at managers' informal HRD-activities, while at the same time not neglecting the value of formal training. It is, however, still unclear how the use of informal HRD-activities relates to the use of formal HRD-activities.

The compensation hypothesis addresses this relation and implies that a low participation in formal HRD-activities is compensated by (additional and many) informal HRD-activities (Thijssen, 1996, pp. 47, 62). Rothwell and Kazanas (1990), too, report that, in case no formal training is offered, employees will learn their work by informal learning activities, such as "advice provided by co-workers" and "watching or imitating others". From earlier research, however, a lack of clarity exists about this hypothesis (Thijssen, 1996, p. 63). In the field of adult education no evidence is found for this hypothesis, either (Rubenson as cited in Thijssen, 1996; Van der Kamp, 1993). We will therefore test the hypothesis that formal and informal HRD-activities compensate each other.

Ad b. Examples of informal strategies: learning by doing and self-directed learning

The first example of a typical informal HRD-activity is learning by doing. This is also referred to by synonyms such as experiential learning, learning from experience and immanent learning. Learning by doing can be more or less intentional.

Elshout-Mohr and Moerkamp (1998) mention "consumptive" learning as a very usual way of learning by simply being present (at work) and keeping eyes and ears wide open. It is a passive strategy. Additional strategies, more active in nature, are needed, however, when more complex things have to be learned. The authors emphasise that from the perspective of educational sciences, more room must be created for active and self-regulated learning. This type of learning fits well into an environment which is not primarily developed for learning, such as the workplace (Elshout-Mohr & Moerkamp, 1998, p. 29).

Onstenk (1994, p. 17) describes immanent learning as learning by doing. It is linked to the work itself as a learning process. Learning takes place by and during job performance. A work environment supportive for learning by doing offers time for reflection and room for experimentation.

The second example of an informal learning strategy is self-directed learning. The level of self-direction is especially important for informal kinds of HRD-activities, because then initiative is expected from the learner.

The extreme ends of the direction continuum are self-directed learning on the one hand and externally directed learning on the other hand. While the former means that the learner takes responsibility for the design and process of his own learning, the latter points to a kind of learning which is largely determined by external factors¹⁴.

Shuell (1988) uses the terms directed and autonomous learning to point at different levels of direction of learning activities. He states that various psychological functions¹⁵ must be performed in order for someone to learn (from instruction) (p. 284). When these functions are in the hand of someone else than the learner, it is called *directed learning*. When the learners perform these functions themselves, it is called *autonomous learning*.

Baldwin and Padgett (1994) stress that "managers of the future will have to be strong self-learners not only to learn autonomously, but to have the capacity to learn about themselves" (p. 278), because the

¹⁴ A third type is non-directed or incidental learning; there is no direction at all. This topic will be dealt with ad c. (level of intention).

¹⁵ An example of a psychological function is "attention". A teacher can initiate this function by verbal emphasising something; when it is learner-initiated, it can be underlining text or taking notes.

managerial environment is changing so rapidly. Furthermore, from a growing body of literature on self-directed management-development they observe a move from more trainer-centred to more learner-centred learning (p. 305).

In sum, self-directed learning and self-development are increasingly important for everyone, whether in or out of employment. Taking into account the fact that employees are held more and more responsible for their own employability, it is to be expected that organisations do not take the initiative in offering opportunities for individual development. "Then self-directed learning may be the only way by which people can realize their potential" (Harrison, 1992, p. 131).

Ad c. Level of intention of learning: Intentional, incidental and informal learning

Beside learning that takes place with a predetermined goal, a lot of learning happens by chance as a by-product of other activities and without the learner being aware of it. It is assumed that this latter kind of learning forms a large part of our total learning experiences.

The continuum from intentional to incidental learning is generally used to refer to the level of consciousness of learning activities (Marsick & Watkins, 1990). But other expressions are used as well, such as planned and emergent learning (Megginson, 1996; Darling & Parry, 1999), deliberative and implicit learning (Eraut, 2000) and active and passive learning readiness (Van Onna, 1985). Active learning-readiness is parallel to intentional learning and appears from the individual taking initiative (consciously) to acquire certain qualifications. Passive learning readiness is parallel to incidental learning (Van Onna, 1985, p. 58).

It is, however, misleading that some authors have different interpretations of the same terms.

Emergent learning, for instance, has been described by Darling and Parry (1999, p. 1) as an "intentional, evolutionary approach to learning". It contains iterative learning experiments in a locally defined arena (=work place) in order to master "performance over time" instead of only today's performance. Megginson (1996, p. 417), however, defines emergent learning as a strategy characterised by unpremeditated exploration; it thus represents an *incidental* kind of learning. On the contrary, a planned strategy represents an approach with a mix of deliberation and forethought.

There often is confusion about the extent to which informal learning is intentional or incidental. While some authors regard informal learning as an unconscious strategy and thus as synonymous of incidental learning, others see informal learning as a planned strategy in contrast with incidental learning, which is never planned or intentional (Marsick & Watkins, 1992).

Marsick and Watkins explicitly address the differences between informal and incidental learning. In their opinion, learning takes place through an ongoing, dialectical process of action and reflection. To reflect people must consciously become aware that they are learning. Reflective practice is at the core of what is called "continuous learning for continuous improvement". Experimenting and thus seeking reality-based feedback is one way of continuous learning (Marsick & Watkins, 1992, p. 9). The difference between formal, informal and incidental learning becomes clear in the following figure (2.4.).

	Presence of reflection	Absence of reflection
Presence of action	Informal learning	Incidental learning
Absence of action	Formal learning	Not learning

Figure 2.4 Action and reflection in learning (Watkins & Marsick, 1992).

Thus, informal and incidental learning both find place during action, but the latter lacks reflection. Incidental learning is seen as a sub-category of informal learning. Informal and incidental learning take place along a continuum of conscious awareness. It is difficult to precisely distinguish between these two kinds of learning.

The similarity of informal and incidental learning lies in the fact that they both take place in the normal course of daily events without a high degree of design or structure. Incidental learning is a by-product of some other activity, such as task accomplishment, interpersonal interaction, sensing the organisational culture, trial-and-error experimentation, or even formal learning (Marsick & Watkins, 1990). Incidental learning includes, for instance, learning from mistakes (and from successes) and learning by doing.

Informal and incidental learning are needed most when individuals experience a situation as non-routine (Marsick & Watkins, 1990). Then, no formal training will be available.

Informal learning, by definition, is non-routine because it occurs in an indeterminate, unsystematic, uncontrolled context. This non-routine character produces the need for skill in critical reflection.

Van der Krogt (1995a, p. 88) agrees with Marsick and Watkins that informal learning can be more or less intentional. He adds that the level of intention is a difficult criterion because it is sometimes unclear whose intentions are meant: the learner's, the educator's or the customer's.

Learning may be triggered by learners themselves and by people in their direct environment. A third important factor that may evoke learning is the learning environment. Several authors advocate to arrange situations in such a way that certain (desired) behaviour is evoked (e.g. Van Parreren, 1983). Gibson (1969) named this affordance. When learning on the job is desired, a workplace with high learning potential can be arranged, which increases the likelihood that learning processes will take place (Onstenk, 1995).

In addressing the close but complex relation between intentional and incidental learning, De Vries (1988) delicately states that training on the job can also contain incidental learning processes, but they occur within an intentional framework.

The question remains whether planned learning is to be preferred to incidental learning. Different opinions exist. Megginson (1996) argues that both the planned and the emergent strategy are legitimate and effective and therefore have equal esteem. After his observation that responsibility for learning has shifted from HRD-departments to the individual learner, he argues that once learners actually take a more proactive role in their own development, the requirement for awareness of their own learning strategies and styles grows. It thus involves a requirement for learners to engage in a planning strategy (Megginson, 1996, p. 424). The use of a learning contract is part of the new, planned, approach of learning. However, not everybody feels comfortable with planning his or her learning. In other words, people may use a planned strategy or rather use an emergent strategy (Megginson, 1996).

Marsick and Watkins (1990) maintain that the strength lies in a combination of formal, informal and incidental learning.

Finally, it is worth noting that although it is easy to mention many examples of intentional learning within schools (such as learning for a specific test), it is a mistake to think that incidental learning does not take place in schools or business courses. Incidental learning is almost constantly taking place. Becoming familiar with an organisation's culture is an example of such an (largely) incidental process. Examples of incidental learning on the job are situational learning, socialisation and organisational learning (Kwakman, 1995, p. 10).

To conclude, it is not surprising that a lot of learning in organisations is incidental. Learning-processes are often intertwined with work activities and with career decisions. Achieving working targets most of the time gets the highest priority. It is certainly not always evident that learning processes could be of

help. In this study we therefore include both goal-directed (planned) and incidental learning processes, which may well contribute to these working goals.

Ad d. Factors that influence informal learning

From literature it appears that it depends on both personal and environmental factors whether informal learning will actually occur. In the theory on the learning potential of the workplace both factors are included (Onstenk, 1994). The learning potential of the workplace refers to the chance that learning processes will occur in certain work situations. Two categories of individual characteristics influence the chance on learning: the initial qualification level (educational level, past experience and learning skills) and learning readiness (learning motivation, active or passive willingness to learn and resistance to learning).

Watkins and Marsick (1990, p. 7) describe three enhancers of informal and incidental learning: creativity, pro-activity and critical reflection. First, creativity is the capacity of people to see a situation from many points of view and to use new perspectives and insights to break out of preconceived patterns that inhibit learning. Secondly, pro-activity is the readiness to take initiative in learning. A proactive person will quickly take charge of his or her learning once pushed into the learning cycle. Proactivity is closely related to "autonomy" and "empowerment". Autonomy is at the heart of self-directedness, which Brookfield (1986) defines as an internal, mental disposition. Empowerment is a precondition for proactivity. Pointing at the necessity for employees to be given responsibility and a certain freedom to make decisions in their work.

Thirdly, critical reflectivity stands for surfacing and criticising tacit, taken-for-granted assumptions and beliefs that need to be examined in order for people to reframe problems. Especially critical reflectivity is emphasised, "which requires people to check their assumptions before blindly acting on them, pay attention to surprising results and inquire into their meaning, ask probing questions, and reframe their understanding of what a problem might be" (Marsick & Watkins, 1990, p. 29). Action scientists refer to critical reflectivity with the concept of double-loop learning.

For informal learning the learner uses his or her environment in a certain way. The environment is not especially designed for learning, but is a normal daily work environment. The success of informal learning depends on the adequacy of the workplace as an environment for learning (Van Onna, 1992, p. 126).

Onstenk (1994; 1997) describes two characteristics of the work situation that influence the learning potential of the workplace: the job itself and the work environment. Jobs containing a variety of simple and complex tasks, opportunity for negotiation, sufficient social contacts, autonomy and a positive learning climate will enhance the opportunity that learning at the workplace will occur. Moreover, features of the work environment such as feedback, instruction, encouragement by colleagues and superiors, the availability of information and handbooks, tutors, etc. will encourage learning on the job. The social component of the workplace certainly is important for informal learning. Through discussions at work with colleagues, superiors and subordinates, and by asking advice to experts, suppliers, customers, etc., ample learning opportunities are created in a social context. Hall and Moss (1998), too, emphasise the significance of learning from, among others, colleagues and bosses. Moreover, Warmerdam (1993) states that functional and social contacts are basic conditions for informal learning. Learning in interaction with others is generally seen as a powerful learning experience and fits in a socio-constructivist approach of learning.

Others emphasise the role of coaching, mentoring, collegial exchange of experience, but also the use of performance reviews and career programmes can foster informal learning.

In all cases, even in the most optimal and supportive work environments, learner initiative is required for informal learning, especially as a result of the unorganised character of this type of learning. Therefore, we conclude that a combination of certain personal factors (such as initiative) and environmental factors (such as a workplace with high learning potential) is needed in order to enhance the likeliness of informal learning to happen.

Conclusion formalisation

It is difficult to draw a precise line between formal and informal learning. Van der Krogt (1995a) rightly states that in between the extreme ends of the dimension formal – informal learning, there are numerous kinds of activities, which vary to the extent they are standardised or structured.

In our study we will use the term “non-formal”¹⁶ for HRD-activities that fulfil certain, but not all, conditions. Eraut (2000) uses the term “non-formal” learning as the contrast to formal learning (p. 114), thus attaching the same meaning to non-formal learning as we do. Examples of non-formal HRD-activities are coaching and using job aids¹⁷, which are both partially structured, respectively by the coach or by the person who designed the job aid.

In conclusion, because of the value of both formal and informal HRD-activities, we combine these types in our categorisation of HRD-activities (see section 2.3.). However, it is worth noting that because of the recent popularity of informal learning and its acknowledged added value, we will emphasise the role of informal HRD- activities.

2.2.5.2. On-the-job and off-the-job learning

Since most of the manager’s learning is experiential learning occurring at work, the on-the-job versus off-the-job dimension is important to address. The work content and environment are the crucial elements that influence learning, in addition to the manager’s ability and will to learn (Kubr & Prokopenko, 1989, p. 36). This dimension is also addressed as the integration of work and learning (Poell, 1998).

Recently, a lot of attention has been given to the relation and integration of work and learning (Thijssen, 1997a, p. 12) which is clear from the many empirical studies that have been carried out on workplace learning and training (see e.g. De Jong, 1995, 1996, 1997; De Jong & Versloot, 1999; Finch & Hopkins, 1997; Glauvé, 1997; Jacobs & Jones, 1995; Kwakman, 1999; Marsick, 1987; Marsick & Watkins, 1990; 1992; McCall *et al.*, 1988; Onstenk, 1994, 1995, 1997; Van der Klink, 1999; Van Onna, 1985, 1992; Warmerdam, 1993; Wexley & Latham, 1991).

Warmerdam (1993, p. 19) illustrates the close link between working and learning by concluding that organising the work in a learning-friendly way, and organising learning in a work-friendly way will finally yield the most effective learning processes. Kessels (2000) argues that learning processes taking place in the work situation on a daily base are many times more powerful and effective than courses that are organised apart from work and on a central level.

Several other reasons for the increased interest in the workplace as a learning environment can be mentioned. First, the fact that modern work organisations might be too hectic for pre-planned training. By the time that formal off-the-job training has been developed, the content can well be outmoded. Secondly, the nature of work itself has changed; a lot of work can nowadays be typified as knowledge work. So-called knowledge workers can no longer perform their jobs without learning (Kessels & Keursten, 2001, p. 8). Work and learning are obviously converging (Van Onna, 1992; De Jong, 1997). Put in extremes “work is equivalent to learning”. Thirdly, the achievement of flexibility by just-in-time training on the job and, as a consequence, the early availability of new employees. Furthermore, lower

¹⁶ Non-formal learning, as we define it, must not be confused with e.g. non-formal learning as it is used in the US where it is often used for second-chance education or for the developing world.

¹⁷ A tool containing external information which can be used during task execution so that the task will be better performed (Von Berg & Keursten, 1995)

expenses, higher motivation and absence of problems with transfer of what has been learned to the working environment are mentioned as reasons for the use of on-the-job learning and training (De Jong, 1997, p. 449).

The implication of a stronger emphasis on learning and training on the job is the higher level of self-direction and initiative expected from employees. Also, McCall, Lombardo and Morrison (1988) explain the increased interest in self-development by the fact that most significant managerial development occurs on the job. "Employees should learn to initiate and regulate individualized learning and training activities independent from externally developed on-the-job training programs" (De Jong, 1997, p. 457). Naturally, organisations will have to pay attention to this aspect explicitly by well preparing the workforce for the increased expectations with regard to learning self-direction.

Beside on-the-job and off-the-job learning, Gilley and Egglund (1989, p. 16) distinguish a third type of learning activity: through-the-job learning. On-the-job and off-the-job learning are distinguished on the basis of the use of internal or external HRD-specialists, whereas through-the-job learning activities manifest themselves as new job assignments and/or duties that foster growth, development, and confidence. They include job rotations and job enrichment programmes designed to increase knowledge, skills, and competencies and/or improve behaviour. Most authors, however, only distinguish on-the-job from off-the-job learning, while not taking notice of through-the-job learning.

A variety of definitions of on-the-job learning and training exists. De Jong (1997, p. 44) defines on-the-job training as the enhancement of job competence acquisition, involving one or more of the following elements: a) the actual work processes, b) the physical work environment, and c) the social work environment.

The use of the term "on the job" is rather confusing, since from De Jong's definition it can be concluded that on-the-job training does not necessarily take place in the physical work setting. An essential distinction can be made between on-the-job training in actual work situations and on-the-job training which is disconnected from the actual implementation of a productive task, but during which use is made of physical and/or social opportunities offered by the work environment (De Jong, 1997, p. 459).

The idea that the actual (working) environment is a fruitful place for learning is also advocated by learning theories that emphasise the situatedness of learning. For example, Lave and Wenger (1991) describe a situated learning approach and emphasise that the community of practice creates the potential "curriculum" in the broadest sense. It is in the trajectories of participation in the social world that learning takes on meaning.

Beside the location dimension, on-the-job training may vary according to the level of structure. A distinction is made between structured (formal) and unstructured (informal) on-the-job training. Jacobs and Jones (1995) define *structured* on-the-job training as the planned process of developing task level expertise by having an experienced employee train a novice employee at or near the actual work setting. Planning is the main characteristic differentiating structured from unstructured on-the-job training. Also according to others (De Jong, 1997; De Vries, 1988; Van Onna, 1985) training on the job is a formal activity. Characteristics are structure, planning and being pedagogically foundation. Again others argue that training on the job contain both formal and informal activities (e.g. Frietman as cited in Kwakman, 1992; Luchters, 1990). Furthermore, the term is used to indicate both planned and unplanned forms of learning on the job (Rothwell, 1991).

Onstenk (1995) describes on-the-job training as "all those activities which are explicitly aimed at training employees by supporting, structuring and monitoring their learning" (p. 79). It is the kind of

learning on the job that is intentional and which is integrated in a work setting. On-the-job training activities range from minimal educational intervention to in-depth structuring (Onstenk, 1995, p. 80). Examples (in climbing level of intention) are job orientation, job rotation and structured training on the job.

De Jong (1997, p. 453) illustrates the various forms of on-the-job training by three types:

1. On-site *practice* (unstructured on-the-job training) is a case of learning by doing in which the learner takes over increasingly larger parts of the job from an experienced worker.
2. On-site *instruction* (job instruction or structured on-the-job training) is a systematic passing on of skills on the basis of a task analysis.
3. On-site *study*: the new employee is encouraged to actively explore the tasks to be learned.

These types of on-the-job training vary in extent to which they are programmed (by a single assignment or by the job as a whole) and by the level of external direction (directed by teacher or self-directed by learner) (De Jong, 1992). On-site practice and on-site study fit into a (socio-)constructivist approach since there is room for creating one's own meaning; the learner takes an active role in this. On-site instruction, however, fits into a behaviour model or objectivist paradigm which believes in objective knowledge; the role of the learner is relatively passive (De Jong, 1996).

Other examples of on-site training methods are career development, use of job aids, on-the-job training, coaching and job rotation (Wexley & Latham, 1991, p. 142). These methods may serve different goals such as the improvement of an individual's level of self-awareness, skills or motivation.

To conclude, De Jong mentions the lack of a theory concerning on the job training (1997, p. 462). Furthermore, he describes three perspectives on on-the-job training in an attempt to give direction to research into on-the-job training:

1. *The Human Performance Technology Perspective*

This approach is interested in task performance. A central feature of this perspective is the control of learning processes on the basis of a detailed task analysis.

2. *The Learning Process Perspective*

According to this approach, learning is not limited to attempts at achieving predetermined competencies, guided by trainers and/or training materials. On the contrary, most learning takes place in didactically unstructured situations in which the learner has to determine both the competencies to be gained and the strategy to acquire those competencies. A division of the learning functions (prerequisites for learning) can be performed by both the learner and the teacher or trainer (Simons, 1992).

3. *The Activity Theoretic Perspective*

In this perspective the central question is how to support permanent development of both the organisation and its members. The organisation itself is permanently transformed. There is a strong emphasis on both the interconnection and the social nature of learning and acting. Both internalisation processes (socialisation and training of new staff) and externalisation processes (development of new reactions to failures and contradictions of the activity) belong within this perspective.

To summarise, in our study we view *training on the job* as a formal HRD-activity with involvement of a pedagogical authority. We reserve the term *learning on the job* for informal HRD-activities which can be both planned or unplanned, but it is in essence a self-directed kind of learning of which the individual takes control. Moreover, it is especially the unstructured nature of the management job and the accompanying self-regulated learning efforts that are central in our study. The learning process perspective therefore seems most valuable as a perspective on learning.

2.2.6. First supervisory experience as job challenge

A natural opportunity in which to study learning processes is during a work transition. When a person exchanges one position for another known or unknown position, this is often a period of great self- and task exploration.

The changes between the critical levels of junior management level, middle management and top management level are important (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Because at each level the emphasis will be on other skills, it is likely that the challenge to learn new things is at these moments of transition. Moreover, employees are likely to be open to learning while entering a new organisation.

McCauley *et al.* (1994) distinguish "job transitions" (e.g. line to staff, increases in scope, radical moves, etc.) as one of the clusters within their Development Challenge Profile. They suggest that managerial transitions are developmental because of the confrontation with novel situations requiring the development of new ways of coping with problems and opportunities and because managers are, then, often motivated by having to prove themselves all over again to their peers, subordinates, and superior (p. 545). Job transitions, including moving to one's first supervisory position, was most strongly related to perceptions of learning.

The importance of the first supervisory experience for further development as a leader was supported by several other studies. Davies and Easterby-Smith (1984), for example, found that confrontation with novelty in a job, e.g. when getting one's first supervisory position, is a common feature of developmental experiences mentioned by managers. In a study done by McCall *et al.* (1988), it was concluded that top managers see their first supervisory position as a key event in their career. Many executives maintained that it was their first managerial job by which they were introduced to organisational realities (p. 24). In this period managers are most likely to be open for new experiences and for learning fundamental aspects of the organisation's methods.

In support of this finding, Finch and Hopkins (1997) found that effective leaders considered new positions offering new and/or increased responsibilities to be most helpful to their development as leaders. Challenging situations with problems to solve and choices to make under conditions of risk most likely result in on-the-job learning. They add that a supportive environment with supervisors who provide positive role models and constructive support and mentors who provide counsel are important for on-the-job learning to occur as well.

Finally, Hill (1992) concluded that the first management position has a remaining influence on the further development in leading positions. Of all career changes the first management job is one of the most radical and demanding job change. This change involves a transformation and fundamental changes in identity and vision. Taken together, these investigations indicate that the first managerial position is a relevant starting point for researching managers' learning behaviour.

2.2.7. Personal background characteristics and HRD-activities

One of the questions of the research project as a whole is which personal background characteristics are related to the use of HRD-activities in the current job. In literature several individual factors are mentioned that influence the extent to which learning (including expertise development, etc.) takes place. These factors are for example age, gender, educational level, level of performance, home situation, physical and mental health, personal ambitions, willingness to take risks, subjective perception of work, career characteristics, etc. (Van der Heijden & Rietdijk, 1996). In this study we will shortly introduce some of these factors and generate hypotheses accordingly on a. age, b. educational level, c. HRD-initiative, d. job and organisational tenure, and e. managerial experience.

Ad a. Age

Several authors stress that when age rises the total extent of use of HRD-activities decreases. In other words: the older one gets, the less HRD-activities (formal and informal) are used. An explanation that is often given is that older people are often thought to have little flexibility and to be unwilling to receive training (Thijssen, 1992b; 1992c). Onstenk (1995) states that these kinds of explanations are mainly prejudices. The likelihood that learning processes will take place is not only a result of characteristics of the learner/employee, but also depends on the provision of learning opportunities in the workplace. Empirical research shows that it often is the lack of training opportunities and the low accessibility of training for 'older' people that cause this negative correlation between age and participation in (formal) education.

It seems important to distinguish between formal and informal learning when addressing the relation with age. From studies that have been carried out on the relation between age and *formal* learning, the same conclusion is drawn consistently. Older adults are less likely to participate than younger ones and most available research shows a fall-off at retirement age, particularly among men (McGivney, 1993, p. 14). De Grip (2000, p. 30), for example, found that in a certain period of time, 24% of employees above 55 years of age participated in post-initial education, against 41% of the age group of 35-44 years. Boot (as cited in Onstenk & Voncken, 1996) reports a plain decline in participation in in-house training with increasing age. Cleveland and Shore (1992) suggest that both chronological and perceived age is negatively related to employees' participation in career related activities such as on-the-job training and career counselling.

One of the explanations that is given for the fact that older people participate to a lesser extent in formal HRD-activities is that formal learning activities are organised for people in the first half of their career. In later stages less attention is paid to formal training. Employees with more experience must find their own way in developing themselves. This mostly means they have to use informal learning activities.

From human capital theory, the relatively low participation in education by older employees is explained by the fact that the time period in which investments pay off and can be earned back is shorter than for younger employees. Organisations will therefore be less inclined to invest in formal training of older employees.

The relation between age and *informal* HRD-activities, however, is less clear. Probably since informal learning is more difficult to grasp, it has been less intensively studied.

We expect that the negative relation between age and HRD-activities counts for the formal activities in particular, but also for informal HRD-activities, although to a lesser extent. This is because informal HRD-activities are largely integrated into task execution and will therefore occur relatively often. Moreover, when no formal training is offered, informal HRD-activities can be used as a powerful alternative. Although we expect that with age the total amount of HRD-activities (both formal and informal) decreases, the amount of informal HRD-activities will be higher than the amount of formal HRD-activities.

Ad b. Educational level

Educational level is generally seen as one of the main determinants of participation in (formal) HRD (e.g. Van der Kamp, 1993, Thijssen, 1996; Tuijnman, 1991).

Several authors address the influence of past experience, in particular with schooling, including initial educational level and advanced training, on current participation in adult education (e.g. Rubenson as cited in Thijssen, 1996; Tuijnman, 1989). Especially positive past experiences with learning have a

positive influence on further participation decisions. Accordingly, a certain accumulation of education arises (Van der Kamp, 1993; Meijers, 1993; Thijssen, 1996; Tuijnman, 1991).

De Grip (2000, p. 18) emphasises the fact that initial and post-initial schooling are complementary. He cites Heckman's "fundamental dynamic features" of human capital which emphasises that earlier acquired cognitive skills make further learning easier: "learning begets learning. Skills acquired early on make learning easier. More able people find learning easier. And, early success breeds later success just as early failure breeds later failure".

The level of education also is an important indicator for the chance that learning new things on the job takes place. Warmerdam (1993, p. 17) found that employees with a higher level of education indicated they learned more new things on the job and emphasised self-study and self-training. Higher educated employees had better opportunities for informal learning than lower educated people and people without diplomas at all. Thijssen (1996, p. 61), too, has the expectation that self-study (e.g. reading and studying texts from books) is not the most favourite way to keep up for lower educated, and older, employees.

Ad c. Job and organisational tenure

The length of time managers have spent in their jobs influences their use of HRD-activities. Several authors distinguish between phases in a manager's development, suggesting that learning does not take place to the same extent in all phases. Katz (1978) describes three phases: 1) period of learning, 2) responsive stage, and 3) unresponsive stage. Especially in the first phase learning occurs frequently. The second phase is also filled with HRD-activities. It is possible that even though managers are already long employed in their current job, they do not reach the unresponsive stage; this is mainly the case when changes in the context take place. Job tenure, then, is no criterion for learning anymore.

Gabarro (1987), identifying five stages in the process of taking charge after job rotation (1. taking hold, 2 immersion, 3. reshaping, 4. consolidation, and 5. refinement). argues that after the consolidation stage little new learning occurs. Thus, from a developmental perspective, it appears that most of the value from experiencing job transitions may occur in the first three years (at which time the manager has reached the consolidation stage) and that little is to be gained by staying in the assignment longer. On the other hand Gabarro cautions against moving managers too soon. Baldwin & Padgett (1994, p. 286) report that "it may not be beneficial to either the individual or the organisation to travel the 'fast-track' developmental strategy, which is employed by many organisations".

De Grip (2000, p. 33), too, suggests that a negative relation exists between job tenure and participation in education. Participation frequently occurs in the beginning of one's job, because of the needed learning trajectory for adequate functioning (for learning organisation-specific knowledge and skills) and for bridging the gap between initial schooling and qualification requirements for one's new job. Furthermore, a new job has new requirements and asks for new expertise. The development of expertise needs time (Van der Heijden, 1995).

While the former authors suggest that a longer job tenure leads to less frequent use of HRD-activities, other authors suggest the opposite. Especially organisational tenure is expected to positively influence employees' opportunities to participate in formal development opportunities (Carnevale, Gainer & Villet, 1990), thus resulting in more frequent use of particularly formal HRD-activities. However, most studies suggest a negative relation. We will test whether more support is found for a positive or negative relation between tenure and participation in HRD-activities.

Ad d. Total managerial experience

Parallel to the line of argumentation that we described about the relation between job tenure and use of HRD-activities, we may explain the negative relation that we expect between total managerial experience and total extent of use of HRD-activities.

The main argument is that at the moment a manager has built up experience, less HRD-activities are needed to actually learn to master one's job as a manager. Most likely, less formal training opportunities are offered to the manager. Learning will be increasingly restricted to informal HRD-activities on the job.

Ad e. HRD-initiative

For informal learning to take place it is necessary for the individual to take initiative. Especially because this is a type of learning that is not organised by others. If learners themselves do not show initiative, then it will be very doubtful whether there will be development at all. Marsick (1987) and Marsick and Watkins (1990) emphasise this own initiative.

A closely related term is proactivity, a readiness to take initiative. A proactive person will quickly take charge of his or her learning once pushed into the learning cycle. Especially managers are expected to act proactively, since they are given a relatively large amount of freedom, or autonomy, to develop their careers. From a study by Durr *et al.* (1996) it indeed appears that in general managers score high on initiative as one of the characteristics of a self-directed learner.

The importance of initiative is underlined by Davies and Easterby-Smith (1984) who state that "development of managers is far more likely to take place when it is *initiated* and controlled by the person himself". It is expected that learners who show a high level of initiative will use more HRD-activities than more inactive persons; the relation of initiative with *informal* HRD-activities (especially learning by doing activities) is expected to be strongest.

During the last decades, a trend towards a more individualistic society can be observed; people are raised as responsible and self-reliant persons. Self-management is thought of as a necessary and typical modern attitude people need to have at their disposal. The educational system is supposed to prepare pupils for this. Ideas about self-regulation and traits such as initiative, and in particular initiative for learning, have become common for the latest generations. We therefore expect that younger managers will score higher on initiative for HRD-activities than older managers. By and large, it is expected that older employees have more traditional ideas about self-regulation and initiative with regard to learning. Because in higher forms of education pupils are even more expected to take control of their own learning, it is expected that educational level positively relates to HRD-initiative.

2.2.8. The relation between management tasks and HRD-activities

A relation is assumed between management tasks and HRD-activities. It is expected that both frequency and importance of management tasks will positively affect the level to which managers will use HRD-activities in order to actually master these tasks.

An underlying assumption in this study is that a higher extent of use of HRD-activities will finally result in a larger improvement of managerial competence.

The extent to which an HRD-activity is integrated into job performance itself is important for the relation between frequency of management tasks and use of HRD-activities. To illustrate, "learning by doing" which can only occur during job performance is expected to be most strongly correlated to frequency of management tasks. In this case, it is prerequisite for learning that management tasks occur. In contrast, formal learning off the job is likely to have a much weaker correlation with the frequency of a management task.

Moreover, it is to be expected that attached importance to management tasks results in a certain motivation to expend effort on it by using HRD-activities.

In other words, the more important managers judge management tasks in the light of their jobs, the more HRD-activities they will use to master these tasks.

Traditionally, the responsibility for HRM-tasks was located in staff departments. A shift has taken place towards increased HRM-responsibility for line managers. As a result of this relatively new character of HRM-tasks of line managers and the increased importance of these tasks, it is likely that managers will especially direct their learning efforts at mastering these tasks.

It remains to be seen, however, how managers perceive the importance of HRM-tasks themselves and whether these relatively new tasks result in extra learning efforts.

2.2.9. Conclusion: Categorisation of HRD-activities

We will finish this section with the presentation of a categorisation of HRD-activities to be used in our study. HRD-activities have been defined as all kinds of ways to acquire new competences, both on the job and off the job (Thijssen, 1996, p. 11)¹⁸. We described formalisation, location, level of intention and direction as important dimensions of learning. Furthermore, we explained the usefulness of an activity approach to learning.

In order to measure job-related HRD-activities, we developed four categories of HRD-activities which can be located at the continuum formalisation and at the continuum location.

As a point of departure we chose the work of Warmerdam and Van den Berg (1992) who identified a fairly complete and comprehensive set of fourteen informal on-the-job learning activities (see Figure 2.2.), consisting of four main categories: 1. learning by doing (new things; inclusive self-instruction), 2. collegial consultation, 3. instruction and coaching, and 4. visiting professional fairs, conferences, etc. Kwakman (1992) carried out a factor analysis on the same set of activities, which resulted in three factors: 1) supported learning, 2) discovery learning, and 3) external learning.

Our categorisation of job-related HRD-activities is partly parallel with the former mentioned categorisations of learning. Like Kwakman (1992), we include an external category (formal learning, which is often (but not always) off the job); we include learning by doing which comes close to discovery learning. Moreover, because relationships are one of the key resources for (career) learning (Hall, 1996, p. 323), we include a social activity "asking advice", which we define broadly so it includes all kinds of supported learning. Meaning that learning in interaction with others (e.g. professionals, managers, subordinates, clients) is an important way of learning.

Moreover, because nowadays information-seeking skills are so important, one of our categories refers to activities such as searching on the internet and consulting a handbook.

Our categorisation varies across the dimensions formalisation and location (on the job / off the job)¹⁹. The order of categories is from generally formal and off the job to generally informal and on the job (see Figure 2.5.). See Appendix 2.2. for the categorisation in Dutch.

¹⁸ With learning activities we refer to "work-related" learning activities. To illustrate, learning activities directed at becoming a good piano-player will be excluded.

¹⁹ The level of integration of work and learning could be seen as a summary of these two dimensions. A combination of formal and off-the-job learning refers to a low level of integration. A combination of informal and on-the-job learning refers to a high level of integration of work and learning.

Types of HRD-activities		Dimensions	
1.	Training, workshops, courses, etc. (<i>Training (on- and off-the-job), education, workshops, etc.</i>)	off the job	formal
2.	Learning by seeking information (<i>Reading books, working with internet, working with job-aids, consulting computer instructions, etc.</i>)	↑ ↓	↑ ↓
3.	Learning by asking advice ²⁰ (<i>Asking help and advice to colleague/boss, exchanging work-experiences with colleagues, imitating others, etc.</i>)		
4.	Learning by doing ²¹ (<i>Practising, trying out new machines, solving problems in your work yourself, becoming more competent by experience, etc.</i>)		

Figure 2.5. Four categories of HRD-activities.

On other dimensions, beside formalisation and integration, these activities cannot be characterised unambiguously. For example, learning by doing can be both intentional or incidental, and within the category “asking advice” the initiator can be both oneself or another.

We expect these four categories to be fairly comprehensive to managers in organisations. We, however, do not suggest that this categorisation is complete. Some extra activities may be thought of through which people may learn. Examples of such activities are going on excursion, visiting professional fairs, watching the competitor, instruction at the supplier’s, discussing work with friends, acquaintances, etc. Since these activities are expected to occur less frequently they are not included as a separate category²².

The categorisation includes the dimensions that are judged important based on literature. We believe that this categorisation provides an appropriate point of departure to study the significance of learning by managers.

2.3. Summary and overview of hypotheses

The aim of this chapter was to make founded choices for a description of the management job and for a categorisation of HRD-activities to be further used in our study. In the sections 2.1.7 and 2.2.9. these descriptions have been provided. Both descriptions are considered to be comprehensive to the group of managers in our field of study.

We would like to make some final remarks on the management tasks we include in our study and on the way we approach learning in general and HRD-activities in particular.

The taxonomy of management tasks by Luthans (see section 2.1.4.) includes tasks which are exclusively related to the job as a manager. Manager, however, do engage in other tasks which fall outside the boundaries of their managerial responsibilities. Examples are ICT-related tasks (Information & Communication Technology), safety, or tasks which concern organisation-specific products or services. We thus focus on the manager as a leader. The implication is that the HRD-activities we study represent a limited reflection of the whole set of HRD-activities a manager undertakes.

²⁰ Also referred to as “learning involving others”

²¹ See for refinement of this category appendix 3.2.

²² As we shall address later in chapter 3, this categorisation was tested on completeness.

With regard to the approach of learning, we will use two major constructivist assumptions as a point of departure in our study. First, we view the learner as an *active* person. Learning takes place as a result of certain actions or activities that persons undertake. We thus emphasise the importance of an action or activity approach. The categorisation of HRD-activities therefore includes activities in which a person needs to be actively involved and which requires learner initiative. In this respect, self-direction of HRD-activities is important. We assume that self-directed HRD-activities lead to the best, that is, most effective, learning outcomes whether this means performance or career development²³.

Secondly, we regard the *natural work environment* as the major context in which employees learn. Consequently, we focus on HRD-activities employees use on the job. Informal HRD-activities, which mostly occur integrated in day-to-day activities, are therefore emphasised. Learning on the job guarantees realistic learning opportunities and meaningful outcomes. Different forms of formal learning off the job are included as well, but are given less emphasis.

Informal learning requires a certain level of self-management by the individual. An accompanying educational belief is that learning can best be supported by creating circumstances in which employees are able to self-manage their HRD-activities. It goes without saying that it is an important role for the organisation to offer continuous learning opportunities, for example by creating a workplace with a high learning potential (Onstenk, 1994; 1997; Van Onna, 1985).

Throughout this chapter we formulated several expectations. In Table 2.1. these hypotheses have been summarised and structured according to the two main research questions that will be addressed in the third chapter.

²³ In our first study (see chapter 3), learning activities are aimed at individual development. In chapter 4 the emphasis shifts towards career development as a major goal of HRD.

Table 2.1. *Overview of hypotheses regarding HRD-activities and management tasks.*

Hypotheses	Addressed in section
<u>1. Management learning: How can managers' HRD-activities be characterised?</u>	
<i>HRD-activities</i>	
1.1. The more informal an HRD-activity is, the more managers will use it;	2.2.5.1.
1.2. The less managers use formal HRD-activities, the more they will use informal HRD-activities (compensation hypothesis).	2.2.5.1.
<i>Background characteristics</i>	
1.3. A negative relation exists between on the one hand age, total managerial experience and job tenure, and the total extent of used HRD-activities on the other hand; this negative relation is strongest for formal HRD-activities;	2.2.7.
1.4. A positive relation exists between educational level and the total extent of use of HRD-activities;	2.2.7.
1.5. A positive relation exists between organisational tenure and use of formal HRD-activities ²⁴ .	2.2.7.
<i>HRD-initiative</i>	
1.6. A negative relation exists between age and level of HRD-initiative (older employees will show less initiative);	2.2.7.
1.7. A positive relation exists between educational level and the level of HRD-initiative;	2.2.7.
1.8. A positive relation exists between level of HRD-initiative and total extent of use of HRD-activities; the relation will be strongest with use of learning-by-doing activities.	2.2.7.
<u>2. Task-relatedness: Are managers' HRD-activities management task-related?</u>	
<i>The management job and HRD-activities</i>	
2.1. The more important a management task is and/or the more frequently a management task occurs, the more HRD-activities managers will direct at this management task. The relation between frequency of management tasks and learning-by-doing activities will be strongest;	2.2.8.
2.2. The extent to which HRD-activities are used for HRM-tasks is higher than for other management tasks.	2.2.8.

In the next chapter (exploratory study on HRD-activities and management tasks) these hypotheses will be tested.

²⁴ This hypothesis can be in conflict with hypothesis 1.3.

Chapter 3

Exploratory study on HRD-activities and management tasks

In this chapter we will report on an empirical study on HRD-activities and management tasks we carried out in two organisations. In section 3.1. we will describe the aim of the study and its research questions. Section 3.2. will address the methods of the study. In 3.3. the results will be presented. The post-inquiry study we carried out will be addressed in section 3.4. Finally, section 3.5. contains conclusions and will describe some points of discussion. Moreover, consequences for the next research step will be given.

3.1. Aim and research questions of the exploratory study

In this exploratory study HRD-activities of (junior) managers in relation with their management tasks are addressed. The study has multiple purposes:

1. To identify and describe managers' HRD-activities;
2. To find out whether HRD-activities are management tasks-related or not;
3. To gain insight into the relation between background characteristics (such as age, educational level and level of HRD-initiative) and use of HRD-activities.

The general problem statement is:

What is the significance of learning in a manager's career?

Central in this study are the following two research questions:

1. *How can managers' HRD-activities be characterised?*
2. *Are HRD-activities management task-related?*
(Which includes the issue of how managers' management tasks can be characterised)

In this research phase we focus on how HRD-activities contribute to performing management tasks within managers' *current* positions. A more precise research question therefore is "how can managers' HRD-activities, directed at performing several management tasks, be characterised by type and extent of use, and how do they relate to management tasks and background characteristics"?

3.2. Method

In the next subsections we will address the following aspects: participants, instrument development, procedure and data analysis.

3.2.1. Participants

Based on existing network contacts, two organisations were approached for participation in our research. In both organisations we had contact persons, working at staff positions, who asked the particular sections for co-operation with our project, first via a letter, followed up by personal communication. The contact persons, together with the representatives of the sections, made the final selection of managers to participate in the research. The following set of criteria was used to select participants:

1. Maximum working in second management job;
2. Minimum of six months and maximum of 5 years in current job;
3. Not more than 5 years total managerial experience;
4. Minimum of 50% of time spent on management tasks;
5. Having at least two subordinates.

Managers with little total managerial experience were selected, because it is assumed that they will use HRD-activities to a large extent in order to adequately fulfil their job. Therefore, HRD-activities are expected to be concentrated at the beginning of a new job. The criteria of a minimum stay of six months and a maximum of 5 years in the current job, were chosen on the one hand because this time period is long enough to be able to reflect on HRD-activities and competence improvement (which takes time) and on the other hand not too long to remember realised HRD-activities.

Furthermore, because (junior) managers, mostly directly leading the shop floor, are often inclined to assist their “workers” in carrying out the primary processes, we formulated the fourth criterion, thus making sure that enough time was spent on actually managing.

A certain level of reflective capacity was needed to fill out the questionnaire. We assume that, because our respondents are in leading positions, they will have the required minimum reflective capacity to participate in the study, although they sometimes have a relatively low educational level (see Table 3.2.).

Beside the more fundamental reasons, the choice for selecting junior managers is partly pragmatic: this group can well be identified in various organisations and have comparable tasks.

Sample description

In the end 79 managers participated in this exploratory study. Most of them were working in first line management jobs as leaders of teams or departments. They have an average managerial experience of 5 years and 10 months (sd = 5 years).

After a check on the selection criteria and the quality of the questionnaires filled out, a number of 70 questionnaires was considered to be valid¹. These constituted the final database on the basis of which we carried out our analyses.

Organisations

This study was conducted in two organisations. An army department and a department of an international chain of fast-food restaurants participated (indicated as the Army-sample and the Food-sample, consecutively). It was our objective to select at least a number of 30 managers per organisation because of statistical requirements. Within each organisation, managers from two different sections or echelons were selected in order to obtain variation in educational level and management job.

The Army-sample contained managers² with the ranks of commissioned (lieutenants) and non-commissioned (sergeants) officers of the Land Forces. Sergeants are at the lowest supervisory level, while lieutenants in turn supervise sergeants. They were stationed at five different barracks (bases) throughout the country, working for five different platoons / battalions.

¹ 9 respondents were excluded from the sample because of a job tenure either too short (<6 months) or too long (> 5 years). More precisely this concerned 5 participants from the Food-sample and 4 participants from the Army-sample. All remaining questionnaire were filled out satisfactorily.

² In the Army it is not common to use the term “manager”, since they have their own jargon. In our study we will continue to use the term “manager”.

The Food-sample contained managers from the head-quarters and from 12 restaurants located in two cities in the Netherlands. These restaurants concerned non franchise restaurants for which the headquarters is directly responsible. The participating managers were holding jobs from shift assistant to restaurant manager. The shift assistant has relatively few managerial responsibilities, whereas the tasks of restaurant managers are primarily managerial. Several other positions exist between these two jobs (such as trainee, shift manager, first and second assistant manager); these are all represented in this study. It is worth noting that a manager in the Food-sample grows into a management position and is gradually given more and more supervisory responsibilities. Restaurant managers most often were once serving at the desk and preparing food themselves. Therefore it was sometimes difficult for them to exactly identify the exact duration of managerial experience. The extra selection criterion of a minimum of 50% of one's time spending on management was of help. In Table 3.1. an overview is given of the sample of participants.

Table 3.1. *Sample exploratory study.*

Organisation	Participants	N
Army	Non-commissioned officers	32
	Commissioned officers	16
	Total	48
Food	Managers from restaurants	18
	Managers from headquarters	4
	Total	22
Total sample		70

Both organisations can roughly be described as machine bureaucracies and can therefore be regarded as homogeneous, making comparison possible and making conclusions on the total sample relevant. Furthermore, the groups of participants from the two organisations are comparable with respect to the following. They both (in)directly supervise the primary process, are in charge of relatively lower educated employees and supervise people who are executors of policies rather than policy makers. See Table 3.2. for details about demographics of the sample.

Personal background characteristics

As background characteristics we included age, educational level, gender, job and organisational tenure and total managerial experience. Educational level was measured on an ordinal scale with eight categories and was later transformed into three levels: low, intermediate and high. Job and organisational tenure were measured in number of months employed in the current job / organisation. Total managerial experience was measured in years.

Table 3.2. *Sample demographics (Means, standard deviations and independent samples t-tests).*

	Army sample (N=48)		Food sample (N=22)		Total sample ³ (N=70)		Differences between samples
	M	Sd	M	sd	M	Sd	
Age	29.87	6.25	31.32	5.01	30.33	5.89	-.95
Job tenure (months)	19.23	11.69	21.10	13.24	19.79	12.10	-.58
Organisational tenure (months)	114.56	85.49	75.71	43.35	102.74	77	2.49*
Total managerial experience (years)	5.64	3.97	6.22	4.24	5.84	4.98	-.44
	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Educational level ⁴							
Low	15	31.9	7	31.8	22	31.9	
Intermediate	26	55.3	10	45.5	36	52.2	
High	6	12.8	5	22.7	11	15.9	
Gender							
Male	43	89.6	15	68.2	58	82.9	
Female	5	10.4	7	31.8	12	17.1	

* significant at the .05-level (2-tailed)

From Table 3.2. we see that the managers in the Army-sample are slightly, but not significantly, younger than those in the Food-sample. Although managers in this research cannot be called 'old', there is enough variance in age to study the relation between age and use of HRD-activities.

No difference was found between the total amount of managerial experience.

The Army-sample and the Food-sample have comparable length of stay in their current job, but the organisational tenure differs between the groups. Managers from the Army-sample are significantly longer with the organisation than managers from the Food-sample ($p < .05$).

In the Army-sample a smaller percentage of female managers is represented than in the Food-sample. Furthermore, the distribution of the groups across educational level is comparable. In both organisations, the intermediate level is represented best.

3.2.2. Instrument development

We used the following methods and instruments for this study:

- 1) Interviews (as an orientation);
- 2) A hand-out with the categories of HRD-activities;
- 3) A written semi-structured questionnaire.

Ad 1. Interviews

We conducted (face-to-face) interviews with HR-staff members of both organisations. The interviews were aimed at gaining insight into personnel development policies and practices, which form the context of learning within both organisations. Furthermore, we studied the documents the organisations gave us to gain further insight into the organisational context. From the Army we interviewed three training staff members.

At the food concern we interviewed the manager "training, development and safety" and a Human Resources Consultant, both from its headquarters.

³ The Army-sample contains 1 missing value with regard to educational level; as a consequence not all numbers add up to the total of 48 or 70.

⁴ Explanation of abbreviations (in between brackets is the Dutch abbreviation)

Low = Lower Secondary Vocational Education (LBO) and Lower General Secondary Education (MAVO)

Intermediate = Upper Secondary Vocational Education (MBO), Upper General Secondary Education (HAVO) and Pre-university Education (VWO)

High = Higher Vocational Education (HBO) and University (WO)

Interview topics were organisation and organisational environment, HR-fields (such as Recruitment, selection and allocation, Careers, and Personnel evaluation and rewards), HRM-activities, personnel development policy, training & development, and junior managers.

Ad 2. Hand-out HRD-activities

In section 2.2.9. we described the development of the categorisation of HRD-activities. The categories are: 1) Training, workshops, courses, etc., 2) Learning by seeking information, 3) Asking advice (or learning involving others), and 4) Learning by doing.

We provided a hand-out to the respondents (see chapter 2, Figure 2.5. and Appendix 2.2.) with our categorisation of HRD-activities. The hand-out contained several examples of HRD-activities the participants could consider when answering questions with regard to the characterisation of HRD-activities. The hand-out served as a supplement to the questionnaire.

Before we provided the hand-out to the participants, we posed an open question for the purpose of validation of our categorisation of HRD-activities. We asked the managers "in what ways did you learn in order to fulfil your job as a whole?". The answers to this question were analysed qualitatively (see section 3.3., ad 1a) and were then compared to the categories we had developed.

Ad 3. Questionnaire

The questionnaire to be filled out by managers was semi-structured. For the most part it contained closed questions with self-perception (or self-report) measures. Self-report is most appropriate in a (social-) constructivist approach, because it takes the subjectivity of aspects as the point of departure (Simons, 1999, p. 5). The closed questions were rated on five-point Likert-scales. The range of answering choices was from 1(to a very low extent) to 5 (to a very high extent). This scale applies to all questions regarding frequency, importance and competence.

Because we use a five-point Likert scale on which the midpoint of the scale is 3, we consider scores lower than 2.5 as 'low', scores between 2.5 en 3.5 as 'moderate' and scores higher than 3.5 as 'high'.

In addition to the closed questions, some open questions were included with the main purpose of checking and validating the categorisations of management tasks and HRD-activities (see further qualitative analyses in section 3.3.).

The questionnaire contained the following components: I. background characteristics (personal and situational), II. management tasks, III. HRD-activities, and IV. reflection.

Ad I. Background characteristics

We included variables with regard to past experience with work and education, description of current job, job acquisition and personality.

Ad II. Management tasks

Luthans' (1984; 1985; 1988) taxonomy of management activities was chosen as a starting point for our research (see chapter 2, section 2.1.7.). This taxonomy consists of 12 managerial activities (which we will further indicate as management tasks in order not to confuse them with HRD-activities) and behavioural descriptors (see Appendix 2.1.d.). These 12 tasks are grouped into 4 clusters: "Communication", "Traditional Management", "Networking" and "Human Resource Management".

Reasons for choosing this taxonomy are the fact that it was tested in Dutch, is applicable for all management levels (inclusive the first line), covers the whole management job and is detailed and understandable.

Although from literature the taxonomy seemed ready to use, we further tested it with our group of respondents on the following criteria: 1. Clarity (recognisable, unambiguous and relevant; see ad IV. reflection), and 2. Completeness (open question).

To characterise the management job, we asked managers to indicate frequency and importance of management tasks (both on five-point Likert-scales). Frequency of a management task is the extent to which a management task occurs. Importance is defined as the level to which managers consider this task to be important among all management tasks in order to function effectively in their jobs. According to literature on motivation it is plausible to assume that attached importance to a certain content will result in the initiative to act (Heckhausen & Kuhl, 1985). In this case to direct HRD-activities to the particular management tasks.

Ad III. HRD-activities

We characterise HRD-activities by *type* and *frequency* (extent of use), and by the level of HRD-initiative in terms of whether, in general, managers took initiative for HRD-activities themselves or whether they awaited initiative from others such as superiors, trainers, or the organisation. Answers were given on a five-point Likert scale (1=overall own initiative, 5=overall initiative of others).

We asked managers to indicate how frequently they used the four different types of HRD-activities with regard to 12 distinguished management tasks during the previous twelve months of employment (1 = to a very low extent, 5 = to a very high extent).

Moreover, we inquired into the frequency of HRD-activities by some single-item questions about HRD-dimensions of which the extreme ends were given. We asked managers to indicate on which side of the dimension their HRD-activities generally took place (see Table 3.3.).

Table 3.3. *Items on positioning of HRD-activities on HRD-dimensions.*

The HRD-activities I used were generally:

organised by others	–	organised by myself	(formalisation)
integrated in work	–	separated from work	(on the job / off the job)
done together with others	–	done all by myself	(social learning)

Ad IV. Reflection

The respondents were explicitly requested to reflect on the quality of the questionnaire in terms of relevance and completeness of the categorisations chosen, and the structure, level of difficulty and clarity of the questions. These concerned both open and closed questions.

3.2.3. Procedure

In Spring 1998, the research started with introductory interviews with managers from the HR or personnel & organisation department in each organisation. Through these interviews we gained insight into the organisational structure, organisational characteristics, and personnel development policy. Next, it was decided which groups of managers were appropriate to take part in the study. After these interviews took place, a start was made with the actual study: having managers fill out the structured questionnaire.

Because the use of closed questions is a quite robust way of doing research, we decided that it would be appropriate to proceed with a combination of an interview and a questionnaire, at least for our first group of participants. We thus received feedback on the questionnaire to make adjustments whenever necessary.

We began with four individual sessions with participants filling out the questionnaire. The first participants were requested to think aloud and to give as much comments as possible on the questionnaire. We asked them to especially pay attention to comprehensiveness and structure. We audio-taped these sessions and took notes, in order to improve the quality of the questionnaire. After having made some necessary adjustments to the questionnaire, we proceeded with group sessions, with an average of 6 persons, filling out the questionnaire simultaneously in presence of the researcher. The location of the study was in the barracks or in the restaurants. This phase of the study took place from May till July 1998.

Each group session started with a short introduction. It was explained that this study was in its first phase and the goal was to improve the instrument. The respondents were thus urged to give (written) comments. Moreover, it was explained that they needed a hand-out to answer the questions about HRD-activities. Individual participants were assured of confidentiality and anonymity. Approximately one hour was needed to fill out the questionnaire. Incidentally, respondents took the questionnaire home and returned it later by posted mail.

3.2.4. Data analysis

This exploratory study is for the most part descriptive. The main part of the questionnaire was analysed quantitatively. For the purpose of validation of chosen categorisations, some open questions were included in the questionnaire and were analysed qualitatively (according to Baarda, de Goede & Teunissen, 1997). The qualitative data we gathered concerned ways of learning (=type), objects of learning (management tasks) and other management tasks, supplementary to Luthans' managerial activities. The unit of analysis is the individual manager; we did not carry out analyses on either unit or organisational level.

3.3. Results

The results section is structured according to the following two research questions:

1. How can managers' HRD-activities be characterised? (section 3.3.1)
2. Are HRD-activities management task-related? (section 3.3.2.)

3.3.1. Characterisation of managers' HRD-activities

The central question of this sub-section can be subdivided as follows:

How can managers' HRD-activities be characterised?

- 1a. Which types of HRD-activities do managers in particular use to master their job?
- 1b. To what extent do managers use these types of HRD-activities in the first year of a new management job?
- 1c. How do personal characteristics relate to the extent of use of different types of HRD-activities? (Age, educational level, level of HRD-initiative, job and organisational tenure and total managerial experience)
- 1d. To what extent do managers take initiative for their HRD-activities, and how does this relate to background characteristics and the extent of HRD-activities used?

This research question is accompanied by eight hypotheses on job-related learning (see for an overview, chapter 2, Table 2.1.).

Ad 1a. Types of HRD-activities

In order to test our categorisation of HRD activities and to find out which types of HRD-activities managers used to learn to master their job, we posed the following open question “could you identify in what ways you learnt to master your job?”.

As mentioned before, the question was posed at a moment that managers did not yet have knowledge about our categorisation of HRD-activities.

We qualitatively analysed the answers given to the open questions according to the procedure described by Baarda *et al.* (1997)⁵ who distinguish the following steps of analysis:

1. selecting relevant information, 2. splitting up relevant texts in fragments, 3. labelling, 4. organising and reducing labels, 5. determining the validity of the labels, 6. defining core labels, 7. determining inter-subjectivity, and 8. answering the problem statement.

After the transcription of the answers, we categorised the data into nine categories (see Table 3.4.).

Table 3.4. *Nine qualitative categories of types of HRD-activities.*

Categories of HRD-activities	
I	Formal HRD-activities a. off the job b. on the job
II	HRD-activities involving others a. general b. subordinates c. colleagues d. superiors e. experienced persons f. people from outside of the organisation
III	HRD-activities by doing
IV	Personal characteristics
V	Past experience
VI	Self-study
VII	Leisure activities
VIII	Evaluation and reflection
IX	Structure of jobs

Not all categories found appear to be relevant for studying job-related learning of managers. We were searching for activities managers can actively perform and control in order to learn from them. Some of the categories found, however, are not “activities”. For example, people may learn because of the way their job is structured, but this is not an activity that somebody can actually carry out. Likewise, personal characteristics do not concern an activity.

The examples that managers gave of “evaluation and reflection” have many similarities with the examples of “learning involving others”; these categories have been combined because of this reason. Reasons to exclude past experiences and leisure activities from our categorisation are the fact that they took place prior to the start of their job and the fact that it was only mentioned a few times.

We may conclude that the initial categorisation in four categories (see Figure 2.5.) is largely supported by the results from the qualitative analyses. Parallels with our categorisation are: formal learning, learning involving others (or asking advice) and learning by doing. Self-study is one of the activities that we have included under “seeking information”, such as handbooks, job aids and the internet. The extra categories found are interesting but do not contribute to a better understanding of job-related learning as mentioned in this study. The contribution of the qualitative data is that examples are given of the several types of HRD-activities (e.g. the actors involved in learning involving others (or asking advice) are specified). Moreover, it has become clear that it is not only (self-directed) activities that

⁵ Because this analysis is done for explorative purposes (it is not meant to be used as a coding system), we skipped the seventh step of determining inter-subjectivity.

managers learn from, but also matters as personality and the structuring of a job. We will maintain our initial characterisation in our study.

Ad 1.b. Extent of use of types of HRD-activities

We asked managers to identify to what extent they used different types of HRD-activities. This was measured for the various *clusters* of management tasks. Only the cluster of HRM-tasks was measured *task-specifically*. We first conducted a reliability analysis and a factor analysis to gain insight into the structure and the internal consistency of the scales.

A factor analysis on the 32 items concerning the type of HRD-activity with regard to management tasks gave a rotated solution of seven factors, explaining 74.1% of the variance. In general, the factors are clustered around the types of HRD-activity and not around the various management tasks. The sixth (asking advice and learning by doing for the networking cluster) and seventh factor (HRD-activities directed at the management task “training- and development”) explained just a little added variance and seemed hardly interpretable. Moreover, the seventh factor was not strong in the sense that items did never load highest on this factor. We decided to focus on the first five factors (see Table 3.5.).

Table 3.5. *Five-factor solution (HRD-activities related to management tasks).*

HRD-activities	Cronbach's α
1. Formal learning	.91
2. Learning by doing (except for networking)	.91
3. Asking advice (except for networking and staffing)	.89
4. Information seeking for the HRM-cluster (+ asking advice for staffing)	.86
5. Information seeking for other tasks	.81

We proceeded with a factor analysis extracting four factors. This analysis results in the original categorisation of HRD-activities, explaining 60.9% of the variance (see Appendix 3.1. for the results of this factor analysis). Furthermore, we counted Cronbach's alpha for the components.

It seemed that information-seeking could well be regarded as one category. Additionally, including the HRD-activities for the networking cluster in these four factors (and not separating them as in the initial seven-factor solution) is not problematic; the corrected item/total correlation is largely above .30. The same counts for taking all information-seeking items together; this does not harm the reliability of the scales.

Table 3.6. *Final four-factor solution of HRD-activities.*

HRD-activities	Cronbach's α
1. Formal learning	.91
2. Learning by doing	.89
3. Asking advice	.87
4. Seeking information	.88

Based on these analyses we conclude that we can proceed with the original four categories of types of HRD-activities. In Table 3.7. we present the scores on items concerning the extent of use of different types of HRD-activities with regard to the clusters of management tasks.

Table 3.7. *Types of HRD-activities directed at clusters of management tasks: Means and standard deviations.*

Types of HRD-activities	Formal learning		Seeking information		Asking advice		Learning by doing		Total	
	M	sd	M	Sd	M	sd	M	sd	M	sd
<i>Management tasks</i>										
Communication	2.71	1.21	2.67	1.05	3.31	.93	4.03	.98	3.18	.64
Traditional management	2.84	1.37	2.93	1.20	3.43	1.03	3.87	.99	3.27	.74
Networking	1.91	1.04	2.16	1.14	2.59	1.18	3.29	1.35	2.51	.84
Human Resource management	2.89	1.12	2.83	1.07	3.30	.91	3.79	.90	3.19	.71
Total	2.57	.98	2.64	.90	3.18	.77	3.77	.84	3.02	.61

Managers score moderately on total extent of used HRD-activities (3.02). Furthermore, it appears that the score on 'learning by doing' is high (3.77), while on all the other HRD-activities managers have moderate scores.

We observe that learning-by-doing activities are used most, followed by "asking advice", "seeking information" and at the closing position "formal learning".

By carrying out analysis of variance, we tested whether the average scores on extent of used HRD-activities differed between the types. We found that between the four types the extent differs ($F=27.35$; $p<.01$). More specifically, from post-hoc analysis we conclude that all types differ significantly with regard to the extent they are used, except for "formal learning" and "seeking information" ($p>.05$). This leads us to the conclusion that managers learn more by doing than by asking advice, and more by asking advice than by seeking information and training, workshops, courses, etc. Apparently, the extent of used formal HRD-activities does not differ from the extent of certain used non-formal HRD-activities.

This finding largely supports hypothesis 1.1. that 'the more informal an HRD-activity is, the more managers use it'. A slight restriction lies in the fact that no significant difference was found between the extent of use of the third HRD-activity (learning by seeking information) and the fourth HRD-activity (training, workshops, courses, etc.). This finding is illustrated in Figure 3.1.⁶

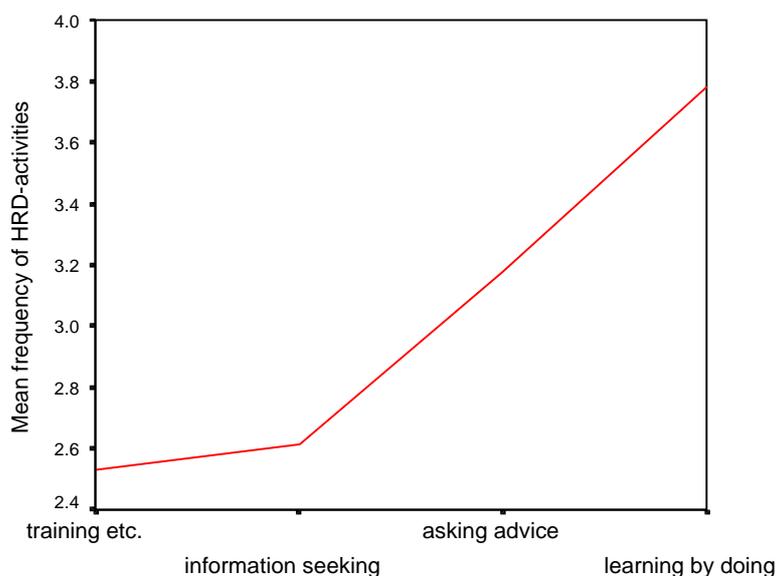


Figure 3.1. Extent of use of different types of HRD-activities.

⁶ The variable at the x-axis is at nominal level; usually histograms are used for illustration. We decided to use line diagrams to illustrate our findings, which is very insightful in this case.

The correlations between the extent of use of various types of HRD-activities, give insight into whether one type of HRD-activity compensates for another or not.

We found some significant positive correlations (see Table 3.8.), whereas we expected compensation and therefore negative correlations. Hypothesis 1.2. (compensation hypothesis) is not supported.

Table 3.8. *Pearson-correlations between frequency of types of HRD-activities.*

Frequency of:	Training, courses, etc.	Information seeking	Asking advice	Learning by doing
Training, courses, etc.	1.00			
Information seeking	.57**	1.00		
Asking advice	.23	.40**	1.00	
Learning by doing	.13	.24	.40**	1.00

** significant at the .01-level (2-tailed)

In order to get a more comprehensive picture of HRD-activities used by managers, we asked them to characterise their HRD-activities by indicating which side of various learning dimensions was emphasised.

The learning dimensions measured are formalisation, on the job / off the job, social learning, and specific vs generic value. This latter dimension refers to the value HRD-activities have for a smaller or broader range of tasks⁷. These questions are asked on five-point scales. A score of "3" has a neutral meaning.

Table 3.9. *Dimensions of HRD-activities.*

Dimensions				M	sd
1. Formalisation	1 = formal	-	5 = informal	3.60	1.00
2. On the job / off the job	1 = on the job	-	5 = off the job	2.16	1.04
3. Social learning	1 = with others	-	5 = alone	3.36	1.18
4. Generic value	1 = specific	-	5 = generic	2.89	1.14

Table 3.9. shows that in general, managers learn mostly informal, on the job and on their own. Moreover, their HRD-activities are slightly more specific than generic, while their preference is to learn more generically than specifically (M=3.34; sd=1.18).

Ad 1.c. Personal characteristics

Age is negatively related to the total extent to which HRD-activities are used ($r=-.25$; $p<.05$). Contrary to our expectations, it is not formal learning but learning by asking advice ($r=-.46$; $p<.01$) which has the strongest negative relation with age.

Total managerial experience does not significantly relate to the total extent of used HRD-activities, nor does job tenure. Job tenure does, however, relate positively to frequency of learning by doing ($r=.27$; $p<.05$). Overall, hypothesis 1.3. is not supported. The only result in support of our expectation is that age relates negatively to the total extent of used HRD-activities.

Educational level is not related to the total extent of used HRD-activities (Spearman's $Rho=.01$), nor does it relate to the extent of HRD-activities directed at the different clusters of *management tasks*. No relation was found between educational level and extent of use of the different *types* of HRD-activities either. Hypothesis 1.4. is not supported.

Contrary to our expectations, organisational tenure does not positively relate to the extent of formal training followed; instead, they are slightly (but not significantly) negatively correlated ($r=-.15$ $p >.05$).

⁷ We will discuss this dimension more intensively in the next chapter since it is especially relevant in the light of career development.

The data do not support hypothesis 1.5. Additionally, organisational tenure shows a negative correlation with the total extent of used HRD-activities ($r=-.42$; $p<.01$).

Ad 1.d. HRD-initiative

In Table 3.10. we present the scores on HRD-initiative, by sample.

Table 3.10. *Levels of HRD-initiative: Means and standard deviations and independent samples t-test.*

	Army-sample (N=47)		Food-sample (N=22)		Total sample (N=69)		T (2-tailed)
	M	sd	M	sd	M	sd	
HRD-initiative [#]	2.31	.99	2.27	.98	2.30	.98	.16

[#] (1= merely on own initiative; 5=merely on initiative of others)

Managers indicate they merely take initiative themselves, that is to merely self-direct their learning. The initiative shown in using HRD-activities does not differ between the two samples.

We hypothesised that age and level of HRD-initiative are negatively correlated. The negative relation we found is not statistically significant ($r=-.10$; $p>.05$). Hypothesis 1.6. is not supported by the data.

Educational level and HRD-initiative were assumed to be positively related. This hypothesis (1.7.) is not supported either (Spearman's Rho = .01; $p>.05$).

In hypothesis 1.8. the expectation is put forward that the level of HRD-initiative is positively related to the total extent of used HRD-activities, and specifically to the use of learning-by-doing activities.

This hypothesis is not supported, although the strongest (but not significant) correlation is indeed with learning-by-doing activities. Interesting to note is that the relation with HRD-initiative and the amount of HRD-activities directed at HRM-tasks is almost significant ($r=-.19$; $p>.05$), meaning that more own HRD-initiatives go together with more HRD-activities directed at HRM-tasks.

3.3.2. Relation between HRD-activities and management tasks

The focus of this subsection is on the task-relatedness of managers' HRD-activities. The central question of this sub-section have been subdivided as follows:

- 2a. Which management tasks do (junior) managers perform?
- 2b. How frequent do managers engage in management tasks?
- 2c. How important do managers judge management tasks?
- 2d. How do frequency and importance of management tasks relate to the extent and type of use of HRD-activities?
- 2e. To what extent are management tasks and types of HRD-activities related?

This research question is accompanied by two hypotheses (see for an overview, chapter 2, section 2.3.).

Ad 2.a. Management tasks

As we described in section 3.2.2. (ad 3) we use Luthans' categorisation of management tasks in this study. We first wanted to test this categorisation, this was done in two ways:

First, by asking the respondents to describe to which management tasks their learning efforts were directed, before they were given Luthans' description of the management job. The question was "To which management tasks did you direct HRD-activities"?

We compared the answers given to the open question to Luthans' taxonomy. First, we conclude that only very few new tasks were mentioned. Secondly, the additional tasks mentioned were mainly organisation-specific (for example: teaching military subjects or taking care of restaurant hygiene) or too broad (for example "supervising people" or "people handling"). Sometimes conditions were

mentioned under which the managers had to work, for example working in stressful situations, or in times of war. Based on these findings we decided that no adjustments were necessary. Secondly, by asking the respondents to complete the twelve management tasks developed by Luthans in case the managers were missing tasks in this taxonomy.

All together, respondents mentioned 24 tasks of which nine (37.5%) were company-specific and therefore not suitable to include in a generic description of the management job. It concerned tasks like: dealing with the idea that the army might use violence, and taking care of loose change and safety in the restaurant. Another two tasks (8.3%) were not job-related: making coffee and cleaning my officer's desk. Thirteen statements were left for further consideration. Fulfilling a position of confidence was mentioned four times (16.6%). Another 16.6% of the tasks concerned team-building. Playing a role model was also mentioned four times (16.6%). Supporting and directing one's superior on a specific domain was mentioned only once (4.2%).

We concluded that only a very small number of extra tasks were mentioned and these were very fragmented. Moreover, the extra tasks mentioned have more to do with (charismatic) leadership than with management. Because of these various reasons, we decided not to make adjustments to Luthans' original categorisation of management tasks.

Ad 2.b./2.c. Frequency and importance of management tasks

The frequency and importance of management tasks are presented in Table 3.11. As can be seen, the total average frequency (3.57) and importance (4.11) is judged to be high. When we take a closer look at the four clusters of management tasks, we see that tasks in the Communication and Traditional Management cluster have high scores on frequency. Tasks in the HRM and the Networking cluster occur moderately. Managers indicate that, although they do value these activities, interacting with outsiders, staffing and managing conflict do not occur frequently. The importance of all clusters is judged to be high, except for Networking, which seems to be moderately important. Moreover, it appears that frequency and importance of management tasks are strongly correlated (.72; $p < .01$). This counts for all clusters of management tasks.

Table 3.11. *Frequency and importance of (clusters of) management tasks: Means, standard deviations and Pearson-correlations.*

Management tasks	Frequency		Importance		Correlations frequency / importance
	M	Sd	M	Sd	r
<i>Communication</i>	3.89	.73	4.06	.73	.35**
1. exchange routine information	4.04	.86	4.26	.81	.19
2. processing paperwork	3.73	1.03	3.87	.99	.59**
<i>Traditional management</i>	4.07	.76	4.40	.58	.76**
3. planning and co-ordinating	4.11	.96	4.55	.61	.52**
4. decision making and problem solving	3.99	1.08	4.22	.92	.74**
5. monitoring and controlling performance	4.12	.96	4.43	.81	.59**
<i>Networking</i>	3.01	.78	3.27	.94	.62**
6. interacting with others/outside	2.54	1.26	3.36	1.26	.72**
7. socialising/politicking	3.47	1.06	3.17	1.30	.57**
<i>Human Resource management</i>	3.37	.61	4.29	.56	.56**
8. motivating and reinforcing	4.09	.70	4.64	.57	.52**
9. disciplining and punishing	3.74	1.00	4.34	.78	.34**
10. managing conflict	2.96	1.00	4.31	.79	.26*
11. staffing	2.32	1.40	3.55	1.43	.55**
12. training and developing	3.77	.90	4.49	.76	.48**
Total	3.57	.49	4.11	.43	.72**

** significant at the .01-level; * significant at the .05-level (2-tailed)

Management tasks and personal characteristics

For exploratory purposes, we counted correlations between some personal background characteristics and the frequency and importance of management tasks. It appears that age relates positively to frequency of communication tasks ($r=.25$; $p<.05$) and negatively to traditional management tasks ($r=-.28$; $p<.05$) and HRM-tasks ($r=-.30$; $p<.05$). Moreover, organisational tenure is negatively related to frequency of HRM-tasks ($r=-.33$; $p<.01$). Job tenure, total managerial experience and initiative are not related to frequency and importance of management tasks.

Moreover, it seems that a higher educational level relates to more decision-making and problem-solving activities (Spearman's $Rho=.21$; $p<.05$; 1-tailed) and to less controlling and monitoring performance activities (Spearman's $Rho=-.23$; $p<.05$; 1-tailed). Additionally, we found a negative correlation with the importance of socialising/politicking (Spearman's $Rho=-.23$; $p<.05$; 1-tailed), which means that higher educated managers value this activity less than lower educated managers.

Ad 2.d. Relation between frequency and importance of management tasks and use of HRD-activities

Importance of management tasks is positively related to the extent to which HRD-activities are directed to them ($r=.46$; $p<.01$). This goes for all clusters of management tasks. Additionally, the total importance of management tasks is positively related to all types of HRD-activities, except for asking advice ($r=.16$; $p>.05$).

Frequency of management tasks is positively related to the extent to which HRD-activities are directed to them ($r=.56$; $p<.01$). This goes for all clusters of management tasks. The only exception is that a significant correlation lacks between the frequency of communication tasks and the extent to which HRD-activities are directed to them.

The extent to which certain types of HRD-activities are used appears to be related to the frequency of management tasks as well. Training is least positively related to frequency of management tasks ($r=.22$; $p<.05$) and learning by doing most positively ($r=.63$; $p<.01$). Hypothesis 2.1. is supported.

Ad 2.e. Task-relatedness of HRD-activities

In section 3.1.1. the order in which types of HRD-activities are used was described. It is worth analysing whether this order is valid for all clusters of management tasks or not. In other words, is it possible to speak of a general pattern or does use of type of HRD-activities depend on the particular management task?

We found the same pattern (= types of HRD-activities in order of extent of use) with regard for Traditional Management tasks and Networking tasks. For tasks in the Communication and HRM-cluster, the HRD-activities 'seeking information' and 'formal learning' are turned round. Since we have already concluded that the positions of these two types of HRD-activities are interchangeable, this does not affect the initial conclusions. We conclude that for all clusters of management tasks most informal HRD-activities are used, followed by non-formal and formal HRD-activities. Apparently, different management tasks are learnt in similar ways, and thus we can talk about a general existing pattern of use of type of HRD-activities. This brings us to the conclusion that the use of HRD-activities is largely task-independent.

Our findings are illustrated by the following line diagram (Figure 3.2.). In the diagram each line represents another type of HRD-activity.

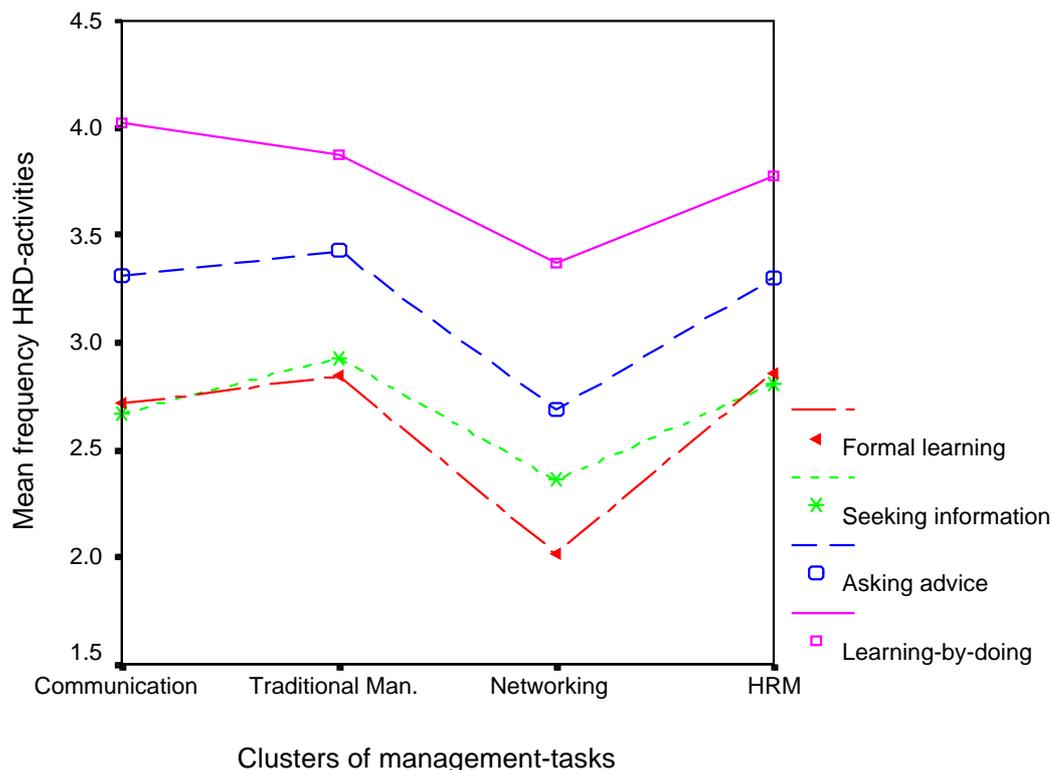


Figure 3.2. Line diagram of types of HRD-activities and management tasks.

Up to this point we organised our data according to the type of HRD-activity. Alternatively we may focus on the cluster of management tasks towards which HRD-activities are directed.

The column with mean scores in Table 3.7. on the extreme right provides some interesting information about the total average extent of used HRD-activities for the different clusters of management tasks. It seems that managers use most HRD-activities for Traditional Management tasks and least for Networking tasks. Analysis of variance indicates that the means on extent of used HRD-activities differ between the clusters of management tasks ($F=15.83$; $p<.01$). Post-hoc analysis (Tukey for equal

variance assumed) shows no significant differences between clusters 1, 2 en 4. Cluster 3 'Networking', however, differs significantly from all other clusters with regard to the extent of used HRD-activities ($p < .01$). Whereas the mean for the clusters 'Communication', 'Traditional Management' and 'Human Resource Management' is moderate, for the cluster 'Networking' managers use less HRD-activities (the score is exactly at the point of being low: 2.51). Hypothesis 2.2. is not supported.

This is illustrated in the next line diagram in which each line represents a cluster of management tasks.

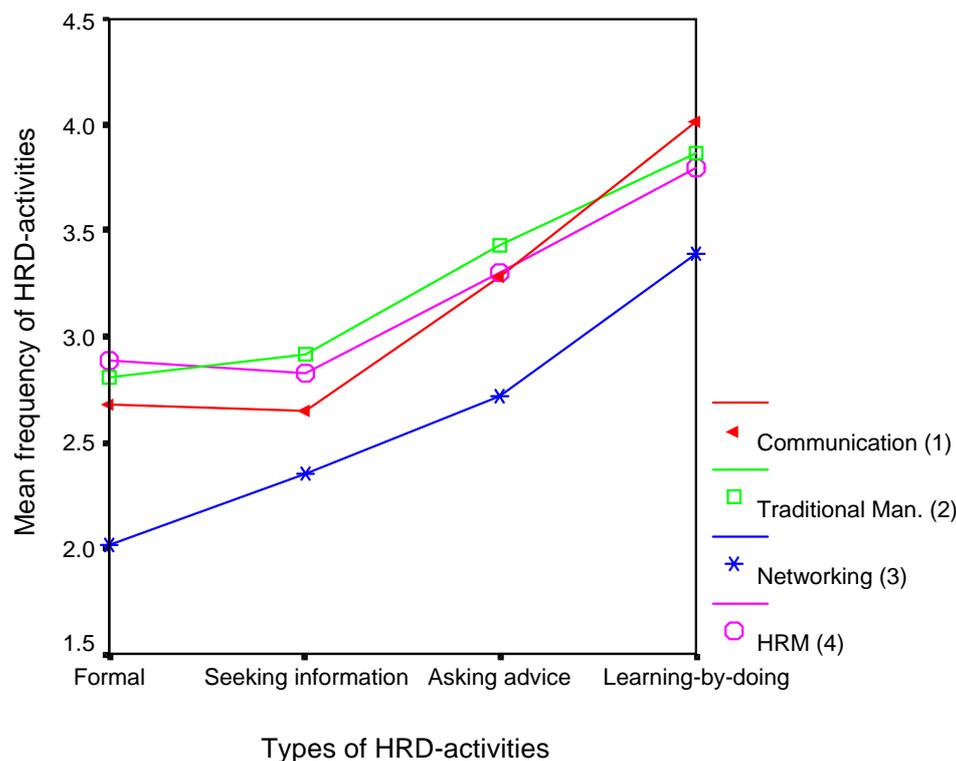


Figure 3.3. Line diagram of clusters of management tasks and types of HRD-activities.

The figure shows parallel lines, indicating that a general pattern exists. The types of HRD-activities are used similarly for each cluster of management tasks; however, the extent of use of the different types of HRD-activities is not equal for each cluster of management tasks. For Networking tasks, less HRD-activities are used compared to the other clusters.

3.4. Post-inquiry study

This exploratory study leaves two points for further research. First, a large set of the identified HRD-activities fell under the header "learning by doing". This gave rise to further research into the nature of this activity. Secondly, insight into who took the initiative of HRD-activities was not enough to fully understand the drive for realising HRD-activities. Knowing that managers in general learn more on their own initiative than because of an external drive, it is not enough to conclude that managers are self-directed learners. Shown initiative is behaviour, but the question remains from where this behaviour originates. What are underlying motives and expectations? More information was needed about the role of managers and subordinates managing the initiation and realisation of HRD-activities and career development.

Before studying these questions on a larger scale, we took the opportunity to carry out a post-inquiry with a selection of our original group of managers (N=30).

We developed a questionnaire which consisted of questions on a) learning by doing, and b) initiative and responsibility for learning (directed at current job) and career development (directed at future jobs) (see Appendix 3.2. for the used instrument).

Ad a. Learning by doing

First we needed a starting-point to further study learning by doing. Based on literature and in discussion with some experts in the HRD-field (during a conference), we developed a set of learning-by-doing activities in four categories, with two intentional and two incidental activities. The activities can further be characterised as to whether they lead to continuous or discontinuous change of one's action repertory. To illustrate, by routinisation a certain competence gradually increases, while learning experiences based on an experiment will more likely lead to a prompt increase in, for instance, knowledge. The categories are presented in Figure 3.4.

	<i>Discontinuous Change</i>	<i>Continuous Change</i>
<i>Incidental</i>	Trial and error	Routinisation
<i>Intentional</i>	Experimenting	Increasing level of difficulty

Figure 3.4. Four types of learning by doing.

Before using these categories for a post-inquiry of our initial respondents, we discussed it with a panel of experts and found approval for our distinction into these four categories. We generated descriptions/examples of each category of learning by doing (see Table 3.12.), to make the categories understandable to our group of respondents.

Table 3.12. *Description of categories of learning by doing.*

Category of learning by doing	Description
1. Coincidentally learning by trial and error	Being confronted with problems at work, coincidentally coming to better insights and/or solutions
2. Gradually increasing routine	Gradually mastering one's job by performing tasks and/or using methods of working
3. Gradually increasing level of difficulty	Learning to perform similar tasks or working methods with increased level of difficulty
4. Consciously experimenting	Trying out new tasks and/or working methods in order to master them

We presented the description of the categories to our respondents to check which of these activities they had in mind when thinking of "learning by doing" (see appendix 3.2. for the used questionnaire).

Table 3.13. *Use of types of learning-by-doing activities: Means and standard deviations.*

Learning by doing	N	M	sd
1. Trial and error	29	3.66	1.01
2. Routinisation	28	4.36	.68
3. Increasing level of difficulty	30	3.73	1.14
4. Experimenting	30	3.73	1.01

Table 3.13. shows that learning by doing is an amalgam of different activities. Respondents indicate to a high extent they think of many different activities when they think of learning by doing. It varies from intentionally experimenting with new tasks and/or procedures to coincidentally learning by trial and

error. The highest score was on routinisation, while the other three learning-by-doing activities had almost equal scores.

Ad b. Initiative and responsibility with regard to learning and career development

Table 3.14. gives an overview of scores with regard to the second question of the post-inquiry study concerning underlying aspects of initiative behaviour.

Table 3.14. *Initiative and responsibility with regard to learning and career development (manager and subordinate): Means and standard deviations.*

		Manager		Subordinate	
		M	sd	M	sd
Initiative	Learning (current job)	4.00	.94	2.64	.95
	Career development (future jobs)	3.96	.90	3.33	1.04
Responsibility	Learning (current job)	4.04	.79	3.39	1.07
	Career development (future jobs)	4.21	.83	3.89	.99

1=to a low extent; 5=to a high extent; N=28.

As can be read from Table 3.14., managers indicate they hold themselves highly responsible for their HRD-activities and for their career development. Additionally, they state that the initiative in both training and career development should be theirs. Moreover, managers hold their subordinates moderately to highly responsible as well, yet they expect somewhat less from their subordinates than from themselves.

Scores on responsibility are higher than the scores on initiative. This goes for both managers and subordinates.

3.5. Conclusion and discussion

At the end of this chapter we will draw conclusions with regard to the main question posed at the beginning of this chapter: what is the significance of learning in a manager's career?

From Table 3.15., which shows an overview of the hypotheses tested and the level of support found, we conclude that support is found for only some of our hypotheses.

Table 3.15. *Overview of support for hypotheses regarding HRD-activities and management tasks.*

Hypotheses	Support*
<i>1. Management learning: How can managers' HRD-activities be characterised?</i>	
<i>HRD-activities</i>	
1.1. The more informal an HRD-activity is, the more managers will use it;	+/-
1.2. The less managers use formal HRD-activities, the more they will use informal HRD-activities (compensation hypothesis).	-
<i>Background characteristics</i>	
1.3. A negative relation exists between on the one hand age, total managerial experience and job tenure, and the total extent of used HRD-activities on the other hand; this negative relation is strongest for formal HRD-activities;	+/- (age) - (man exp) - (job ten.)
1.4. A positive relation exists between educational level and the total extent of use of HRD-activities;	-
1.5. A positive relation exists between organisational tenure and use of formal HRD-activities ⁸ .	-
<i>HRD-initiative</i>	
1.6. A negative relation exists between age and level of HRD-initiative (older employees will show less initiative);	-
1.7. A positive relation exists between educational level and the level of HRD-initiative;	-
1.8. A positive relation exists between level of HRD-initiative and total extent of use of HRD-activities; the relation will be strongest with use of learning-by-doing activities.	-
<i>2. Task-relatedness: Are managers' HRD-activities management task-related?</i>	
<i>The management job and HRD-activities</i>	
2.1. The more important a management task is and/or the more frequently a management task occurs, the more HRD-activities managers will direct at this management task. The relation between frequency of management tasks and learning-by-doing activities will be strongest;	+
2.2. The extent to which HRD-activities are used for HRM-tasks is higher than for other management tasks.	-
+ fully supported; +/- partly supported; - not supported	

We will now summarise the conclusions by addressing the two research questions one by one. Some points of discussion will be made explicit. Finally, implications for further research questions are described.

Conclusions with regard to research question 1: Characterisation of HRD-activities

We conclude that managers use various types of HRD-activities to master their job, varying from formal training activities to informal learning-by-doing activities. Moreover, they indicate they learn from aspects they do not control themselves (e.g. the structure of their job) or which occurred in the past (e.g. past experience). In this study we explicitly search for activities that managers may carry out during their current job in order to further develop their management competence. Based on factor analyses and reliability analyses, we conclude that the original categorisation of types of HRD-activities as described in section 2.2.9. can be maintained in this study.

The overall level of use of HRD-activities is moderate. In general, it appears that the more informal an HRD-activity is, the more managers use it. Managers mostly learn by doing and least by participating in formal HRD-activities. Like Kotter (1989), we found that managers rely more on discussions with others than on books, magazines, or reports. Kwakman (1992), too, found that the score on discovery learning (which is largely parallel to our learning by doing) was highest and on external learning lowest

⁸ This hypothesis can be in conflict with hypothesis 1.3.

(=formal learning off the job). Managers thus seem to be pragmatic learners (Lankhuijzen, 1999), although it must be noted that the score on formal HRD-activities still is not low (>2.5).

Appearing from correlation analysis, no support was found for the compensation of formal and informal HRD-activities. Instead of the expected negative correlations, we found some positive correlations between use of types of HRD-activities. This points at a certain interdependency of types of HRD-activities: people who use one type of HRD-activity to a large extent will add to their learning by using another type of HRD-activity. This was, however, not the case for typically formal and typically informal HRD-activities, but instead for types that were close to each other in terms of formalisation. The use of the two non-formal types of HRD-activities, for example, seems to be interdependent. Moreover, formal learning and information seeking (= non-formal) correlate positively. As to learning by doing (informal) and asking advice (non-formal).

It seems to be the case that the extent of use of types of HRD-activities depends on the preference for formalisation of HRD-activities. While there is no compensation, we also found only limited evidence for cumulation (Tuijnman, 1991) or interdependency of informal and formal HRD-activities, either.

From the post-inquiry study it appears that learning by doing is an amalgam of several incidental and intentional HRD-activities. An important dimension to distinguish between learning-by-doing activities is level of intention (or level of planning) of HRD-activities. Especially "routinising activities" are meant by managers when they indicate they learn by doing, which is a largely incidental strategy that results in continuous change. The other three learning-by-doing activities (trial and error, increasing level of difficulty, and experimenting) score high as well.

With regard to the relation between background characteristics and use of HRD-activities, age seems to be negatively related to the use of HRD-activities. Especially asking advice is done less by older employees. Apparently, older managers are more inclined to trust on their own expertise than younger managers do.

No hypotheses with regard to managerial experience, job tenure and educational level were supported (see also Van den Akker, 1999). It is not surprising that job tenure correlates positively with the total extent of *learning-by-doing* activities. When starting a new job, one usually has to follow formal courses and training, while in the course of one's job one counts more on gaining experience by performing the job. Unlike Noe & Wilk (1993), we found that organisational tenure does not relate positively to the use of formal HRD-activities, instead it correlates negatively with the total extent of used HRD-activities. It appears that age-related variables, such as age itself, job and organisational tenure and managerial experience, relate in a negative sense to the use of HRD-activities.

Managers merely take initiative to learn themselves, that is to self-direct their learning. No hypotheses on HRD-initiative were supported. That is, neither age nor educational level was significantly related to the level of HRD-initiative. Although not significant, the relation between HRD-initiative and the use of learning-by-doing activities was relatively strongest, as expected.

Another finding from the post-inquiry study is that managers feel highly responsible for both learning for their current job and for their career development. Moreover, they indicate that the initiative in both learning and career development should be theirs.

Managers have higher expectations with regard to responsibility and initiative of themselves than of their subordinates. Apparently, managers want to play a role in the development of their subordinates, especially with regard to the HRD-activities that subordinates should carry out for their current job.

Conclusion research question 2: Relation between HRD-activities and management tasks (task-relatedness)

We conclude that managers meet all kinds of management tasks which are well represented by Luthans' taxonomy.

Both frequency and importance scores are high. Managers indicate that communication and traditional management tasks occur most. Networking and HRM-tasks occur moderately often. In accordance with the study by Jansen and Stoop (1999), we found that "planning and co-ordinating" is one of the most time-consuming activities, beside monitoring and controlling performance.

All clusters of management tasks are judged to be highly important, except for tasks within the networking cluster which are judged to be moderately important. This is rather logical because networking activities, such as interacting with outsiders, is a typical task for higher management levels in order to build business contacts. First-line managers are primarily responsible for the primary processes which require external contacts to a lesser extent.

Motivating and reinforcing subordinates (an HRM-task) and planning and co-ordinating are valued most. This is also in accordance with the study of Jansen and Stoop (1997). There are, however, also differences between the studies. Jansen and Stoop demonstrated that "disciplining and punishing" was of least importance, while in our study this activity is judged to be highly important. These different results can be explained by the fact that in our study first-line managers are involved whereas in Jansen & Stoop's study, top managers and middle managers participated. Disciplining and punishing seems to be especially important for first-line managers who directly lead the shop floor.

We found a strong correlation between frequency and importance of management tasks ($r=.72$). In contrast, Jansen and Stoop (1997) found a weak relation between importance of management tasks and time spent on them. It is more easy to explain the strong than the weak relation between importance of management tasks and the time spent on them. A strong correlation was expected because of the autonomy that managers generally have and the according freedom to spend time on management tasks that are considered to be most important. As a possible explanation for the weak relation, Jansen and Stoop (1997) mention that learning experiences with important management tasks may lead to even more engagement in these tasks. Or exactly the opposite may happen; less time is needed to spend on these tasks because of a learning effect which may have resulted in more efficiency in carrying out the tasks.

Both frequency and importance of management tasks are positively related to the extent to which HRD-activities are directed to them. This goes for all clusters of management tasks.

To illustrate, most of the HRD-activities are directed to the management tasks planning and co-ordinating and monitoring and controlling, which are most frequently used. Apparently, traditional management tasks still make up the core of the management job.

Likewise, least HRD-activities are directed to the tasks interacting with outsiders and staffing, which occur least frequently. Because this research is focused on junior (first-line) managers it is understandable that these two tasks do not occur frequently. Although HRM-tasks have shifted towards line management, staffing still is often done by staff specialists.

As expected, formal training is least positively related to frequency of management tasks and learning by doing most positively. Moreover, we see that frequency of certain management tasks correlates positively with the extent of HRD-activities used for other management tasks (e.g. frequency of HRM-tasks relates positively to seeking information for traditional management tasks) (see Appendix 3.3.). It is likely that in order to perform well in a certain task it is required to master other management tasks, too.

The pattern of different types of HRD-activities that is used goes for all clusters of management tasks. We conclude that a task-generic pattern of HRD-activities exists, indicating that HRD-activities of managers are not task-related. Managers learn different management tasks in similar ways.

With age, the frequency of communication tasks increases, while the frequency of traditional management tasks declines. Higher educated managers are more often engaged in decision making and problem solving and less often in controlling and monitoring performance. This can be explained by the fact that the first task requires higher-order skills (such as analytical thinking) which are learnt in higher forms of education. While for controlling performance (e.g. checking work progress) it is not so much analytical skills, but a certain level of authority that matters. Moreover, they judge socialising and politicking to be less important than their lower educated colleagues. An explanation for the fact that not every manager is engaged in different management tasks to the same extent may be found in the large level of autonomy that managers are generally given⁹. Within certain boundaries, they have the freedom to decide which tasks to perform, which in turn will be largely dependent on their preferences.

Points of discussion

It must be noted that it was left to the respondents themselves to estimate the amount of time spent on the various types of HRD-activities. It is likely that "time" has been interpreted in a relative and in an absolute sense. The problem arises, then, that while a number of hours spent on formal training, say 20 hours, can be perceived of as "a lot" of time in absolute terms, this number of hours spent on training may mean only a small percentage of the total time spent on HRD-activities in relative terms.

Finally, we would like to address the fact that we used self-perception measures in this study. Some criticism can be levelled at the use of self-report. O'Driscoll, Humphries and Larsen (1991, p. 322) state that conclusions from research findings based on self-report must be drawn tentatively, especially in the absence of more direct observations. Vinkenburg (1997, p. 149) adds that self-report may lead to self-enhancement by managers. Moreover, it is in general sensitive to social desirability (Hoeksema, 1995, p. 47).

However, several positive arguments can be given for the use of self-report as well. It gives more insight into the "how" and "why" of certain behaviours, in contrast with e.g. observation (Vinkenburg, 1997, p. 149). Jansen and Stoop (1997, p. 79), too, state that self-report is just as accurate and valuable as doing observations. It saves time and effort and certain risks involved in observations are avoided. It includes relevant and valid information not available to observers. Noe and Wilk (1991) suggest that objective participation data may not even be reliable. And, as McEnrue (1989) noted, to the extent that individual perceptions are important concerns in development, self-reports are not only useful but also essential.

A study by Carroll and Taylor (as cited in Carroll & Gillen, 1987, p. 40) showed that self-observation by work sampling produced about the same results as previous time estimates and the observations made by an outside observer.

Finally, self-report has been more often used to measure participation in different types of career-related learning and development activities (e.g. Maurer & Tarulli, 1994; Kwakman, 1999; Noe, 1996).

Implications for the next research step

Overall few hypotheses have been supported by the data. The most important findings are:

- Managers mainly learn by doing, which is an amalgam of activities;
- Different management tasks are learnt in similar ways; a task-generic pattern of HRD-activities was found;

⁹ The different situations managers meet will also explain a large part of this task variety.

- Managers indicate they merely learn on their own initiative. The HRD-initiative and responsibility is rated higher for managers than for subordinates.

Based on qualitative analyses and on reflection by respondents, we conclude that we may continue with the chosen categorisations of management tasks and HRD-activities, which were judged fairly complete and relevant by the managers.

The fact that we found a task-generic pattern of HRD-activities leads us to the conclusion that in further research steps there is no need for measuring extent of use of HRD-activities task-specifically.

The exploratory and post-inquiry study gave us some more insight into how managers think about the level of initiative and responsibility they should take for learning and career development.

We found variance in initiative scores, meaning that not every manager has the same opinion on who should be taking initiative and responsibility for learning. This makes initiative an important variable to include in the remainder of our study.

No support was found for a relation between the level of HRD-initiative and extent of used HRD-activities. Apparently, for the extent to which HRD-activities are used it is not important *who* takes the initiative. We assume that it would be more interesting to study *how* a person comes to take initiative in learning. More insight into the perceptions underlying the level of initiative with regard to learning is therefore desired. Initiative is behaviour preceded by a certain level of responsibility an employee has. Insight into underlying perceptions can enhance our understanding of the factors explaining the extent to which HRD-activities are actually used.

In the next research phase we will address what expectations managers have about self-management of learning and career development by using theory on the new psychological contract. The emphasis shifts towards learning within a modern career context. Consequently, we will relate HRD-activities to employability-related measures.

Chapter 4

Theoretical framework

Career development and the psychological career contract

This chapter consists of three components. In 4.1. we will characterise managers' career development. Nowadays, it is widely acknowledged that development activities not only have to lead to performance improvement and optimisation, career development is now a major goal of HRD as well. The expectations employees and employers have, operating as they are in modern times and meeting modern careers, are addressed by the psychological contract concept (4.2.).

In this chapter the central research question (what is the significance of learning in a manager's career) will be approached from an evaluative perspective, in contrast to the descriptive perspective of the former chapters. The evaluative nature stems from the fact that management learning is linked to certain career outcomes. We will demonstrate that a relevant outcome of learning in modern careers is the manager's perspective on mobility. The aim of this chapter is to develop a conceptual research model (see section 4.3.) to be tested in later chapters.

4.1. Career development: a dynamic approach

"Career development is an organized, planned effort comprised of structured activities or processes that result in a mutual career plotting effort between employees and the organization" (Gilley & Egglund, 1989). Apparently, both the organisation and employees have a responsibility with respect to career development. The individual responsibility is generally referred to as career planning, while the organisation's responsibility is often named career management (Gutteridge & Otte, 1983, p. 7). In our study we focus on the individual responsibility for career development, which in the ideal situation is supported by organisations.

A major distinction can be made between descriptive and dynamic definitions of career development (Kuijpers, 2001, p. 309; Van de Loo, 1992). The descriptive definition of career development refers to the way in which a career develops over time (consecutive jobs and education). By following courses, executing one's job, etc. a career unfolds itself. Even when an individual does not actively pursue a career, one can still speak of career development. As Hall (1996) states: "If we think of the career as a series of lifelong work-related experiences and personal learnings (Hall, 1976), it will never die" (p. 1). In contrast, we will regard career development as a process in which a person is *actively* involved. We use the dynamic definition of career development, which refers to activities to intentionally and purposefully influence one's career path (Kuijpers, 2001, p. 309). Hall (1996, p. 6) stresses the importance of active involvement of individuals in the so-called protean career, that is when people are able to be continuous learners and to redirect their lives and careers. The distinction between descriptive and dynamic definitions of a career is largely similar with the historical development of the career concept. Whereas careers used to be orchestrated by organisations (no strong need for individual pro-activity), careers are now more driven by the individual (Hall, 1996), which makes a (pro-) active attitude of individual employees necessary.

Our view on career development closely relates to what Kuijpers (2000) refers to as "career actualisation". This is "a continuous process of evaluation, direction and execution of activities aimed at self-fulfilment through one's career" (p. 6). As a consequence of this relatively new approach of career development, several issues get more and more attention: for instance, employability as the new career goal, combining work and non-work as an essential career competence, self-management

as a modern career attitude and the sharing of responsibilities between employees and organisations (or, the psychological career contract; see further section 4.2.). Our definition of career development is “*the continuous process of active engagement in self-managed career development activities aimed at optimising one’s career mobility perspective*”.

We will now discuss these topics, which are particularly relevant in the study of career development. Throughout this section several hypotheses will be generated which will be summarised at the end of section 4.3. First, the shift from traditional to modern careers will be described. This includes a description of some major theories on career development (4.1.1.). The new career competences needed as a consequence of the new career will be described in 4.1.2. Self-management is a central value of modern careers and will be dealt with in section 4.1.3. The concepts of employability and mobility as the new career goals will be described in 4.1.4. Next, we will describe the consequences that ideas about modern careers have for mobility perspectives of managers (4.1.5.) and for the nature of their HRD-activities (4.1.6.). Background factors influencing HRD-patterns and mobility perspectives will be central in 4.1.7. We will finish with a conclusion about modern career development in section 4.1.8.

4.1.1. The shift from traditional to modern career development

A broad base of theory has been evolving for nearly a century (Carnevale *et al.*, 1990a, p. 260). A career was once primarily related to initial job choice; it is now widely accepted as a central feature in employment arrangements (Arthur *et al.*, 1989, p. 7).

Early theorists (e.g. Parsons (1909) as cited in Carnevale *et al.*, 1990a) approached the career as a point-in-time event; new theories broadened the perspective and view career development and career choices as the result of a process. Others claimed a match between individual characteristics and career choice. Moreover, models were developed identifying a series of phases through which a person progresses over a lifetime.

An example of this latter approach is the ‘hierarchy of career adjustment’ developed by the National Alliance of Business (as cited in Carnevale *et al.*, 1990a). This represents the (employability progression, or) career development progression as a series of stages or levels through which a person moves to reach self-actualisation. The four stages are career acquisition, career maintenance, career advancement and career enhancement. Whereas traditionally the first two stages were seen as the central elements of a career, nowadays adult career development is mainly concerned with the latter two stages: career advancement and career enhancement. Career progress is valued more than loyalty to a certain job or organisation.

A key idea in recent career theories is the necessity of a match between organisational expectations and individual employees’ expectations. The clearer both parties are about their expectations, the greater the satisfaction will be on both sides (Carnevale *et al.*, 1990a, p. 263). Gutteridge and Otte (1983) emphasise the dual perspective on careers as well. They describe organisational career development as an outcome of individual career planning and institutional career management. It refers to the results occurring through dual career processes and focuses on the *joint* relationships between individuals and their work environment.

An important characteristic of this latter approach of careers is that they are seen as contracts employers have with their employees. Similarly we can speak of a shift from traditional to modern career contracts.

Terms used to refer to this new approach are the new social contract (Altman & Post, 1996), new deals (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995), the new psychological contract (Rousseau, 1995), the boundaryless career (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996) and the protean career (Hall, 1996). The

boundaryless career concept and the protean career concept are further discussed below, while the “career as a contract” will be addressed in section 4.2.

The boundaryless career

Career paths may involve sequences of job opportunities that go beyond the boundaries of single employment settings (Defillippi & Arthur, 1994, p. 307). These paths are called “boundaryless careers” and can be seen as the opposite of an organisational career. Within an organisational career, career steps are taken according to a determined organisation-internal career ladder. This is a career conceived to unfold in a single employment setting (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996, p. 6). In his book *The career is dead*, Hall (1996) points at the end of the organisational career. The boundaryless career is seen as the new employment principle for a new organisational era. The number of people with so-called “boundaryless careers” is growing (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996).

Mobility certainly does not always imply organisation-external mobility. People often move between business units *within* organisations. This will especially happen in large organisations with a division structure and which operate as loosely coupled systems. This kind of mobility results in a “hidden boundaryless career effect” (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). This effect does certainly not always come to the fore, since in many studies organisation-internal mobility is not taken into account.

People working in boundaryless organisations are expected to move seamlessly across levels and functions, through different kinds of jobs, and even from company to company (Mirvis & Hall, 1994, p. 366). Building networks of contacts and establishing and maintaining one’s employability are especially important. Therefore, people need to be flexible and self-managing their career development.

Career development in boundaryless careers may be more cyclical, involving period cycles of reskilling, than career development in traditional careers, which emphasised career stages and ladders and a lifetime career with one employer. Moreover, flattening of organisations makes a career according to the conventional meaning of the word, upward organisation-internal mobility, less likely. Therefore, new ways have to be found to retain and motivate staff. Modern career development will be marked by more lateral movement and culminate in a phased retirement (Mirvis & Hall, 1994, p. 368). As a consequence people will have to adjust their expectations about continuous upward mobility and career progress (Mirvis & Hall, 1994, p. 368).

The protean career

Hall (1996) explicitly focuses on the nature of careers as an element of the new employment relationship. He too emphasises the role of flexibility by introducing the term *protean* career (p. 1). The word “protean” has been derived from the name of the Greek sea god Proteus, who could transform himself at any moment into any creature he wished (Gerritsen van der Hoop & Thijssen, 1999, p. 190); protean stands for flexibility, which is so strongly needed for organisations and individuals. Flexibility of the workforce enables organisations to respond to opportunities and threats and to deal with fluctuating demand and supply. From the employee’s perspective it provides a better career prospect.

In his definition of a career, Hall assigns a central position to learning: “it is a series of lifelong work-related experiences and personal *learnings*” (1996, p. 1). Clearly a career is not only a series of steps taken, but encompasses more. Learning, then, is an important element of today’s career.

The protean career is a process which the person, not the organisation, is managing. Or, as Hall and Moss (1998, p. 24) put it: “If the old contract was with the organisation, the protean contract is with the self and one’s work”. It consists of all of the person’s varied experiences in education, training, work in several organisations, changes in occupational field, etc. The protean person’s own personal career

choices and search for self-fulfilment are the unifying or integrative elements in his or her life. The criterion of success is internal (psychological success), not external. Table 4.1. summarises the terms of the new contract based on the protean career.

Table 4.1. *The new protean career contract (Hall & Moss, 1998).*

1. The career is managed by the person, not the organisation;
2. The career is a lifelong series of experiences, skills, learnings, transitions, and identity changes (career age counts, not chronological age);
3. Development is continuous learning, self-directed, relational, and is found in work challenges;
4. Development is not (necessarily) formal training, retraining, or upward mobility;
5. The ingredients for success change from know-how to learn-how, job security to employability, organisational careers to protean careers, and "work self" to "whole self";
6. The organisation provides challenging assignments, developmental relationships, information and other developmental resources;
7. The goal is psychological success.

With Sullivan (1999, p. 477) we agree that it makes more sense to use the term 'protean' career to emphasise the individual's adaptability and self-direction when examining new career patterns. The term 'boundaryless' can better be used when examining careers from an organisational perspective.

Ball (1997), too, reports on changing assumptions about work and career development. The shift from traditional to emerging assumptions which Ball reports is compatible with the former descriptions of the shift from traditional to modern views on careers, and is partly overlapping. Ball adds some new assumptions (see Table 4.2.).

Table 4.2. *Traditional versus emerging assumptions about work (Ball, 1997, p. 75).*

Traditional assumption	Emerging assumption
Full employment is sustainable	Full employment is not likely to return in the foreseeable future
Most people follow a stable, straight-line career path to retirement	Career paths are increasingly going to be diverted and interrupted
Career development means upward mobility	Career development can be facilitated by lateral and downward moves
Only new or young employees can be developed	Learning and change can occur at any age and career stage
Career development relates primarily to work experience and can take place only in one's job	Career development is influenced by family, personal and community roles, and can be facilitated by work outside paid employment

New in this overview is the fact that family, personal and community roles are emphasised as well. Being able to find a balance between work and non-work is typically a career competence that is expected from the modern employee. Finally, we present the insightful overview of changes between traditional and boundaryless (or protean) careers by Sullivan (1999) in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3. *Traditional and boundaryless careers (Sullivan, 1999, p. 458).*

	Traditional	Boundaryless / modern
Employment relationship	Job security for loyalty	Employability for performance and flexibility
Boundaries	One or two firms	Multiple firms
Skills	Firm-specific	Transferable
Success measured by	Pay, promotion, status	Psychologically meaningful work
Responsibility for career management	Organisation	Individual
Training	Formal programmes	On the job
Milestones	Age-related	Learning-related

Sullivan (1999) explicates some major changes in HRD-related topics, such as the increased emphasis on transferable skills and on on-the-job training. Moreover, milestones have become learning-related, which matches the approach of Hall who also places learning central in the modern career. The conclusion that the responsibility for career management has shifted from the organisation to the individual is a crucial one in our study. The locus of career development responsibility will shift even more so to the individual in part because boundaryless organisations will not be able to meaningfully plan an employee's career (Mirvis & Hall, 1994, p. 369). Individuals will be truly on their own in developing a career.

Furthermore, he mentions the changed nature of employment relationships. While the traditional career is characterised by loyalty of the employee in exchange for job security offered by the employer, the new career is characterised by an exchange of performance and flexibility for continuing development opportunities and 'marketability' (Sullivan, 1999, p. 458).

Similar to Sullivan's observation, Herriot and Pemberton (1995) observe that the "old deal" has gone forever (p. 19) and has been replaced by "new deals". In the old deal employees offered loyalty, conformity, commitment and trust to the organisation in return for security of employment, promotion prospects, training and development and care in trouble. The new deal exchanges long hours, added responsibility, broader skills and tolerance of change and ambiguity for high pay, rewards for performance and a job.

These new employment relationships imply changed expectations of employees and employers. Individuals will have questions about how to further their career, and how to secure their future employment. Employers will ask themselves how to make sure that their workforce remains committed to their work and the organisation. The changed mutual expectations are included in the new psychological career contract, which will be further addressed in section 4.2.2.

Conclusion

The modern approach of careers is largely a result of changes in the labour market. Trends such as the availability of temporary contracts, quickly changing skill requirements, team-working, working as an independent contractor and working at home, have changed the nature of careers (Arnold, 1997, p. 447). Accordingly, demands placed on the flexibility of workers have increased.

The protean view of careers has both advantages and disadvantages (Mirvis & Hall, 1994). The first advantage is that it opens up new ways of thinking about work over time (p. 369). Careers may also bloom later and may be developed by moving between different (types of) jobs. A second advantage is what they call the enlargement of career space. Work and non-work may fluently merge when working at home is concerned. A third advantage is that the protean view is a new way to think about the relationship between employers and employees.

Disadvantages of a boundaryless career are the material and psychological costs. For example switching jobs may lead to less overall lifetime earnings. Moreover, costs of retraining and redeployment and the value of lost earnings have to be taken into account (Mirvis & Hall, 1994).

Moreover, new deals are not without problems since a discrepancy exists between the employer's stereotype of the "new employee" (containing ideas such as individualistic, not closely tied to the employer, job hoppers, etc.) and the "real new employee" (consider working relationship to be important, aim for security, etc.) (De Korte & Bolweg, 1994).

We conclude that when studying the significance of learning in new careers, it is important to pay attention to:

- competences needed in modern careers, the so-called modern career competences (4.1.2.);
- the level of career self-management (4.1.3.);
- employability as the new career goal and related concepts such as mobility and flexibility (4.1.4.);

- the changed meaning of mobility (4.1.5.);
- the value of transferable skills, or, in other words the generic value of HRD-activities (4.1.6.).

4.1.2. Modern career competences and activities

From time to time we have emphasised that employees need to take greater control of their own personal and career development. The question remains what this means more precisely. What are activities that people may undertake to develop their careers?

Several authors formulated sets of career competences. Mirvis and Hall (1994, p. 368), for example, argue that people's know-how, self-direction, and learn-how are core competencies for navigating within boundaryless career. Defillippi and Arthur (1994) distinguished between three career competencies: know-how (knowledge and skills), know-why (beliefs and identities) and know-whom (networks of relationships and contacts). These three career competencies are believed to be interrelated and to be different in nature in bounded and boundaryless careers. In bounded careers know-why is employer-dependent, know-how is largely specialised and know-whom is intra-organisational, hierarchic and prescribed. Boundaryless careers imply employer-independent know-why, flexible know-how and inter-organisation, non-hierarchic and emergent know-whom (Defillippi & Arthur, 1994, p. 317). When all career competencies are boundaryless, it is likely to result in inter-firm mobility. However, if one of them is bounded it may finally prevent a boundaryless career from unfolding.

Hall and Moss (1998) stress that in pursuing a protean career two meta-competencies are needed: adaptability and self-awareness. Adaptability is needed for people to react on changed demands in the environment. Without self-awareness adaptation would be only reactive and could be inconsistent with employees' personal values and goals. It is, however, not easy for employees to learn how to handle the autonomy of the protean career. It takes time and effort to develop these new (meta-) competencies related to the management of self and career.

Partly similar to the career competences mentioned above are the three types of work competences and employability skills Thijssen and Lankhuijzen describe (2000, p. 141):

- General working competences, which refer to the actual variety of jobs that people may fulfil with current qualifications (without additional schooling);
- Learning competences, which refer to someone's abilities to enlarge one's actual working competences;
- Career-related competences, which refer to someone's ability to actually use working competencies at the labour market. These include e.g. knowledge of the labour market, career planning skills and the ability to use job application techniques. Kuijpers (2001) describes self-reflection, work exploration, career control and self-presentation as important career development competencies.

The latter two types of competences (learning and career-related competences) are generally referred to as employability skills.

Related to the above competences are different employability strategies organisations may use. Three strategies can be distinguished which vary to the extent that competences are consumed, broadened or sold. They are respectively called the consuming strategy, the broadening strategy and the selling strategy (Thijssen, 2000; Lankhuijzen & Thijssen, 2000).

Organisations using the first strategy do not invest in training or education. They use the human potential and run the risk that one day the potential will be outdated. Mobility is primarily achieved by recruitment and selection. When organisations use the broadening strategy, they create conditions for employees to broaden and secure their employability opportunities. These organisations generally

offer a lot of specific and generic education and have large budgets and time available for the development of employability. Thirdly, a selling strategy is used by organisations that emphasise mobility. Resources are available for marketing of employees' actual available working competences. Note that it will almost never be the case that one single strategy is used. A mix of actions belonging to different strategies might be used as well, especially when a distinction is made between labour market segments. Furthermore, it is optimistic to think that organisations consciously plan such a strategy. A fourth "strategy" might therefore be an unplanned strategy, which is to defeat incidents (Lankhuijzen & Thijssen, 2000, p. 282).

Similarly, individual employees can employ the employability strategies organisations use. Employees, then, are consumers, broadeners or vendors of their own employability. Of course, both employers and employees have expectations about which strategy the other party will use. These expectations about the strategies that organisations and individuals choose to apply are part of the psychological contract.

Ball (1997) developed a model of career competences derived from the individual perspective (Figure 4.1.). It is relevant to those with boundaryless careers as well as to those with organisational careers. Such a model may serve as a starting point for people who want to take greater ownership of their career development.

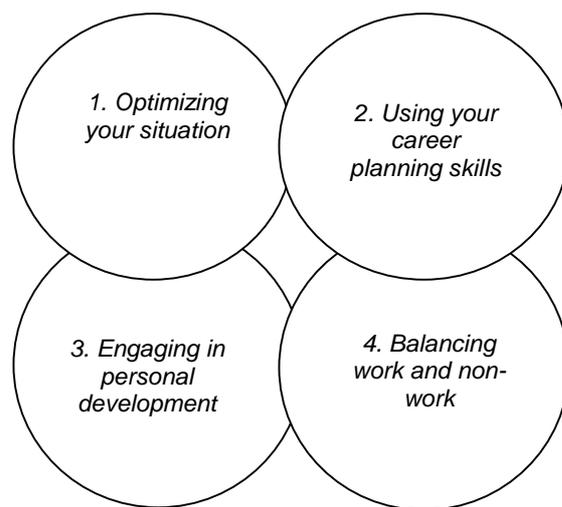


Figure 4.1. Four overlapping career competences (Ball, 1997, p. 76).

Below a description of the four distinguished domains of career development activities is given.

1. Optimizing the situation: The propensity of individuals to improve their lot, to find work which has greater interest, is better paid or more in accordance with their personal values. The question is how individuals can create the right set of circumstances to further their careers in the absence of career ladders and opportunities for upward career progression. It involves the ability to envision future opportunities and to create your own chances.

Examples: external networks, making use of mentors, projecting a positive self-image.

Delf and Smith (1978) describe the establishment of personal contacts as one of the individual strategies for self-development. It involves things such as getting your boss to let you represent him at top level meetings, joining key social groups and activities and "chatting up" the managing director's secretary (p. 496). This competence is largely parallel with Kuijpers' (2001) career competence self-presentation.

2. *Using career planning skills*: The process of career review and decision-making a cyclical, iterative process that we visit at frequent stages in our lives rather than a long-range plan. Career planning should help individuals to take ownership and management of their own career development. Examples: Reviewing needed skills, knowledge etc. for current job, identifying development needs, learn from experience and anticipating future changes.

3. *Engaging in personal development*¹: Many ways exist to work on one's personal development, ranging from on-the-job training, external secondments in a client company to participation in mentoring and coaching, resulting in greater job satisfaction and marketability for the internal and external labour market.

Examples: all kinds of activities on or off the job, mentoring, secondments, job rotation.

4. *Balancing work and non-work*: A new activity receiving much attention lately (Van Hoof, 2001). The ultimate goal is not only to balance personal and professional life, but also to integrate individual needs, family and career. It includes reflection upon current position and job satisfaction in the light of personal values. A clear parallel exists with Schein's career anchor "lifestyle" (1987).

Examples: child care or taking care of elderly person in combination with performing one's job, preventing stress at work to influence family life.

It is necessary for companies to respond to work/family issues. Examples are offering flextime, work-at-home options, part-time employment, job sharing and career breaks.

According to Mirvis and Hall (1994, p. 366) working people are struggling to manage the boundaries between work and other parts of their lives. Especially dual-career families face problems such as increased pressure on time allocation, the difficulty of finding time for family activities, and the sharing of household tasks (Isaacson & Brown, 1997, p. 65). Mastering the competence of combining work and non-work is therefore so important.

But, at the same time, trying to balance work and family responsibilities may have a negative influence on reputation, advancement potential and income. A family supportive policy of employers is therefore a key consideration in job choice (Mirvis & Hall, 1994, p. 372).

Moreover, in everyday life this attention can be clearly noticed. Both from government campaigns, conferences and from discussions in the newspapers, it becomes clear that this is an essential aspect to manage in order to develop one's career accordingly. For example, it is reported in a newspaper article (*Trouw*, 7 September 2000, p. 17) that personal care for work and private life is an essential element of organisations' personnel policies and in particular its HRD-policies. This aspect is closely related to people's personal values and norms and it refers to normative and ethic matters, which may well counterbalance the prevailing short-term focus of economy.

Depending on the orientation that people have towards career success, more or less emphasis will be laid on these four career competences. Derr (1986) describes five orientations: 1. Getting ahead (upward mobility), 2. Seeking security, 3. Being free or autonomous, 4. Getting high (seeking challenge and stimulation) and 5. Getting balanced (combining personal and family life with career achievement). These orientations may change over the course of the years.

Furthermore, across these domains of career development the extent to which managers accept responsibility and take own initiative will vary. Individuals with rather traditional views on careers will have another approach to these activities than individuals who see their career through the eyes of a

¹ The term "personal development" is sometimes viewed as not labour-related development (e.g. following piano lessons). However, as a career competence we regard personal development as directly related to work. In order to prevent confusion we will rename this competence into "shaping learning opportunities" (see section 5.3.3.2.).

so-called post-modern nomad (Van der Zee, 1994). In the next section we will further address the meaning of self-management in modern careers.

4.1.3. Individual self-management and organisational support

We will first address the concept of self-management and the individual's actions (4.1.3.1.) and then we will focus our attention on the organisational responsibility for supplying support for career self-management of their employees (4.1.3.2.).

4.1.3.1. Individual career self-management

Earlier we concluded that self-management is an important attitude in modern careers. Competitive pressures are clearly leading organisations to place greater demands on employees for "increased commitment, initiative, and flexibility (Schor as cited in McLean Parks & Kidder, 1994, p. 112). Moreover, organisations will not be able to manage and plan their employees' careers. Apparently, an employee-centered approach replaced the traditional employer-centered approach towards career management. The role of the employer is to provide opportunities and (people) resources in order for employees to develop their adaptability and their identity (Hall & Moss, 1998).

Apparently, the division of responsibilities, and the roles according to them, have drastically changed with the introduction of modern careers. The emphasis has shifted from organisational career management to individual career planning (Gutteridge & Otte, 1983; Hall, 1986; Thijssen, 1995). Organisations used to direct employees, send them to courses on a regular basis and plan their career path. Obviously, there was little room for self-regulation by individual employees. Now, these are typical responsibilities for employees themselves.

Meggison (1996), too, detected "a progressive move in the locus of responsibility for careers": from the HRD-department, via the line manager and the mentor, towards the learners (or employees) themselves (p. 413).

Especially managers are expected to take control of their own careers, instead of waiting for the organisation to manage their careers. In general, managers score higher on these traits (such as self-management and initiative) than non-managers (Durr *et al.*, 1996).

The ultimate goal for employees is to be in charge of their own careers, which places great demands on their motivation. Fortunately most employees seem to be willing to adjust their career expectations from "the organisation should provide for my career" to "the organisation should provide for circumstances in which I can work on my own employability", if the employer indeed provides possibilities in this respect (Schalk & Freese, 1997, p. 120). Initiative is important for employability (Van Dam, 1999). This autonomous, self-started and proactive posture and behaviour is found to relate positively to employees' employability behaviour. People with more initiative are more inclined to act and make the necessary moves than people with less initiative.

Hall remarks that "just as employees have become more self-directed and empowered in their work, so too are they becoming more autonomous as agents of their own career development" (Hall, 1996, p. 335). These are positive sounds. A new reality of career management has emerged.

Self-management applied to management development is often referred to as management self-development. It is often advocated as an appropriate form of management development (Beardwell & Holden, 1994), it may lead to positive results for both individuals and the organisations they work for.

Delf and Smith (1978, p. 495) define self-development as "the process by which individuals identify their personal development goals, consciously take responsibility for planning and taking appropriate action to reach these goals, develop and use methods of monitoring progress and assess outcomes and re-assess goals in the light of new experiences".

Other actions individuals can take are self-assessment, understanding one's learning style, gathering information (e.g. about what is going on in the organisation), establishing personal contacts and seeking feedback on personal behaviour and effectiveness (p. 496). All these actions aim to benefit self-development. The self-developer not only wants to master skills but also to explore and play; he or she seeks knowledge but also balance between work and other life pursuits (Rousseau, 1995, p. 216).

The strength of a self-development approach is that self-developers can also survive under unsympathetic conditions. It seems that individuals who know what they want and how to get it will always do better than those who do not, even when the latter are provided with better opportunities (Delf & Smith, 1978, p. 495). It is likely that through self-development career prospects and performance are improved and that managers achieve their full potential. Moreover, the promotion of a strategy of self-development results in greater organisational flexibility and better cost effectiveness (Beardwell & Holden, 1994).

Although self-management has been emphasised especially recently, authors were already promoting strategies for self-development (Delf & Smith, 1978) in the Seventies, which denotes both "of self" and "by self" types of learning (Pedler as cited in Beardwell & Holden, 1994).

There is also a danger in the concept of self-development because different perceptions of employee responsibility exist. Self-development may refer to the responsibility of all to learn and develop themselves, without making the division of responsibilities between different parties explicit. But it may as well refer to self-development as a total responsibility of the learner, thus freeing the organisation from any responsibility and investment (Hall & Moss, 1998; Herriot & Pemberton, 1995). Recipients of self-development policies could well perceive this development as "removal of what little training they get" (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995, p. 10). It is difficult for individuals to do everything on their own (Mirvis & Hall, 1994). Consequently, it is important for others to be around for support. Fortunately, many employers see a responsibility for providing the resources and opportunities for (core) employees to grow and develop in their careers.

To conclude, it needs effort from both individual employees and organisations (including staff departments such as Training & Development) for self-development to take place.

These individual and organisational efforts may be directed at career competences and activities as described in section 4.1.2. Hanemaaijer (2000) specifically focused on self-management as a *learning* attitude. We choose a broader focus: self-management with regard to all kinds of career development activities, which we indicate as career self-management, like Van Tiem & West (1997) do. Consequently, individuals are assumed to take responsibility for activities such as optimising the situation, career planning, personal development and balancing work and non-work. Beside actions that individuals may take, organisations should accept an active role in the promotion of career self-management by their employees. When employees' self-management is supported by the organisation, it will thus have most successful results when a mutual approach is chosen (Maris, 1994). The organisation, then, is supposed to support employees' self-management with regard to these career domains.

4.1.3.2. *Organisational support for individual career self-management*

Hall and Moss (1998) hold it to be the employer's role to "provide opportunities for continuous learning, which will result in the creation of employability (and thus a degree of security) for the employee".

Organisational support may be more or less materialistic. We will discuss several kinds of support that employers may give, both mentally and in terms of concrete facilities.

It is especially the manager, as a representative of the organisation, who can directly influence the career development of employees and their views on career-related issues. In section 4.2.5. we explicitly address the relation between manager and subordinate. Here we will make more general remarks about how an organisation may handle their responsibility with regard to their employees' career development.

Hall and Moss (1998) list a number of interventions that can be undertaken to accelerate the process towards a protean view of a career and to facilitate employees' career development. These interventions vary largely to the extent to which they represent vague notions or concrete facilities.

They recommend to start with the recognition that the individual "owns" the career. Consequently, organisations should encourage their managers to take more responsibility and control of their own development. Furthermore, they stress to recognise that career development is a relational process in which the organisation and career practitioners play a "broker" role and to favour the "learner identity" over job mastery. These are all rather vague recommendations. More concrete recommendations are to create information and support for the individual's own efforts at development, to provide expertise on career information and assessment technology, integrated with career coaching and consulting, to provide excellent communication with employees about career services and the new career contract and to promote learning through relationships and work.

Some of these interventions refer to a kind of needed culture change. It goes without saying that in order to actually reach effect, quite some effort and time is needed.

By offering development opportunities employers try to retain and motivate staff (Ball, 1997, p. 77). It serves as a compensation for the decreased amount of vertical career opportunities and the absence of lifetime employment. Development opportunities may consist of new work challenges (e.g. by job rotation programmes) and relationships that foster growth (Hall & Moss, 1998). Relationships are excellent drivers for learning. In the contacts with people from different parts of the organisation and from lower to higher echelons, precious resources can be found for continuous learning. For example, co-workers, older employees, bosses, subordinates and customers may serve as key learning resources. Other examples of support by others are counselling, mentoring and coaching as assisted self-development. Experienced managers may operate as "self-development ambassadors" and share the personal strategies and tactics they themselves have adopted. Teaching and training less fit this approach; the emphasis will shift towards (self-directed) learning (Delf & Smith, 1978, p. 499). In addition, supportive instruments for self-development are networking, team structures, analysing changes in the organisation as departure for self-development, establishing a good learning climate, actually give managers freedom and room to develop and taking away obstacles that are in the way. It is advocated to have a staff position fulfilled by a development adviser who can play the role of integrator of top management's self-development initiatives and individual managers' initiatives (Delf & Smith, 1978). Jackson (as cited in Ball, 1997) adds various strategies that employers may adopt, such as career workshops, development centres and succession planning.

Just as employees are assumed to take initiative and responsibilities with regard to career competences and activities, organisations should provide mental support and facilities with regard to the same career competences and activities. Support for optimising the employee's situation could contain the introduction by superiors to important network contacts; a workshop on career planning can support career planning; budget and coaching with regard to training stands for support for personal development; finally, support for combining work and non-work could for example consist of the opportunity to work part-time and facilities for child care.

In sum, career self-management by employees has become an important theme in the field of HRD. Self-management skills of employees are emphasised, especially with regard to career development. A self-management attitude appears from the fact that people take responsibility and show initiative with regard to their career development. Related terms such as self-direction, self-management and initiative will be used as synonyms. The organisation plays an important role in the stimulation of employees' career self-management by the provision of all kinds of facilities.

We will now shift our attention to employability as the new career goal and to employability-related concepts such as mobility and flexibility.

4.1.4. Employability, mobility and flexibility

Employability, mobility and flexibility are closely related concepts. Organisations' need for flexibility is apparent. In order for organisations to operate flexibly, they need "flexibility of work" and/or "flexibility of workers" (Van der Zwaan, 1993; Van Hoof in De Jong, *et al.*, 1990). Flexibility usually refers to the degree of latitude available in the organisation (with regard to allocation of products, machines and workplaces), while mobility refers to the flow of individuals along sequences of jobs (Rosenbaum, 1984, p. 38), or as Van der Zwaan (1993) describes it, the moves that workers make from one function or task to another, or from one hierarchical position to another.

In his description of the flexible firm, Atkinson (1984) makes a distinction between different labour market segments. Each segment is directed at another type of flexibility. Core workers (the primary segment) provide organisations with functional flexibility (ability to change functions, jobs, etc.). In general, organisations invest most in the development of the primary segment. In this way they make core workers broadly employable and at the same time they try to tie them to the organisation. Investments in the core segment are intended to result in organisation-internal mobility. Periphery workers (the secondary segment) contribute to the organisation's numerical flexibility. This group of workers have part-time contracts and are more loosely linked to the organisation. It concerns a more flexible labour relation. The third segment consists of external workers (freelancers and agency workers) which provide economic flexibility to the organisation. Depending on the need for personnel, organisations may quickly hire and fire personnel. Organisations may reach optimal flexibility when they make use of these three segments.

Mobility can be seen as a function of flexibility (functional and numerical). In this study, we are especially interested in the functional flexibility of workers, which especially innovative organisations need (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995). Conceptually, flexibility and employability are largely similar. Individual employability and flexibility are needed for personnel mobility and thus organisational flexibility.

Employability is of high importance in careers of today. "Notions of cradle-to-grave job security have been shattered" (Mirvis & Hall, 1994). Consequently, the idea of "life time employment" has been replaced by "life time employability" (Lankhuijzen & Thijssen, 2000; Versloot, Glaudé & Thijssen, 1998). Employability constitutes the context within which people learn and develop; it is the new career goal (Altman & Post, 1996, p. 3). The crucial importance of employability for employees under the new contract of today appears from one of the possible scenarios that when employees develop themselves insufficiently, they are expected to leave the organisation (Gaspersz & Ott, 1996).

Employability can be defined in a narrow or a broad sense (Lankhuijzen & Thijssen, 2000). The core of almost all employability definitions is "the whole of actually available personal qualities to adequately carry out a diversity of (paid) tasks and jobs at internal and external labour markets".

Personal competences and potential are the key elements in this narrower definition. Broader definitions of employability also include personal opportunities to extend one's qualifications or competences for the labour market. The broadest definitions may even include contextual factors, organisation-internal and external, that may influence personnel deployment. The danger of using a narrower definition of employability is that organisations might see the maintenance and development of employment as an exclusive responsibility of their employees. Only limited facilities or no facilities at all will then be offered for employees' career development.

Employability is particularly important because of its influence on employment in the future (Gerritsen Van der Hoop & Thijssen, 1999). Employment can be defined at the level of society, of organisations and of the individual (Thijssen, 1997b)². Versloot, Glaudé and Thijssen (1998) found that during the last three decades attention has shifted from employment at the societal, via the organisational to the individual level. They characterise the Nineties as the years of 'flexibility of workers' (Versloot *et al.*, 1998). Like them, more authors stress the central role of the individual in career development (e.g. Hall, 1996; Lankhuijzen, 2000a; Megginson, 1996; Sullivan, 1999; Van Tiem & West, 1997). Individual employees are held responsible for finding or keeping an attractive job. Although the roles of the government and organisations have decreased, they still need to make efforts to reach the appealing situation of flexible employment (e.g. the society needs to take care of a fair juridical system and organisations need to stimulate employee mobility). The greatest effort, however, has to come from employees themselves.

Employable workers are characterised by the willingness to be educated and by qualitative and quantitative flexibility and geographical mobility readiness (Thijssen, 1995). More precisely, they are willing to continuously learn new things and broaden their skills and knowledge for example by following courses and carrying out self-directed learning activities. The qualitative flexibility refers to the ability to carry out jobs within a broad range of jobs within a certain domain (e.g. financial jobs). Quantitative flexibility refers to the willingness to have flexible working hours, meaning that availability during evenings and weekends can be desired. Employable employees are able to be mobile whenever necessary or desired. It is a normal thing for employable employees to be prepared to regularly change jobs.

Hall (1996) assumes that personal and contextual background factors may influence someone's employability opportunities. Educational activities may enlarge the range of jobs for which one is ready to be employed. Thus, employee flexibility is something that can be developed. This idea is represented as well in the employability link model (Thijssen, 1997b; 1998b). This model organises several employability(-related) aspects. The model includes employability predictors (such as ascriptive, dispositional and experiential characteristics), current employability (tasks that can be fulfilled adequately with current competences), conditions for employability broadening and employability consumption (personal and contextual influences on broadening and consumption of employability) and future employment (consequences for employment at the individual, organisational and societal level).

² At the societal level employment refers to "full" employment, a job for everyone. Viewed from an organisational perspective, employment refers to the allocation of people over jobs in an attempt to balance demand and supply.

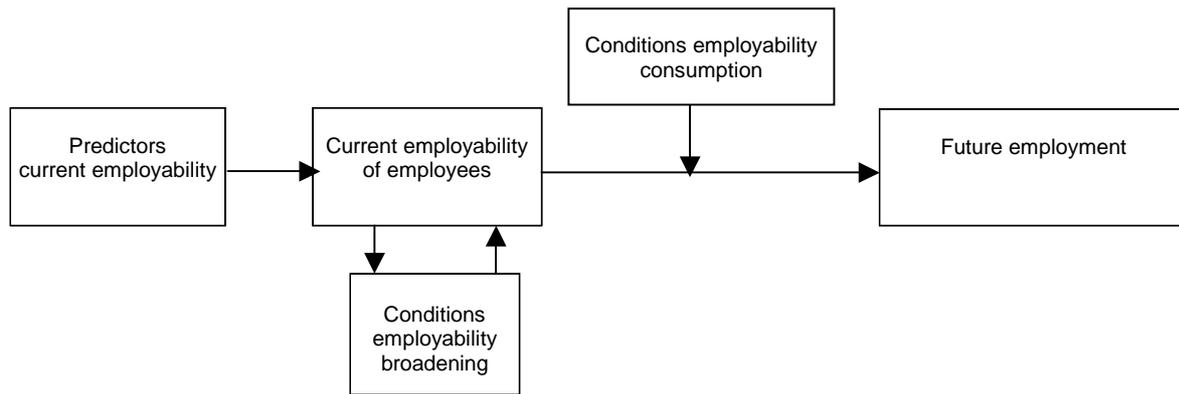


Figure 4.2. Employability link model (Thijssen, 1998b).

In our study we do not include all aspects of individual employability (such as geographical mobility readiness and quantitative flexibility). It is therefore not appropriate to use the term employability. Instead, it is rather the qualitative flexibility we put central. We chose to further refer to this kind of flexibility as the employee's "mobility perspective". A good of favourable mobility perspective stands for a realistic chance that actual mobility will take place, based on ability and willingness of an individual to be mobile. In the next section we will further address the mobility perspective issue (4.1.5.).

4.1.5. Implications of modern careers for mobility perspective

In the former section we addressed the employability concept and argued that this is closely related to concepts such as flexibility and mobility. In our study, the perspective that people have on mobility (= mobility perspective) is seen as a major outcome of career-related activities. We therefore first need to explain what mobility is.

Several kinds of mobility have been distinguished in literature. Personnel mobility may both refer to turnover or organisation-external mobility and to organisation-internal mobility. These types of mobility refer to a change of position. Based on the hierarchical levels of the initial and new position towards which mobility takes place, Schoemaker and Geerdink (1991, p. 59) distinguish between vertical, horizontal, diagonal and radial mobility. Vertical mobility is a move towards a job on a higher hierarchical level. Horizontal mobility refers to another job at the same hierarchical level (DiPrete, 1987). Whereas traditional personnel management was focused at vertical mobility, more modern personnel management takes into account various forms of mobility. Diagonal mobility is a combination of vertical and horizontal mobility. Finally, radial mobility is the consequence of task enrichment and/or task deepening. Apparently, mobility does not always refer to a change of position but can also mean a change of tasks and thus refer to flexibilisation and employability.

Van der Zwaan (1993) presents a limited and a broader definition of the mobility concept. Mobility in the limited sense refers to the moves workers make inside the firm, e.g. the transfer of individuals (or groups) from one function or task to another, or from one hierarchical position to another. The broader definition refers to mobility in the sense of inter-professional or inter-vocational, inter-firm transfers (migration) between sectors and/or geographical areas, or from working to non-working life, and vice versa. Clearly, the broader definition of mobility better fits a modern view on careers. Furthermore, mobility may refer to operational (changing tasks and jobs), positional (changing positions) and structural moves (mobility of collectivities out of the workforce). Our focus will be on the positional mobility.

Carnevale *et al.* (1990a) predict that a person will change jobs on average five to seven times during his or her work life (p. 273). Obviously, this is an average number, because patterns of career change vary from person to person (Bronte, 1997). Bronte describes three groups of people, the

homesteaders, the transformers and the explorers. The first make no career changes during their career lives, the second make one major change at some point in time and the third change careers frequently at varying intervals. Especially this latter group of people seem to have a modern type of career. They enter a job, come to mastery and then move on to another job to seek a new challenge. Under the new career contract, ideas about career progress have altered. It is not so much vertical mobility that makes a career to a success. Fulfilment in one's job, psychological success, can well be reached by horizontal mobility. Therefore, lateral moves are increasingly valued. Of course, these moves may concern organisation-internal and external career steps.

What, then, is the perspective that one can have on mobility? In general a "perspective" entails a certain future orientation and refers to a likelihood that something will happen. Likewise, we define mobility perspective as the possibility that a transition towards another job will take place within a certain period of time. That is towards another job at the same or another level, both within or outside the current department (business unit) or organisation.

From an individual point of view, the question remains what employees need in order to have a chance of mobility. Two components are important: willingness and ability (Van der Velde & Van den Berg, 1999). According to expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) both being able and willing are necessary to be motivated to take a certain action. The existence of one of both is not sufficient for mobility to occur.

The ability component refers to the employee's ability to fulfil another job inside or outside the department or organisation at the same or at a higher level with his/her current competences. In this respect, skills, knowledge and attitudes are important indicators for the range of jobs that somebody would be able to fulfil adequately. The level of competence limits the range of jobs. We will further refer to this ability component as the "*mobility scope*".

A distinction can be made between vertical and horizontal mobility scope and between organisation-internal and external mobility scope. There are no explicit expectations about the interrelations of the various kinds of mobility scope.

The willingness component refers to the employee's motivation or readiness to fulfil another job inside or outside the department or organisation at the same or at a higher level. This willingness component will be further referred to as the "*pursuit of mobility*"³.

A distinction can be made between willingness to be mobile towards another job inside or outside the current organisation. Reasons behind pursuing organisation-internal or external mobility are diverse. External mobility may for example be looked for as a result of dissatisfaction with the current job, department or organisation (push factors), or because of the availability of a very attractive job outside the organisation (pull factors). In literature contradictory assumptions have been described about the relation between these two types of pursuit of mobility.

Boom and Metselaar (1993) expected the pursuit of internal mobility to be negatively related to the pursuit of external mobility. It is supposed that the pursuit of mobility of employees is rather specific. One is willing to be either internally or externally mobile. This hypothesis, however, was only partly confirmed. In contrast, Wit *et al.* (1993) demonstrated a strong positive correlation between internal and external mobility plans (Pearson's $r=.63$). We will study this relationship rather exploratively, although we intuitively assume that people may possess a general attitude representing a need to be mobile, whether internal or external. In our view, these two kinds of pursuit of mobility may well be positively related. We do, however, not explicitly formulate a hypothesis with regard to this interrelationship.

³ The term "pursuit" represents an active attitude of employees in the light of job mobility.

Beside the distinction between organisation-internal and organisation-external pursuit of mobility, pursuit may be distinguished according to the extent to which it is directed at positions at the same or at higher hierarchical levels. This is further referred to as the “verticality of pursuit”. Since vertical mobility is not the only relevant direction for a modern career move (horizontal mobility is equally important) the verticality of pursuit will be analysed, though it will not be emphasised. Furthermore, it is not part of the mobility perspective. As such, verticality of pursuit is addressed for exploratory purposes only.

4.1.5.1. *The relation between mobility scope and pursuit of mobility*

A positive relation is assumed between the ability and the willingness to become mobile. Whether the ability influences the motivation or the other way around or whether they mutually affect each other is not yet clear and will be studied.

Several authors have written about the influence ability has on willingness. Mensink and Schoemakers (1995) found that a large employability leads to new mobility behaviour. The broader the scope of job opportunities in terms of capabilities, the more roads are open to travel on. Accordingly, Wit *et al.* (1993) state that perceived career opportunities inside and outside the organisation influence people’s plans or intentions with regard to mobility, next to other things such as dissatisfaction and organisational commitment. More specifically, Boom and Metselaar (2001) found a positive relation between internal employability (= ability) and intention for internal job mobility. Accordingly, not being capable of fulfilling another job within the organisation (low ability) is related to a higher organisation-external turnover intention. The general idea behind this relation seems to be that when people possess certain abilities, they are eager to utilise them. This counts even more for people who judge themselves largely capable of fulfilling jobs at a higher level. They will strive for higher job positions. Then, a positive relation is expected between vertical mobility scope and verticality of pursuit. In an opposite situation with only restricted possibilities with the current employer, this may well be reason for an externally focused mobility intention (Evers, 1996).

Fewer reasons can be found to propose hypotheses with regard to an influence of willingness on ability.

Boom and Metselaar (2001, p. 24) found partial support for the hypothesis that a larger mobility willingness relates to a larger internal deployment. We assume that a high motivation for mobility could lead only to a higher mobility ability, by gaining new information about one's capabilities. This could work for example because people who are motivated to find another job will be inclined to search for information on the internal and external labour market and are likely to be engaged in all kinds of (self-)assessment, through which they could become conscious of the fact that their potential is larger than they initially thought. Since we did not find support for this line of reasoning in literature, we will exploratively study this relationship. We will not formulate a hypothesis with regard to this influence.

4.1.6. Implications of modern careers for learning

Because of the recent emphasis on employability and the changed expectations within the *new* psychological career contract, certain types of HRD-activities are valued more than others.

In section 4.1.1. we concluded that beside the fact that career milestones have become learning-related instead of age-related, we also saw that transferable skills in contrast with job and organisation-specific skills are increasingly valued. The learning processes and activities needed, then, have changed too. Today, success depends not only on the specific knowledge, but rather on the ability to quickly adopt and generate new knowledge and developments and to handle changing circumstances (Kolb, 1976). As a consequence, generic HRD-activities, contributing to transferable

skills and knowledge have become crucial because they bring forth the so much needed flexibility of the workforce. Inclusion of this dimension in employability research is required.

Secondly, the career of the future is a continuous learning process (Hall & Moss, 1998). And continuously learning employees are essential for an organisation to be a continuously improving business (p. 31). Learning becomes an everyday activity increasingly integrated into work. We may assume that the *frequency* of HRD-activities⁴ is also an essential dimension.

Thirdly, HRD-activities carried out in the light of one's career development at least need a certain level of *planning*. HRD-activities need to be adjusted to set career goals. One cannot afford to leave one's development up to chance. We therefore assume that planning is a third important dimension of new learning. The assumption is that consciously planned HRD-activities will have more effect on desired career development than HRD-activities coincidentally met on the job. Moreover, modern employees will not wait for the organisation to manage their careers and therefore they will plan their HRD-activities themselves.

In sum, important dimensions of modern HRD-activities are level of generic value, frequency and planning. These three dimensions of new learning together will be referred to as the *broader HRD-pattern*. We will first explain the importance of the dimension generic value of HRD-activities, which we view as the key dimension of learning in a modern career. This dimension will be referred to as the *narrower HRD-pattern* (see chapter 5 for further details).

4.1.6.1. *Generic value of HRD-activities*

Several authors within the field of HRD, both with academic and practical backgrounds, conclude that it is especially the generic value of education and learning that positively influences employability (Jelsma, 1989; Thijssen, 1997a; Wolf, Fotheringham & Grey, 1990). Other arguments in favour of more generic HRD-activities argue that it makes employees more mobile and consequently less restricted to a small occupational domain, and that general skills are supposed to become more and more valuable due to the flexibilisation of the labour market (De Wolf, 2000, p. 151).

Specific and generic learning cannot be easily distinguished. Rather, they are extremes of one continuum. Whereas specific HRD-activities refer to knowledge and skills to be applied in only one specific situation, generic HRD-activities apply to broadly applicable knowledge and skills that can be used independently to deal with new problems in a wider range of tasks, jobs and organisations.

The model of the spinning-top (see Figure 4.3.) illustrates the value of generic learning over specific learning (Thijssen, 1988; 1997a). Generic learning is directed at productive skills with emphasis on far transfer. Specific learning is directed at reproductive skills and emphasises near transfer.

⁴ The extent to which time and energy is spent on HRD-activities.

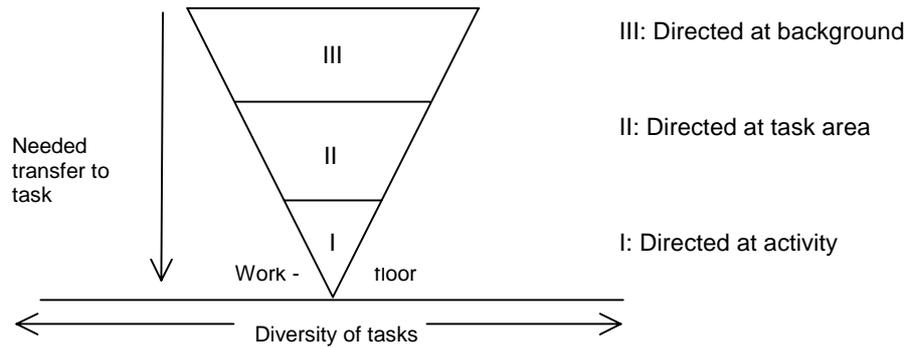


Figure 4.3. Spinning-top (Thijssen, 1988, p. 125).

The metaphor of a spinning-top on the work floor is used to show people's available know-how. The know-how specifically related to the current work context is situated at the bottom of the spinning-top; the more general know-how, applicable in various (future) work contexts, is situated in the upper part of the top. From the figure it can be seen that the transfer of generic education is larger, but at the same time it has a much broader domain for application (high risk / high return). In contrast, it is easier to use specific know-how in the workplace, but the applicability is restricted to a smaller, domain (low risk / low return) (Thijssen, 1997a, p. 27).

The generic value of HRD-activities thus indicates the extent to which these activities have meaning for future job opportunities. An exception to the rule that generic HRD-activities lead to better career prospects than specific HRD-activities is, of course, when one has a specific future job in mind for which certain specific technical skills are required. Then, specific learning will most likely lead to an entry into the desired job. For managers, striving for other management jobs, generic competences give best career opportunities.

Economists have long argued that the *returns on general education* are higher than those on specific training, because education is *transferable* whereas many skills tend to be job-specific (Bishop, 1998). The advantage of generic over specific education, however, is based on false premises, one of which is the assumption that academic skills are good substitutes for occupation-specific skills. Even though specific HRD-activities are expected to have a relatively small contribution to employability, it does not mean that specific education is redundant. It is better to state that at least generic education is *also* needed in case employability is strived for (Thijssen, 1997a, p. 28).

Especially for organisations and employees who choose to follow a broadening employability strategy (see section 4.1.4.) generic HRD-activities are emphasised. Through the adaptation of a broadening strategy, organisations externalise their employees (that is, make them less embedded in the organisation, or a specific business unit) by investing in skills and knowledge that are general and applicable in multiple settings/organisations (Rousseau, 1995, p. 104). These employees become outsiders. When they are only bound to the organisation for a short term, they are typically independent contractors. The opposite type, employees who are bound to the organisation for a long term and who are insiders (possessing organisation-specific skills and knowledge) are the core workers.

In Figure 4.4. types of workers are identified on the basis of the level of internalisation and externalisation and short and long-term relationships.

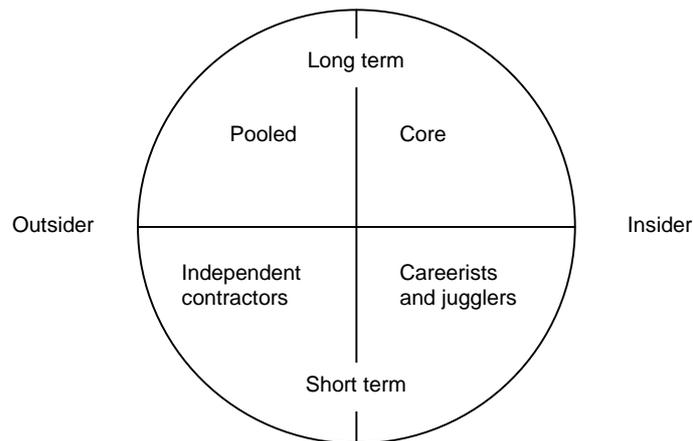


Figure 4.4. Attachment map (Rousseau, 1995, p. 105).

According to the human capital theory, organisations will especially invest in training when it will increase productivity. When making training investment decisions, employers are comparing the costs they incur to the increase in productivity (net of resulting wage increases) of the workers expected to remain at the firm. Benefits received by other employers (risk of poaching) or the worker will have zero weight in their calculation. The result inevitably is under-investment (from society's point of view) in employer training that develops general skills (Bishop, 1998, p. 31). Organisations are inclined to invest primarily in organisation and job-specific training. Since generic education is of high importance for organisation-internal mobility, organisations meet a dilemma usually referred to as the prisoners' dilemma (Gerritsen Van der Hoop & Thijssen, 1999).

The preference for investments in specific training primarily comes from line managers focused on short-term production for which a specifically educated and highly productive workforce is required. Top management usually prefers an employable workforce for which generic education is required and which shows results in the long term (Thijssen, 1997a, p. 29; Leenders & Van Esch, 1995). Other factors that play a role in this are e.g. line managers' fear of poaching (to lose good employees to other departments or even other companies), the risk that the transfer of generic education to application in the workplace cannot be made, and the long period of time needed to see results of investments in generic training (Thijssen, 1990).

Effects of educational specialisation on labour market success (e.g. mobility and flexibility) were studied by De Wolf (2000). She concludes that field specialists (relatively broadly developed) as opposed to vocational specialists (relatively specifically developed) estimate to be more mobile and flexible. Field specialists think they can still move to all sides and are able to quickly settle into another job; they expect to be broadly employable in the forthcoming years and to change profession, job and employer more often.

It seems that especially in the section of the labour market for which no specific qualifications (such as with regard to medical and law-related professions) or knowledge about a certain field (e.g. health care or minorities) is required, generic qualifications and personal characteristics are important for selection and labour market success. This goes for our study in which managers are involved. In this general segment of the labour market generic competencies are highly valuable. Moreover, compared to the vocational and field-specific segments, the flexibility is assumed to be highest. This is also called the flexibility hypothesis (De Wolf, 2000, p. 38).

4.1.7. Background characteristics

First we will describe the expectations we have about the relation between individual background factors and the HRD-pattern (4.1.7.1.). Secondly, the hypotheses with regard to the relation between background factors and the mobility perspective will be described (4.1.7.2.).

4.1.7.1. Background characteristics and HRD-pattern

In chapter 2 we addressed the relation between background characteristics and learning. We focused on the frequency of formal and informal HRD-activities in particular. In this chapter we argued that it is not only frequency, but also generic value and planning of HRD-activities that are major dimensions of learning in modern careers. We will therefore add hypotheses to the new dimensions and will partly refer to chapter 2 for already formulated hypotheses (section 2.3).

We will now describe hypotheses on: a) Age, b) Educational level, c) management level, and d) job expiration. We will conclude with some comments on the relation between gender and HRD-pattern.

Ad a. Age and HRD-pattern

With regard to generic value of HRD-activities, it is expected that younger people learn in a more generic way than older people. Younger employees will have to develop their careers and will try to enlarge their chances for other jobs as much as they can. They will work on their employability security by learning broadly, since job security under the new contract no longer exists.

In addition, the experience concentration theory says that with the years there is an increasing amount of experience and a decreasing variability of these experiences (Thijssen, 1992c). As a result, when time goes by employees master a narrower domain at which they feel more and more at ease. The positive effect is that they can easily carry out their job in a routine way. The negative side of this is that in times in which changes occur on a daily basis and at a rapid pace, it becomes increasingly difficult to master new domains outside the domain one is so familiar with. Concentration of experience limits individual flexibility.

Younger people are likely to plan their HRD-activities to a larger extent than older people. Since younger people are still at the beginning of their career, there is still a relatively long period of time available to reach career goals. Especially younger employees will have to plan their development activities, thus enlarging their chances of actually reaching their goals. In sum, we expect a negative relation between planning of HRD-activities and age.

Ad b. Educational level and HRD-pattern

A positive relation is expected between educational level and generic value of HRD-activities. Academic people are used to be educated broadly. It is likely for them to follow this habit to learn broadly when employed in an organisation. This is in contrast with people who are specifically educated for a certain profession, who will be inclined to even more specialise in their job.

Educational level is also expected to relate positively to planning of HRD-activities. An argument in favour of this expectation is that higher educated people are usually more prepared to actively pursue a certain career path. Overall they have a clearer picture of future career goals and are prepared to put effort in planned HRD-activities.

Ad c. Management level and HRD-pattern

Managerial jobs increase in breadth, complexity, visibility and amount of external interfaces as one moves up the hierarchy (McCauley, 1994, p. 547). Not surprisingly, the position that somebody holds has a significant relation with development activity (e.g. Kozlowski & Farr, 1988; McEnrue, 1989; Noe & Wilk, 1993). The explanation for this relation is sought in the influence of management level on employees' opportunities to participate in development opportunities (Noe & Wilk, 1993, p. 292).

Employees at higher levels have more opportunities to learn, as a consequence of the nature of their work (degrees of freedom, task variety and stimulating networks) (e.g. Tuijnman, 1989; Thijssen, 1996) than employees at lower, operational, levels. This goes for both formal and informal HRD-activities (Thijssen, 1996, p. 62). The working climate at lower job levels is suggested to offer fewer opportunities to informally acquire new qualifications (Thijssen, 1996, p. 47).

Several authors found the level of responsibility to be a major factor in triggering learning opportunities (e.g. Kelleher *et al.*, 1986; McCall *et al.*, 1988). McCauley *et al.* (1994) put forward that level of responsibility, as a task-related characteristic, forms a developmental component of a managerial job. We therefore expect that management level is positively related to learning, especially with regard to *frequency* of HRD-activities. Additionally, since higher management levels make broadly applicable competences necessary, we also expect a positive relation with generic value of HRD-activities. The relation with planning of HRD-activities is less clear.

Ad d. Job expiration and HRD-pattern

A positive relation is expected between job expiration and the use of HRD-activities. Managers who expect that their job will expire within a certain period of time are expected to use more HRD-activities than managers who do not expect a job loss in the near future. Moreover, these HRD-activities are likely to be more generic and planned, since they are intended to prepare for a next job. In this way the chance of finding a new job is enlarged.

Gender and HRD-pattern

In most HRD-researches gender is included since it is supposed to have a certain effect on expertise development (Van der Heijden & Rietdijk, 1996). It is, however, not evident how HRD-activities are affected by gender. Some findings are, for example, that women (between the ages 35 and 44) plan more than men of the same age (Megginson, 1996, p. 422). Moreover, differences are found between men and women with regard to their learning preferences. For example, women seem to learn more from the demands they face (Ohlott, Ruderman & McCauley as cited in Baldwin & Padgett, 1994, p. 287), and they learn from a greater variety of sources than men. Furthermore, it seems that especially for men after retirement age a fall-off in participation in schooling occurs (McGivney, 1993, p. 14). It remains, however, a hazardous thing to formulate expectations such as that women learn more or less frequently, more or less broadly and plan to a higher or lesser extent than men. We will therefore not formulate hypotheses on the relation between gender and the nature of HRD-activities.

4.1.7.2. Background characteristics and mobility perspective

On the basis of literature we formulate some hypotheses with regard to the relation between individual background characteristics and mobility perspective. These background characteristics are: a) Age, b) Educational level, c) mobility opportunities, and d) job expiration. Some final remarks will be made on the relation between gender and mobility.

Ad a. Age and other time and experience-related factors and mobility perspective

Age has a large importance for job mobility (Tijdens, 1993). Age and tenure are negatively related to career-related activities, mobility behaviour and employability willingness (Tijdens, 1993; Van Dam, 1999; Van Dam & Thierry, 2000, p. 38; Wit, Van Breukelen & Gagliardi, 1993). Age and tenure are both time-related concepts. They do, however, represent distinct career processes. While age is related to the individual work career, tenure is related to the organisational career.

In a study on internal and external mobility (Wit, Van Breukelen & Gagliardi, 1993), age is said to play a key role in the extent to which employees have mobility ambitions and plans. The mobility ambitions of younger and higher educated people with a low organisational tenure are higher than for older

employees with a longer history with the same organisation. Especially the external mobility declines with age and job tenure. Tijdens (1993) argues that especially job tenure is very important for the relation with turnover intention. In addition, if individuals hold the same position for a long period of time, they become less willing or prepared to acquire new skills (Thijssen, 1992c). Similar to the expectations we have with regard to age and tenure, we expect that other experience-related indicators, such as number of job changes and number of management jobs, are negatively related to pursuit of mobility as well. In sum, a negative relation is expected between several time and experience-related factors (age, job and organisational tenure, number of job changes, and number of managerial jobs) and pursuit of mobility.

The relation of these time-related factors with mobility scope is a little more complex. Over time one's career experiences progress and it is therefore expected that one's mobility scope develops accordingly. It is therefore plausible to expect a positive relation between time and experience-related factors (age, job and organisational tenure, number of job changes and number of management jobs) and mobility scope. The experience concentration theory (Thijssen, 1992c), however, refines our expectations. This theory says that as age increases, the total of experiences will normally increase and the diversity of experiences will normally decrease (p. 10). This means that while growing older, employees are better able to fulfil jobs in a narrower area of specialism. Consequently, the job flexibility of older employees decreases. This means that while initially one's mobility scope increases with age, in a later phase the mobility scope is likely to decrease again. To conclude, the relation between time and experience-related background factors and mobility scope is more complex than initially appears. It will therefore be studied exploratively.

Ad b. Educational level and mobility perspective

Educational level is important for job mobility, although it is less important than age (Tijdens, 1993). Van Dam and Thierry (2000) state that educational level is related to employability orientation and positively influence the organisation-internal mobility. Wit *et al.* (1993, p. 27) found that higher educated employees have the highest *voluntary* organisation-external job mobility. This is related to the fact that higher educated people have higher mobility ambitions. Since higher educated people generally have more generic skills and knowledge at their disposal than lower educated people, it is expected that the mobility scope of higher educated people is larger than the scope of lower educated people. This means that higher educated people are more employable than lower educated people. In sum, a positive relation is expected between educational level and both mobility scope and pursuit of external mobility.

Ad c. Vertical and horizontal job position and mobility perspective

The internal labour market plays an important role in internal mobility. The presence of other jobs determines the possibilities for internal mobility (Wit *et al.*, 1993, p. 30). Absence of possibilities for internal mobility will lead to a low internal mobility rate. People aware of lacking possibilities for internal mobility will develop a higher pursuit of external mobility. The combination of horizontal and vertical job position makes up the possibilities for internal mobility. It will influence the nature of managers' pursuit of mobility. We expect that managers at positions with few possibilities for internal mobility will have a higher pursuit of external mobility.

Ad d. Job expiration and mobility perspective

It seems a logical consequence of expected job expiration that managers will develop a higher pursuit of mobility. Depending on other factors, this pursuit will be directed towards new jobs inside or outside

the organisation. We will therefore include this variable in our study. To illustrate, Tijdens (1993) concludes that the *subjective* perception of career perspectives is important for mobility tendency.

Gender and mobility perspective

Gender plays a less important role in job mobility than age does (Tijdens, 1993). No indications were found for a relation between gender and mobility perspective. Common sense tells us that women who lay more priority on family life than on career progress may have a less advantageous mobility perspective than women with high career priorities. But the same goes for men with varying levels of priorities for respectively their families and their careers. No hypotheses were formulated.

An overview of hypotheses with regard to the relation between background characteristics and respectively the HRD-pattern and mobility perspective are summarised in section 4.3.4.

4.1.8. Conclusion modern career development

In this study, career development is given a dynamic meaning. In our view career development is the continuous process of active engagement in self-managed career development activities aimed at optimising one's career mobility perspective.

A career develops as a result of active involvement of the individual. In these new labour relationships emphasis is put on career self-management, which implies that development is *the* central element of a career, and the primary responsibility for development lies with the 'self', the employee.

This career self-management attitude appears from the responsibility and initiative individuals take with regard to their own learning and for other career development activities, such as the combination of working and private life. Other important career development activities are career planning, personal development and networking. Especially in the light of mobility, concepts such as self-management, self-directedness and initiative are important since nowadays people are supposed to change jobs more frequently. Particularly when somebody enters a new job position, initiative is an important trait to experience developmental experiences (Davies & Easterby-Smith, 1984).

The organisation shares the responsibility for employees' career development by supplying facilities. Career development is thus a mutual responsibility of organisations and employees. Expectations that employees have about their career development and about what they expect from their employers are part of the so-called psychological career contract. Later (in section 4.2. and chapter 5) we will explain what the psychological contract is and we will explicitly generate hypotheses on the effects that the nature of the psychological career contract has on a manager's learning behaviour and mobility perspective.

Employability has become the new career goal. Accordingly, employability-related concepts such as flexibility and mobility have evolved, too. The traditional idea of career development as upward progression (Rosenbaum, 1984) has made way for more emphasis on lateral moves and growth in one's job. More emphasis is put on generic value of HRD-activities, which result in a higher level of employability and thus more mobility within and between organisations. We will therefore include both organisation-internal and external mobility in this study. We do not attach greater meaning to one of both.

Furthermore, frequency and planning of HRD-activities are important learning dimensions in the modern career. These three learning dimensions together will be referred to as the *broader* HRD-pattern⁵.

⁵ As opposed to the *narrower* HRD-pattern which is the summarising characterisation of the variety in *generic value* of various learning activities used by managers; see for further details on this topic section 5.3.3.1.

4.2. The psychological career contract

In this section, our focus is on the psychological career contract. We will first address the historical development of the psychological contract⁶ concept and present several definitions (4.2.1.). Next, we will set out that psychological contracts may refer to different domains. The term “psychological *career* contract” is introduced as a particular form of contract in which career development is the central domain (4.2.2.). Section 4.2.3. will describe measurement issues that arise in studying the psychological contract. The evaluation of the contract and its consequences will be central in 4.2.4. It will be explained that the level of balance of the psychological contract is important in this respect. Psychological contracts always refer to an exchange relationship between different parties. In 4.2.5. we will focus on one in particular, the relation between manager and subordinate. Background characteristics related to the psychological contract will be reported on in 4.2.6. We will end this section on the psychological contract with a summary of our conclusions from the literature review (4.2.7.).

4.2.1. History and definitions

The psychological contract is an unwritten contract focusing on employee perceptions of mutual obligations between employee and employer (Rousseau, 1989, 1990; Rousseau & Parks, 1993; McFarlane Shore & Tetrick, 1994). Most research on psychological contracts focuses on obligations in the context of the employment relationship (Rousseau, 2000, p. 2).

The concept of the psychological contract was introduced in the Sixties by Argyris (1960) who addressed the relationship between employees and foremen. Levinson *et al.* (1962) and Schein (1965) further developed the concept. During the last decades, especially Rousseau (1989; 1990; 1995) and Herriot (1995) did a great deal of work on the theory of the psychological contract, which led to a remarkable revival of the concept (Van den Brande, 1999, p. 65).

Rousseau (1995) clearly describes the psychological contract by distinguishing it from other types of contracts based on two dimensions: 1) whether the contract applies to an individual or to a group, and 2) whether the contract is perceived by a contract party or by others (non-contractual parties). The psychological contract, then, refers to *individual* beliefs of employees as *party in* the contract. Three other contract types are *normative* contracts (shared psychological contract by group members holding common beliefs), *implied* contracts (beliefs of others about one specific contract) and *social* contracts (broad beliefs in obligations associated with a society's culture).

In Table 4.4. we give an overview of widely used definitions of the psychological contract by major authors who worked on the development of the concept.

⁶ The terms psychological contract and exchange relationships are largely similar. In our study we choose the term psychological contract.

Table 4.4. *Overview of definitions of the psychological contract.*

Definition	Author
An implicit agreement to respect each other's norms	Argyris (1960)
A product of mutual expectations that are largely implicit and unspoken and which frequently antedates the relationship between person and company	Levinson, Price, Munden, Mandl & Solley (1962)
An unwritten set of expectations operating at all times between every member of an organisation and the various managers and others in that organisation	Schein (1965)
Individual beliefs, shaped by the organisation, with regard to terms of an exchange agreement between individuals and their organisation	Rousseau (1995)
The perception of both parties (employer and employee) of their relationship and the things they offer each other in this relationship	Herriot & Pemberton (1995)

4.2.1.1. *Features of the psychological contract*

Three common aspects can be recognised in the definitions of the psychological contract (Table 4.4.): implicitness, mutuality and terms such as expectations and obligations. Some further explanation is required.

First, in contrast with formal legal contracts, which contain explicit and agreements in writing, psychological contracts are *implicit* and unspoken. The obligations making up the psychological contract for the most part exist in the minds of people. Still, they do exist; perceptions are real (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995, p. 17). Moreover, they are only infrequently discussed, which does not mean, of course, that when the psychological contract is subject to discussion it ceases to exist (Anderson & Schalk, 1998, p. 640). The word "psychological" also refers to the implicit nature of this type of contract. In spite of the hidden nature of the psychological contract, there seems to be consensus between psychological contract researchers that it is an important determinant of behaviour and attitudes of employees (e.g. Schein, 1965; Anderson & Schalk, 1998).

Secondly, *mutuality* of expectations is emphasised in most definitions. This is not surprising since per definition a contract contains at least two parties. Schein (1965) refers to this mutuality by referring to two levels: the individual and the organisational.

Mutuality can be approached more or less literally. Some maintain that agreement between the different parties in order for a psychological contract to exist is necessary. It contains a process of negotiation and re-negotiation to find a match between the individual and the organisation (Schein, 1965).

Rousseau has another opinion and stresses that there is no need for agreement of expectations in order for a psychological contract to exist. Mutuality lies in the fact that the employee has beliefs with regard to the organisation's obligations to them as well as their own obligations to the organisation (Rousseau, 1989). It is the perception of mutuality, not necessarily mutuality in fact, which is at the heart of the psychological contract (Rousseau, 1998a, p. 666). The psychological contract is based on *perceived* promises by the organisation to the employee (McFarlane Shore & Tetrick, 1994, p. 92). The individual's reality is the point of departure, not reality *per se*.

While the individual employee believes in the existence of a particular psychological contract, or reciprocal exchange agreement, this does not necessarily mean that the supervisor or other organisational members agree with or have the same understanding of the contract (Rousseau & Parks, 1993). The psychological contract is an inherently subjective phenomenon, in part due to individual cognitive and perceptual limits.

Thirdly, in all definitions terms such as *expectation* or obligation with regard to the exchange relationship are used. Other terms used are e.g. perceptions, beliefs and promises. In general, this

distinction does not seem so crucial since the same meaning is attached to those words (Van den Brande, 1999). However, the different terms imply different levels of psychological engagement (Conway as cited in Guest, 1998, p. 651). The failure to meet an obligation is more destructive than the failure to meet an expectation or hope. A continuum from compulsory to not-compulsory underlies these terms. Obligations are mostly written down in formal contracts. Because psychological contracts are largely implicit the term expectation seems to be more appropriate.

Another characteristic of the psychological contract largely recognised by psychological-contract researchers is the dynamic nature of the contract, which changes over the years and one's career (Rousseau, 1995; Schein, 1965, 1980; Levinson *et al.*, 1962). One of the studies that supported the dynamic nature of the psychological contract is the study by Robinson, Kraatz and Rousseau (1994)⁷. Moreover, Herriot and Pemberton (1995) say that the organisation's and the individual's wants and offers may change over time (p. 139). Depending on which of these elements change or remain equal, the balance or unbalance will change, too.

4.2.1.2. *Types of psychological contracts*

One way of describing the psychological contract is by type of contract. In literature the relational and transactional contract type are often mentioned (MacNeil, 1985).

Relational contracts are based on long-term satisfying relationships, while the transactional contract refers to short-term exchange of benefits and contributions. With the increased rise of modern careers, a trend is observed from emphasis on relational contracts towards an emphasis on transactional contracts. Herriot and Pemberton (1995) state that new relationships in essence are no longer relational. Instead, "they are strictly transactional; you give me this and I'll give you that" (p. 20).

Under the transactional contract, the locus of responsibility is squarely on individuals: they are employed on the basis of their current value to the organisation. "People can attribute continued employment to their own effort and achievement" (Mirvis & Hall, 1994, p. 375).

Rousseau (1995) distinguishes four types of psychological contracts based on two dimensions (see Table 4.5.). Two of the types are the relational and the transactional type. Two other types are: transitional and balanced contracts. McFarlane Shore & Tetrick (1994) add that while transactional contracts are linked to economic exchange, relational contracts are linked to social exchange.

Table 4.5. *Types of psychological contracts (Rousseau, 1995, p. 98).*

	Specified	Not specified
Short term	Transactional	Transitional
Long term	Balanced	Relational

These dimensions, however, are not the only two relevant dimensions according to which types of contract may be described. Contracts may also vary according to the focus of the contract, time frame, stability, scope and tangibility (Rousseau & McLean-Parks, 1993), particularism, multiple agency and volition (McLean Parks *et al.*, 1994; 1998).

4.2.1.3. *Relevance of the psychological contract*

So far the question about the function, or the usefulness, of the psychological contract has been left unaddressed. Several authors have written about this issue.

First of all, with the shift from traditional to modern personnel management, the emphasis is increasingly put on the psychological contract instead of on the formal contract (Storey, 1992).

⁷ The trend suggests that employees' perceived obligations to their employers decline over time, while the obligations they attribute to their employers increase (p. 147).

Secondly, the psychological contract has effects on employee's (work) behaviour, attitudes and intentions (e.g. Anderson & Schalk, 1998; Freese *et al.*, 1999; Rousseau, 1990; Schein, 1965, 1980; Schalk, Freese & Van den Bosch, 1995).

From McFarlane Shore and Tetrick's (1994, p. 93) description of three functions of the psychological contract, the relevance of the concept becomes clear. The primary function of the psychological contract, according to them, is the reduction of uncertainty. By establishing agreed upon conditions of employment, psychological contracts compensate for the fact that it is impossible to work out all aspects of employment (in formal contracts). The second function of the psychological contract is to direct employee behaviour without necessarily requiring managerial surveillance. This function is largely supported by others (e.g. Anderson & Schalk, 1998). Employees monitor their own behaviour on the basis of the belief that this will lead to certain rewards. The third function of the psychological contract is to give employees an influential role. Employees are party to a contract, which means that they are (feeling to be) able to influence their destiny in the organisation.

An implicit assumption in the functions of the psychological contract described above, is that they are generally valid, that is both in traditional and modern contracts. However, the extent to which employees get room for self-direction and for influencing their situation seems to be larger under the new contract in which employees operate as architects of their own careers. The latter functions therefore are especially relevant for modern psychological contracts.

4.2.2. The psychological career contract: Career self-management expectations

The content of the psychological contracts refers to the terms and elements which comprise the contract (e.g. specific obligations such as job security, or general types of obligations such as relational and transactional) (Rousseau, 2000, p. 3). In several empirical studies attention was paid to aspects of Human Resource Management (e.g. remuneration, training & development, recruitment & selection, etc.). Rousseau (1990) formulated specific employee and employer-focused obligations. Examples of employee-focused obligations are working extra hours, loyalty and willingness to accept a transfer. Examples of employer-focused obligations are promotion, high pay, pay based on current level of performance and career development (p. 394). In her instrument, Freese included nature of work, personal learning and developmental opportunities, social aspects, HRM-policy and rewards (see Freese *et al.*, 1999).

Our main interest is in studying the significance of managers' learning behaviour and the reasons behind this behaviour. It is a logical consequence to focus on expectations with regard to career development. The term 'psychological *career* contract' will be used whenever we talk about career-related aspects of the psychological contract (Lankhuijzen *et al.*, 2001).

As a result of profoundly changed circumstances of work, expectations of both employers and employees have altered. Consequently, *new* psychological contracts emerge. The specific nature of the *new* psychological career contract will now be explained. In section 4.1.1. we already addressed the modern nature of careers and concluded that one of the major shifts that has recently taken place concerns the locus of responsibility for career management. This responsibility has shifted from the employer to the employee. The assumption is that it is a feature of the modern employee to self-manage his or her career development. People who do not take control of their own careers are viewed as more traditional careerists. We view the level of self-management with regard to career development as *the* significant dimension along which careers may vary. We will further refer to this concept as the *level of career self-management as part of the psychological career contract*. More specifically, expectations about the division of responsibilities and initiative with regard to learning and career development make up the psychological career contract.

In section 4.1. about career development we described the new roles with regard to self-development (or career self-management) individuals and organisations *should* take. Obviously we have to deal with the expectations of two parties that may converge or diverge. Even though we are considered to live in an era of modern careers, it remains to be seen whether employers and employees actually think according to this new career concept. It is not realistic to assume that everyone views the management of his career development as his own responsibility. Managers may for example choose the modern approach and show eagerness to take control of their own careers. The question remains whether the organisation is willing to give the required amount of freedom and autonomy, which would represent a modern attitude of the organisation. Delf and Smith (1978) address this area of tension as follows: "It is risk taking for the organisation in giving such freedom and also an investment in managers for which pay-offs will be uncertain and not immediate. In essence it is the organisation *contracting* with managers for their self-development" (p. 498). It is worth exploring the idea of a contract with career self-management expectations as its main element.

In sum, expectations about career self-management may vary from person to person and from organisation to organisation on a continuum from traditional to modern. A high level of career self-management is part of a modern career contract, while a low level of career self-management refers to a traditional career contract.

The term contract refers to the existence of different perspectives. Applied to the psychological career contract, it means that the individual's and the organisation's perspective on career self-management are compared. We will further refer to this as "individual⁸ commitment to career self-management" and "organisational support for career self-management".

This mutual perspective on career development was described in section 4.1., where we explicated that modern career development is a shared responsibility of individuals and organisations.

Among other studies, we can particularly build on research that has been done by Rousseau (1995), who studied the psychological contract from an individual perspective, and by Hall (1996), who focused on the "protean career".

4.2.3. Measurement of the psychological contract

The measurement of the psychological contract involves several complex points. First, *mutual* obligations are the central issue in the relationship between employer and employee (Anderson & Schalk, 1998, p. 637); in essence, the psychological contract is an exchange relationship. By definition several parties are involved and, as a consequence, expectations of different levels have to be compared, which is immediately problematic (Anderson & Schalk, 1998, p. 639), or as Guest (1998) calls it, "an analytic nightmare".

The perspectives from which the psychological career contract can be measured are the organisation's, the employee's, or both simultaneously (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998, p. 685). Examples of all possibilities can be found in literature. For example, Tsui *et al.* (1997) measured the psychological contract from an employer's perspective. Rousseau (1995) chose the perspective of the individual. A study in which both the employer's and the employee's perspective were measured is the one by Porter, Pearce, Tripoli and Lewis (1998).

Secondly, there is the problem of *who* the organisation is, or by whom it is represented. This is often unclear (Freese, Heinen & Schalk, 1999; Guest, 1998) and in that case the question remains whose perceptions are compared with whose.

⁸ Individual can be replaced by "employee" or "manager".

Rousseau (1995) argues that *the* organisation does not exist, but is represented by individual agents. Line managers, personnel directors and chief executives are just some examples of these organisational representatives (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995). In the study by Porter *et al.* (1998), for example, a set of high-level executives was chosen to “speak” for the organisation (Porter *et al.*, 1998, p. 771). Because of this multitude of possible representatives, organisations can hardly be considered to be a uniform set of expectations (Schalk & Freese, 1993). It rather is “a multiple collective of diverse and differing expectations held by a whole set of actors” (Anderson & Schalk, 1998, p. 639).

In order to deal with this problematic issue, Rousseau (1990) introduced a narrower definition of the psychological contract. She conceives the psychological contract to be a mental model of *individual* perceptions (p. 390). More precisely, it is individual's beliefs about mutual obligations, in the context of the relationship between employer and employee (Rousseau, 1990, p. 391). By using this definition the perspective shifts from a bilateral relationship between two parties at different levels (individual and organisational) to the unilateral, singular level of the individual. The psychological contract in this view is a subjective, individual perception of obligations of the employee towards the organisation and of the obligations of the employer towards the employee (Schalk & Freese, 1993). According to this approach it is possible to study the psychological contract by mapping employees' individual perceptions only.

It is the perception of reality, not any so-called “objective” reality that shapes expectations, attitudes and behaviours. Consequently, to understand employee attitudes and behaviours, it is necessary to understand their perceptions, their reality (McLean Parks, Kidder & Gallagher, 1998, p. 697; Verweel, 2000).

Rousseau and Tijoriwala (1998) draw the conclusion that subjective measures (self-report) are the most direct sources of information with regard to nature and content of the psychological contract.

This approach is criticised by some authors (e.g. Guest, 1998; Herriot, 1995; Levinson *et al.*, 1962; Schein, 1965), who maintain that it is necessary to measure expectations of the different parties in order to assess the nature of the psychological contract. A psychological contract, according to them, concerns the aspects on which agreement (of different parties) exists. Guest (1998) is rather discontented with measuring employee perceptions only, either. He argues that the richness of the contract concept might thus be lost. Yet, this unilateral approach of the psychological contract is followed by many researchers.

Thirdly, when measuring the psychological contract a choice has to be made for an emphasis on idiosyncratic or on generalisable aspects (or on both) of the contract. This will depend on the focus of the study and on the stability of the context in which the contract exists.

An approach in which the focus is on local and idiosyncratic content is also called an emic approach. Emic frameworks are generated by the respondents who provide specific information themselves and are attempts to reflect individuals' mental models. In this approach qualitative methodologies are used. In contrast, etic frameworks assess general constructs meaningful to individuals across a variety of settings (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998, p. 682) and are used in research focused on generalisability and theory testing. Here, normally quantitative methodologies are used, which are particularly appropriate in a stable environment. In addition, they argue that “in contexts of radical change, standardized measures should be supplemented by qualitative assessment” (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998).

Fourthly, since psychological contracts develop over time, it is important to decide about the point in time when measurement of the psychological contract is appropriate. Guest (1998) describes the remaining “conceptual problem of establishing at what point in time a relationship between an individual and an organisation a psychological contract can be said to exist” (p. 651). It seems logical

that at least a certain amount of time should pass in order for a relationship between employer and employee to grow and accordingly for a psychological contract to develop. Thomas and Anderson (1998) agree that because of its dynamic and evolving character, for a psychological contract needs time to develop⁹. They add that newcomers' contracts reach relative stability as early as four months into job tenure (p. 749). To conclude, for measuring the psychological contract, it seems appropriate to take as a criterion a minimum stay in one's job of six months.

Fifthly, Guest (1998) argues that the psychological contract is hard to test because of its implicit nature. The test of the psychological contract often is too explicit; the question, then, is whether we can still speak of a psychological contract (Guest, 1998).

Finally, it is necessary to decide on the orientation of the psychological contract assessment. This can take three forms: content-oriented, feature-oriented and evaluation-oriented measures.

First, content measures address the terms and reciprocal obligations that characterise the individual's psychological contract. They vary to the extent to which they focus on parts of the psychological contract or on broader wholes. The quantitative measures of content can be by the use of specific terms (e.g. salary or job security), composites of terms (broad patterns of the contract, e.g. over-obligation relationship) or by nominal classification (e.g. relational or transactional) (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998). Secondly, feature measures compare the contract to some attribute or dimension, such as explicit/implicit, stable/unstable, etc. Evaluation-oriented measures employ comparative judgements with regard to the individual's actual experience relative to an existing psychological contract (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998, p. 690). Evaluation-oriented assessment addresses issues such as the degree of fulfilment of the psychological contract and change or violation of the contract.

In our study we use both content-oriented and evaluation-oriented measures for the psychological contract. The content-orientation derives from the focus on composites of terms with regard to employees' and employers' career self-management expectations.

In order to deal with the reciprocal nature of the contract, we assess the level of perceived balance between expectations. This balance issue refers to an evaluation orientation. As a result of a (mis) match of career self-management expectations, consequences for HRD-patterns and mobility perspectives are expected. Rousseau and Tijoriwala (1998, p. 688) call this approach "indexing", which was also used by Barksdale and Shore (1997). The balance approach focuses on the interrelations between employee and employer obligations and represents an attempt to grasp the complex dynamics of contracting.

Several instruments have been developed to measure the psychological contract. Rousseau developed the Psychological Contract Inventory (PCI) to assess the generalisable content of the psychological contract for use in organisational research and as a self-scoring assessment to support executive and professional education (Rousseau, 1998b; 2000¹⁰). Dutch psychological contract instruments have also been developed. Freese, Heinen and Schalk (1999) used the TPC (Tilburg Psychological Contract questionnaire) which, for instance, measures the fulfilment of employers' and employees' obligations and the evaluation of them, affective involvement and intention to quit.

Respondents were asked to indicate whether a certain aspect is sufficiently available within the organisation and whether they see it as a task of the organisation to offer it (p. 311).

Another example is the psychological contract questionnaire developed at Work and Organisational Psychology Department at the Free University of Amsterdam (see Ten Brink *et al.*, 1999). This

⁹ Employees show an upward re-appraisal of what their employer should provide, especially during early organisational socialisation (Thomas & Anderson, 1998, p. 764).

¹⁰ This instrument was developed throughout the Nineties.

questionnaire contains questions about the extent to which employees have expectations of the organisation and to what extent employees judge these expectations to be fulfilled. These items regard the following aspects: tasks, developmental opportunities, identification, participation, autonomy in one's job, stable labour relationship, functional mobility, combining work and private life, and information supply.

4.2.4. Evaluation of the psychological contract: Balance, unbalance and effects

The theory on the psychological contract has been extended by several authors who studied the level of balance of the contract (Shore & Barksdale, 1998; Tsui *et al.*, 1997; Schalk & Freese, 1997). In this section the following issues will be addressed: balance (between which parties, about what), the importance of balance and organisational and individual reactions as a result of balanced and unbalanced situations. Furthermore, our typology of balance relationships will be given.

4.2.4.1. What is contract balance?

As we described in 4.2.1. mutuality is one of the central elements of the psychological contract, which concerns an exchange relationship between the individual and the organisation. This implies that it involves the perceptions and expectations of at least two parties.

Two assumptions underlie these exchange relationships: reciprocity (or mutuality) and balance.

Reciprocity means that both parties expect to give to and take from each other. Some authors maintain that there must be actual reciprocity (e.g. Schein, 1965, Levinson, *et al.*, 1962), while others (e.g. Rousseau, 1995) maintain that it is the perception and experience of reciprocity that matters, not reality (see also 4.2.1.1.).

Although a perception of reciprocity may exist, it still remains uncertain *to what extent* expectations of the parties are fulfilled. Balance exists when parties give and receive favours to an equal extent. It is, however, difficult to reach a state of perfect balance. It is Blau's (1964) opinion that this is not necessary and possible. Herriot (1995), too, argues that balance is not indispensable in order for a relationship to survive. Therefore, it seems a more fruitful approach to study *the extent to which* balance exists. Balance, then, becomes a matter of degree.

In order to understand exchange relationships between employer and employee, several authors use Blau's social exchange theory (1964). Social exchange entails *unspecified* obligations and must be distinguished from strictly economic exchange. Consequently, the obligations which individuals and organisations incur in social exchange are defined only in general, somewhat diffuse terms (p. 95).

In social exchange, it is assumed that people look for balanced relationships. An individual who supplies rewarding services or favours to another obligates him. To discharge this obligation, the second person must furnish benefits to the first in turn (Blau, 1964, p. 89). Similarly, equity theory says that individuals compare their input/output ratio with others. If the ratios are not equal the individual is motivated to restore equity in some way (Adams as cited in Paul *et al.*, 2000).

It is impossible to measure exactly how much approval a certain favour is worth. Consequently, there is no way to assure an appropriate return for a favour in social exchange. Taking into account the fact that exchange may concern rather vague things such as personality and values (Herriot & Pemberton, 1996, p. 776), this difficulty becomes even more clear. Therefore, it requires trusting others to discharge their obligations (p. 94), especially since a binding contract is absent (Blau, 1964).

To illustrate, when organisations offer good employment (for example high job security or support for career development) to employees, employees will feel obliged to give something in return, for example good performance or a certain level of affective and normative commitment (Ten Brink *et al.*, 1999, p. 245) thus resulting in a low need for organisation-external mobility. In the opposite case in

which organisations do not fulfil their side of the contract, for example by offering only short-term and unclear expectations, employees will be inclined to perform less than optimally and to find a job elsewhere.

In that case, employees will perceive unbalance or violation of the psychological contract. A discrepancy is experienced between the actual fulfilment of obligations by the organisation and the promises previously made with regard to these obligations. The degree of experienced violation depends on the type of violation, the degree of discrepancy, and whether the organisation is held responsible for the violations (McFarlane Shore & Tetrick, 1994).

When the psychological career contract is concerned, balance of career self-management expectations is the issue. Organisations (and their representatives) will have to adjust their support for career self-management to the needs of individuals, which will vary from person to person. To illustrate, a person who is able and willing to self-manage and self-direct his or her career development will need more autonomy and less direction from the organisation than a person who is not capable of self-managing his career. The implication is that the organisation cannot do with offering one type of contract only (Verweij & Stoker, 2000).

In sum, it is our assumption that in general employees strive for balance in their psychological contract. The hypothesis is that balanced contracts lead to positive outcomes and unbalanced contracts will lead to negative outcomes for both employee and organisation. Furthermore, it is possible to talk about a contract when personal *values* are concerned, e.g. career self-management perceptions.

4.2.4.2. *The existence of unbalance*

Blau's social exchange theory (1964) suggests that balance in exchange is both expected and preferred. The prediction therefore is that balanced contracts occur most, which was supported by the studies of Shore and Barksdale (1998) and Tsui *et al.* (1997). However, in both studies it is maintained that beside balanced situations, over-obligation and under-obligation relationships, or unbalanced relationships, exist as well. Tsui *et al.* (1997) found 36% of the relationships to be unbalanced (in the eyes of the employer). Furthermore, the study by Robinson, Kraatz and Rousseau (1994) suggests that individuals may indeed perceive a lack of balance in the exchange.

What is important, though, is that although employees may have unbalance exchange relationships they are likely to seek balance in exchange relationships over time.

There are many sources of violation and ways in which contract violation occurs (Rousseau, 1995). When managers are concerned, the violation may consist of "saying one thing, and doing another". Co-workers can violate the contract by failing to provide support.

The contract with regard to for instance career paths may be unbalanced because the promotion schedule turns out to be different than promised. Furthermore, old agreements with regard to one's career may be broken when another manager comes into play. Contracts with regard to training may not be fulfilled when the emphasis is too much on specific competences instead of on promised personnel development or when training is totally absent. It is also important to know that people may experience contract violation when they are given less responsibility than they were promised.

Finally, it is important to note that, according to Robinson and Rousseau (1994), contract fulfilment and contract violation (or balance and unbalance) may occur simultaneously. While certain aspects of the contract may be violated, other aspects of the contract may be generally fulfilled.

4.2.4.3 *Effects of the psychological contract*

According to Herriot and Pemberton (1995) "the psychological contract needs to be kept an eye on". Since the psychological contract is a two-sided deal, both parties need to evaluate the balance of the contract. That is, while organisations check up on performance and budget targets, employees should appraise the organisation as well. The importance of taking into account the level of balance becomes clear from the consequences on individual and organisational behaviour and attitudes. Balanced contracts in general give rise to positive consequences. But, when contracts are violated, that is, when unbalance exists, it is likely that negative outcomes arise.

In search of a model of the psychological contract, Guest (1998) describes several consequences of the contract, which, according to him, have not been given enough weight. He stresses the importance of having a clear picture of the range of possible consequences for both the individual and the organisation. Depending on the type and nature of the contract (relational, transactional, balanced, unbalanced, etc.) different organisational and individual outcomes can be expected. It must be noted that most of the research is focused on effects at the individual level (Herriot & Pemberton, 1996).

We expect that in case of unbalance, employers and employees will alter their behaviour, expectations and/or attitudes, in order to compensate for the negative consequences of unbalance. The appearance of these alterations may vary from organisation to organisation and from individual to individual and can be positive or negative. Most of the negative consequences described are based on research on violation of the contract and is primarily focused on the individual perspective.

According to Rousseau (1995) contract violation may take three forms: inadvertent, disruption and renegeing or breach of contract. An inadvertent violation occurs when both parties are willing and able to comply with contract terms, but divergent interpretations lead to a violation of the contract. A disruption of the contract is the consequence of the inability to fulfil the contract, e.g. because of a bankruptcy and the consequence of not being able to offer work. In the case of a breach of contract, one or both of the parties are not willing to comply with the contract terms even though they would be able to do so.

Roe & Schalk (as cited in Schalk & Freese, 1997) describe that an evaluation of the contract, by comparing the behaviour of oneself and the organisation with initial expectations, may lead to contract fulfilment, contract change or contract violation. A contract is fulfilled when expectations are met or at least when the deviation of expectations stays within the boundaries of acceptance. The psychological contract will not be changed. When reality deviates from the expectations of the individual employee, the current contract may be changed or broken. Whether contract change or contract violation (break) results depends on basic values of the individual employee and acceptance and tolerance limits of the psychological contract (Roe & Schalk as cited in Schalk & Freese, 1997).

When the deviation from initial expectations falls within the tolerance boundaries the contract may be revised. A revision may succeed when employees feel that new demands are imposed by the employer, but that they also get something in return that fulfils their needs (Schalk & Freese, 1997, p. 117). Contract change often occurs after critical moments such as training, performance review, etc. (Roe & Schalk, 1996). When the boundaries of tolerance are crossed the contract is violated. The labour relation will often end and the psychological contract will be abandoned.

Which behaviours, attitudes and intentions are affected by the balance or unbalance of the contract? We will first mention the range of possible reactions organisations may give. Then, we will turn to individual reactions. In our study we will emphasise the individual employee's reactions.

4.2.4.3.1. *Organisational reactions*

When the contract is under discussion, organisations may give several reactions. McFarlane Shore and Tetrick (1994) describe contract maintenance, refusal to maintain contract, contract revision and refusal to revise contract as possible reactions. These reactions involve management of employee perceptions.

There are some activities that organisations may undertake to manage employee perceptions (Paul *et al.*, 2000, p. 479), for example by managing the contract formation process by presenting new employees with an accurate preview of the job and of the employer. Explicitly discussing mutual expectations with regard to career self-management is surely crucial. Attention should be paid to mutual wishes, obligations and facilities with regard to career development as soon as the moment of personnel selection; later misunderstandings can thus be prevented. A job start based on sound and realistic mutual expectations is likely to grow into a successful and satisfying labour relationship. A key role in maintaining balance between the needs of the organisation and the individual can be played by a development adviser (Delf & Smith, 1978, p. 500).

Other personnel instruments that can be used for the purpose of establishing and maintaining sound mutual expectations are, for example, self-assessment instruments, workshops on career planning, counselling, conducting periodic employee opinion surveys, establishing focus or discussion groups, and responding to dissatisfaction. These activities seem necessary in order to prevent a situation in which employers may not be able to satisfy their employees (Robinson, Kraatz & Roussau, 1994). This undesirable situation can evolve because it is human cognitive tendency when self-evaluation is used that individuals overestimate their contributions and underestimate other's contributions. In other words, an employee tends to believe that he/she has fulfilled his/her side of the bargain to a greater degree than the employer (Paul *et al.*, 2000, p. 478). It partly depends on the situation on the labour market, of course, whether employers are willing to fulfil employees' expectations.

When there is unbalance of the contract, it may be an option for organisations to alter their attitude and behaviour towards expectations employees have about career development. Especially in times of shortages on the labour market, it is crucial for organisations to be as attractive as possible for employees. Developmental opportunities may serve as an appealing employment condition. It may very well be a strategic choice of an employer to support their employees' career development, even though employers may thus run the risk of losing employees to another company because of their increased employability.

It would be too optimistic to think that there is always a solution in the sense of an opportunity to change and/or to keep the deal. When one or both parties are unwilling and/or unable to make adjustments to their expectations, it is very well possible that employees will become mobile towards another unit or another organisation. This can then be a voluntary choice of the individual or a forced choice by the organisation when the employee is fired.

4.2.4.3.2. *Individual reactions*

McLean Parks and Kidder (1994), taking the employee's perspective, describe types of behaviour that employees may show as a result of the nature of their relationship with the organisation. The range of behaviours may be from pro-role or role-enhancing behaviours (e.g. working through lunch) to compliance to role-detracting behaviour (e.g. theft and violence), a continuum of varying intensity, commitment and alienation (p. 131). We will now further describe positive and negative outcomes of the nature of the contract.

Pro-role behaviour refers to the positive outcomes of the contract. A positive psychological contract is generally associated with individual outcomes such as pay satisfaction, job satisfaction, career

satisfaction, higher organisational commitment, trust in the organisation, higher reported motivation and a positive evaluation of employment relations, as well as lower intention to quit (Guest, 1998; Herriot & Pemberton, 1996; Schalk, Freese & Van den Bosch, 1995; Portwood & Miller, 1976; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). Other consequences Guest (1998) describes are sense of security and organisational citizenship (compliance, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, civic virtue, altruism and absence). "Research has consistently shown that perceptions of fairness and justice are important predictors of these organisational citizenship behaviours and are quite important in determining employee reactions to employer actions" (McLean Parks & Kidder, 1994, p. 125). Moreover, a beneficial contract is likely to result in higher production (which can be observed or measured to a certain extent) and lower grievances (Argyris, 1960, p. 96).

Several authors describe types of employee responses to contract violation (Rousseau, 1995; McFarlane Shore & Tetrick, 1994). A distinction is made between action-oriented and state-oriented responses. An action response is referred to as "voice". Voice involves actions individuals may take to protest against the violation, for example by explicit negotiation (Herriot & Pemberton, 1996).

This explicit negotiation may lead to an adjustment of expectations on the individual's side. An example is that employees may make re-evaluations downwards of what they owe the organisation relative to what it owes them (Anderson & Schalk, 1998, p. 644). The behavioural consequence is that they make adjustments of own investment (Herriot & Pemberton, 1996). When expectations are lowered, the risk of a fall of motivation is big. Of course, the opposite is possible as well, *viz.* that the employee finds out that he can expect more from the organisation than he used to do.

Other responses are state responses, which in essence mean that individuals accept the violation and are not taking action to restore or change the contract. Examples of state responses are "loyalty / silence", which is a form of non-response and serves to perpetuate the relationship, and "neglect / destruction", which entails passive or active destruction of the labour relationship. The most radical state response is "exit", which concerns the voluntary termination of the relationship. Herriot and Pemberton (1996) also see "quitting the job" as one of the possible reactions. By withdrawing from the situation (looking for another job within or outside the organisation) and thus taking control of the situation in turn might lead to either positive or negative feelings. Extreme negative outcomes of contract violation, or anti-role behaviours, are overt damage, harassment / threats, theft, negativism, shirking / negligence and mere compliance (McLean Parks & Kidder, 1994, p. 117).

Beside observable reactions and behaviours, which people may show as a response to the nature of the contract, the psychological contract has consequences for more hidden feelings, emotions and attitudes. Especially, strong reactions may be expected when the contract is violated or not positive in nature (e.g. because the organisation is not able or willing to fulfil expectations and obligations), because psychological contracts are formed on the basis of trust. In Table 4.6. an overview is given of reactions that may result from negative, unbalanced or violated contracts.

Table 4.6. *Overview of individual reactions to contract violation or unbalance.*

Outcome of contract violation	Authors
Feelings of betrayal	Schalk & Freese (1993); Robinson & Rousseau (1994); Rousseau & Parks (1993)
Higher turnover	Guzzo <i>et al.</i> (1994, in Rousseau (1995)); Robinson & Rousseau (1994)
Higher intention to quit	Schalk, Freese & Van de Bosch (1995); Van den Brande (1999)
Lower trust	Anderson & Schalk (1998)
More tension	Van den Brande (1999)
Demotivation and decrease of job satisfaction	Robinson & Rousseau (1994); Porter, Pearce, Tripoli & Lewis (1998)
Decrease of commitment to the organisation	Schalk, Freese & Van den Bosch (1995)
Lower organisational involvement and identification with the organisation	Schalk, Freese & Van den Bosch (1995); Kessler & Undy (1996) in Schalk & Freese (1997)
Less organisational citizenship behaviour	Anderson & Schalk (1998); Robinson, Kraatz & Rousseau (1994)
Contract shift towards more transactional ones	Herriot & Pemberton (1995)
Lower performance	Van den Brande (1999)

Moreover, Porter *et al.* (1998) report that in research on the psychological contract the assumption generally is that “anything other than a ‘match’ in perceptions can lead to dissatisfaction” (p. 780). From their analyses, however, it appears that this is not the case for many employees. For several inducements they found positive gaps, meaning that employees perceived to receive more than their employers perceived to offer to them.

4.2.4.4. *Level of unbalance*

Several authors stress that the size of discrepancy (McFarlane Shore & Tetrick, 1994) or level of unbalance (Shore & Barksdale, 1998) will influence employee reactions.

Reference is made to action control theory (Kernan & Lord, 1990; Kuhl & Atkinson, 1986), which suggests that individuals attempt to reduce discrepancy (between performance and initial goal) through cognitive or behavioural means. Large discrepancies will have the greatest potential to increase effort and performance. However, when the discrepancy is too large, motivation to exert extra effort could be missing because of an unrealistic goal.

We expect that the same mechanism works when expectations of contract parties are unbalanced. One or both of the parties will try to reduce this discrepancy. Small discrepancies are expected to generate an action orientation which in the case of the psychological contract would lead to employee attempts to restore the contract. Large discrepancies, on the other hand, would be expected to induce a state orientation which would result in the individual focusing on the emotional effects of the violation of the contract (McFarlane Shore & Tetrick, 1994, p. 104). Then, individuals may not exercise “voice” regardless of type of contract but would be more likely to exercise silence, retreat, destruction or exit (McFarlane Shore & Tetrick, 1994). As we have already described above, when deviations are large, the chance that they cross the boundaries of tolerance are bigger. The abandonment of the contract is likely to result.

Shore and Barksdale (1998) demonstrate that exchange relationship with a high level of balance and which contain high employee obligations have the best scores on perceived organisational support, career future, affective commitment, and the lowest scores on intention to quit.

Apparently, it is important to include both the extent to which obligations deviate (state of balance) and the extent to which individuals feel committed or obliged to contract terms.

4.2.4.5. *Types of balance*

Balance has been studied from different perspectives. Shore and Barksdale (1998) approached balance from an employee’s perspective, thus adding to Tsui *et al.*’s (1997) study, who approached balance from an employer’s perspective. Porter *et al.* (1998) simultaneously included both perspectives in their study and constructed the variable “psychological-contract gap”. They conclude that gaps in perceptions of what the organisation offers as inducements to employees do matter; it contributes to understanding employees’ satisfaction with their organisation (p. 779).

For our study, Shore and Barksdale’s (1998) study is particularly relevant since, like them, we are interested in perceptions at the individual level. Shore and Barksdale describe four exchange relationships according to two dimensions: the degree of balance in employee and employer obligations and the level of obligation (see Figure 4.5.).

		Employer Obligations	
		High	Moderate to low
Employee Obligations	High	Mutual High Obligations <i>(mutual investment)</i>	Employee Over-obligation <i>(employer under-investment)</i>
	Moderate to low	Employee Under-obligation <i>(employer over-investment)</i>	Mutual Low Obligations <i>(quasi-spot)</i>

Figure 4.5. Four types of exchange relationships (Shore & Barksdale, 1998). (Note that the terms in italics are the ones used by Tsui *et al.* (1997)).

The mutual high obligations relationship means that the employee feels that the organisation is highly obligated to them and that they themselves owe a great deal to the organisation in return. All other cells can be interpreted similarly. The two shaded cells refer to unbalanced relationships in which one of both parties’ perceived obligations are low compared to the other’s.

Shore and Barksdale’s typology largely resembles the one by Tsui *et al.* (1997). The difference is that the latter typology is constructed from the employer’s point of view. The four relationships that Tsui *et al.* (1997) describe are quasi-spot, mutual investment, under-investment and over-investment (from the employer’s perspective!) relationships¹¹. The first two types are balanced, the other two are unbalanced.

The quasi-spot contract refers to a relatively short-term and closed economic exchange (specified activities for set compensation) for both parties. The mutual investment employee-organisation

¹¹ An amusing alternative description of the labour relationship is the one by Herriot and Pemberton (1995, p. 127) who describe the information exchange between parties in romantic terms, which results in four types: hitched, reluctant suitor, unrequited lover and just good friends.

relationship involves economic and social exchange. It concerns a more open-ended and long-term investment in each other by both parties. In an under-investment relationship, the organisation offers only short-term and specified rewards to employees undertaking broad and open-ended obligations. The opposite is true in an over-investment relationship: employers offer long-term and broad-ranging rewards to employees performing a restricted set of well-specified job-focused activities.

On the basis of these typologies, four clusters of individuals with similar patterns of employee and employer obligations are assumed to exist. In both studies the question was posed whether the four types of employees show differences in employee performance and attitudes.

Two assumptions are formulated by Shore and Barksdale (1998) that serve as starting point for hypothesis generation. Assumptions are that it is important that: 1) relationships are balanced, because this would bring most positive outcomes for organisations, and 2) that the level of employee obligation is high because of the expected positive relation with attitudes and behaviours supportive of organisational goals (p. 735). Consequently, the outcomes of the mutual investment relationships will be most positive (e.g. lowest turnover intentions), while the outcomes of the under-investment relationship are expected to be worst (e.g. highest turnover intentions)¹².

Tsui et al. (1997) expect almost the same order for the four relationships with regard to intentions to stay with the organisation. The only exception is that they expect the employer over-investment relationship group to have lower turnover intentions than the mutual investment relationship. Thus, they expect the following order (from lowest to highest turnover intentions): over-investment, mutual investment, quasi-spot and finally the under-investment relationship (Tsui *et al.*, 1997, p. 1096). The explanation for the fact that the intention to stay is expected to be highest for the over-investment group and not for the mutual investment group, is that employees working in an over-investment relationship have a favourable deal: the employer gives relatively more than it expects from their employees, which is "too good to be true". Therefore, these employees are least likely to leave. A mutual investment contract is good as well and it is therefore expected not to lead to employees' turnover intentions. In contrast, the quasi-spot and especially the under-investment relationship are not so positive for the employee's career; therefore they will have highest turnover intentions.

Shore and Barksdale's (1998) most important finding is that compared to all other types of exchange relationships, the mutual high obligations relationship, in which both the employee and the employer obligations were consistently perceived to be high, showed much higher levels of perceived organisational support, career future, and affective commitment, and lower levels of turnover intention than all other types of exchange relationships (p. 731). In contrast, as expected because of unbalance and low employee obligations, the under-obligation contract had most negative consequences on employee behaviour and attitudes.

Shore and Barksdale (1998) found that the mutual high obligations group had the lowest intentions to turnover. The results of the study by Tsui *et al.* (1997) were similar. They found that it was not the employer over-investment group who showed the lowest levels of turnover intentions, but the mutual investment group showed lowest turnover intentions. Apparently, the existence of balance in the mutual high obligations group, or mutual investment group, was the decisive factor. Furthermore, these studies imply that beside the fact that it is important to measure the level of balance, it is important to take into account the level of individual obligation because it makes a difference for outcome variables whether an employee under-obligation or over-obligation (or employer over-investment or under-investment) is the case. Employees perceiving to work in an employer under-

¹² Interestingly, they view mobility as a negative effect, while according to us, especially in a modern career context, this does not at all have to be the case. On the contrary, mobility will often be desired.

investment relationship produced the worst results on attitude and performance variables, such as absence, performance on core tasks and citizenship behaviour (Martin *et al.*, 1999, p. 204).

4.2.4.5.1. *Typology of psychological career contracts and consequences for our study*

In our study we use a similar typology of four types of psychological career contracts. On the basis of the commitment and the support dimensions we distinguish between the modern (high/high), the traditional (low/low), the push-related (low/high) and the pull-related type (high/low), consecutively. Here, the first positions refers to commitment and the second one to support.

The terms “push-related” and “pull-related” need some additional explanation (similar terms are used in management literature as well). When commitment of managers is high and the support is low, we call this a pull-related situation. The effects of this type of contract (pull-related) on behaviour originate from the manager's internal drive or motivation. The motivation for career self-management is the driver of, for example, learning behaviour. However, when commitment is low and support is high, the resulting behaviour does not come from an internal drive or motivation but is the effect of efforts of the organisation. The manager has to be more or less forced or pushed to show certain behaviour, in particular learning behaviour. See Figure 4.6. for our typology of psychological career contracts.

		Commitment to career self-management	
		Low	High
Support for career self- management	High	Push-related unbalance (low / high)	Modern balance (High/high)
	Low	Traditional balance (low / low)	Pull-related unbalance (high / low)

Figure 4.6. Four types of psychological career contracts.

We will study how these types of psychological career contracts relate to outcomes in terms of managers' HRD-patterns and their mobility perspectives. In section 4.3. we will further explain the precise expectations that we have with regard to the relation between the psychological career contract and managers' HRD-patterns and mobility perspectives, consecutively.

4.2.5. Relation manager subordinate

Psychological contracts involve relationships between different parties. A special relationship is the one between managers and their subordinates. We will discuss this theme by addressing the role of managers for their subordinates' (career) development. Moreover, some factors influencing this relationship are discussed, in particular the fulfilment of the manager's HR-role.

Questions arise about the relationship between managers' own psychological career contracts and the extent to which they provide support for their subordinates' career development. Furthermore, the question remains to what extent managers' and subordinates' learning behaviour are similar/congruent. Are subordinates inclined to copy their managers' learning behaviour? And does the way managers carry out their HR-tasks (the fulfilment of the HR-role) influence subordinates' learning behaviour? These questions will be addressed by using theory on the new psychological contract as a framework to compare managers' and subordinates' perceptions and behaviour.

The work environment of employees affects their (career) development. In this respect the role of support by peers, co-workers, mentors and supervisors is stressed (Maurer & Tarulli, 1994; Baldwin & Padgett, 1984). Especially, managers play a crucial role in the career development of their subordinates (Lindholm, 1990, p. 173; London, 1986; McCauley *et al.*, 1994; Van Dam, 1999). They are expected to engage in career coaching activities directed at helping their employees' career to develop (Hall *et al.*, 1986; Isaacson & Brown, 1997) The extent to which training and learning get off the ground in a given department will strongly depend on the presence of a stimulating supervisor (Onstenk & Voncken, 1996, p. 62). Hall's (1976) description of the manager as career developer underlines the significance of this role. Not all leadership behaviour, however, is equally supportive to employee development, which is emphasised in the literature on leadership (see also chapter 2). To illustrate this, the transformational¹³ and inspirational style are assumed to be more supportive than the directive and transactional style (Den Hartog *et al.*, 1994; Ten Brink *et al.*, 1999).

The responsibility of managers to promote continuous learning and development increases (Hall & Moss, 1998, p. 30). Managers execute HRD-tasks more and more actively (Mulder, 1992, p. 4). This is partly the consequence of the general decentralisation tendency which has taken place in organisations and which can be seen as one of the major HRD-themes of the last decade (Thijssen, 1998a, p. 23). The responsibility for Human Resource Management and personnel development (or HRD) has shifted away from central staff departments to decentral and autonomic line departments or business units (De Jong, Leenders & Thijssen, 1999; Mulder, 1992; Thijssen, 1998a; Warmerdam & Van den Berg, 1992). As a consequence, individual line managers have become primarily responsible for the development of their people¹⁴.

Managers are expected to facilitate, encourage, and support participation in the learning and development options offered by the company (Maurer & Tarulli, 1994, p. 4). Managerial support for development is an important determinant of people's interest and participation in updating activities (Kozlowski & Farr, 1988; Noe & Wilk, 1993).

By communicating to employees that development activities are valuable experiences and helping employees to develop their skills, managers may positively influence employees' learning attitudes, their perceptions with regard to the benefits that can be obtained from participation in development activities, and their understanding of skills strengths and weaknesses (Leibowitz, Farren & Kaye, 1986). Moreover, supervisors can enhance their subordinates' career motivation (Noe, Noe, & Bachhuber, 1990), encourage growth, and support career planning and development activities as well as involvement in work (Maurer & Tarulli, 1994, p. 11).

So far we have discussed responsibilities for the (career) development of subordinates in rather vague terms. What do these responsibilities entail more precisely?

De Jong, *et al.* (1999) describe various HRD-tasks containing various interventions, ranging from preparatory activities (e.g. needs assessment, formulating learning objectives) via activities during the (training-) programme (e.g. such as creating a positive learning climate and acting as a role model) to follow up activities (such as evaluating the programme and supporting transfer actions). In their study, De Jong, *et al.* (1999) observe three distinct HRD-roles of first level managers: an analytic role, a supportive role and a trainer role. Each of those roles emphasise different HRD-tasks. Roles Noe *et al.* (1990) measured are those of adviser, referral agent, and appraiser, which have been suggested as necessary to facilitate employee development (Noe, 1996, p. 126).

¹³ Transformational leadership contains subdimensions such as charisma, intellectual stimulation, individual attention and contingent rewards.

¹⁴ This means that besides things such as social support, they will also have to reserve budget for these development activities (Mulder, 1992, p. 3).

Lindholm (1990) mentions several insightful examples of career and psychosocial functions managers may fulfil as mentors: 1) discuss subordinates' work: discussions of the subordinate's performance and promotion opportunities, 2) personal sharing: more personal in nature, not related to work, 3) provide exposure: activities providing opportunities for the subordinate to make contacts that may be useful to his or her career, and 4) discuss manager's work: both work-related and personally revealing on the part of the manager.

Furthermore, managers may stimulate people who are working in the same job for a long period to seriously consider looking for another position within or outside the organisation. The opposite might happen as well, when managers might try to bind young and higher educated employees (whose career prospects are good) by offering good career perspectives within the organisation (Wit *et al.*, 1993).

HR-role

The way in which managers handle their HR(D)-responsibilities directly influences the relationship with their subordinates. It is our assumption that when managers fulfil their HR-role well (that is by valuing these HRD-tasks, regularly executing them and being competent with regard to these tasks), it is likely that subordinates perceive their manager to be supportive. Moreover, it is supposed that when employees have a good relation with their managers, they will view their manager as a role model. As a consequence, they will be more inclined to copy their managers. Therefore, we expect behaviour of managers and subordinates to be rather similar and to be positively correlated. Likewise, we expect that this would go too for learning and development behaviour. In a study by Davies and Easterby-Smith (1984, p. 173) it was argued that it was generally advisable for managers to learn from the way their superiors did their jobs and thus to copy or imitate them. The function of role models must obviously not be underestimated. The responsibility for their own development makes them carry out all kinds of career development activities, which they have to stimulate their subordinates to undertake too. To illustrate this, a manager who regards generic HRD-activities as very important for his or her own employability is likely to stimulate his or her employees to broadly develop themselves as well. A similarity or congruence is to be expected between the HRD-pattern of this manager and his or her subordinate. This will count especially in case of a good relationship between manager and subordinate. Furthermore, we expect that the more managers are engaged in HR-tasks (directing subordinates with regard to learning and career), the more they will pay attention to their own development as well. A positive relation is hypothesised between the fulfilment of managers' HR-roles and their HRD-patterns.

Perceptions of different parties

Managers find themselves in a special situation, which makes them simultaneously super-ordinates and subordinates. As managers they supervise their subordinates and at the same time they are in the position of subordinate to their superiors. So, there is a double bottom in the managers' position. Applied to the field of HRD, managers are both subject and object of HRD-policies (Thijssen, 1998a). As object they are liable to management development policies and simultaneously as subjects they create conditions for the development of their subordinates. This double role makes line managers fulfil a key position in a decentralised HRD-policy (Thijssen, 1998a, p. 24).

The implication is that in order for managers to conduct a supportive role, in which they particularly create favourable conditions for learning, they should be facilitated, too. De Jong, *et al.* (1999) argue that "just as first-level managers should be expected to show interest in their subordinates' developmental activities on a daily basis, first-level managers themselves should experience a continuous interest and support by their superiors in their attempts to improve their skills" (p. 182).

From a study by Stoker and De Korte (2001) it seems that there is a large difference between middle and higher levels of management with regard to HRM-activities. Middle managers get much less attention from higher management than they are expected to give to their subordinates.

Moreover, it seems that perceptions vary largely between the different levels in the organisation. Middle managers regard themselves more competent than their bosses and subordinates do. Moreover, it seems that middle managers themselves perceive to be largely engaged in people management, while their subordinates perceive differently (to a lower extent).

The incongruence between expectations of various management levels was first addressed by Miles¹⁵ (1974) in his classic article "Human relations or human resources?" in which he proposed two models of participation. He demonstrated that "there is reason to believe that managers have adopted two different theories or models of participation one for themselves and one for their subordinates" (p. 229). The human relations model is the one managers appear to apply to their subordinates, while at the same time managers would like their superiors to follow the human resources model.

Both the human relations and the human resources model contain assumptions about people's values and capabilities, prescriptions with regard to participative policies and practices and expectations with respect to effects of participation on subordinate morale and performance. A crucial difference between the two models lies in the difference in levels of self-direction allowed to subordinates. According to the human relations model the manager allows only as much participation, self-direction and self-control as is required to obtain co-operation and reduce resistance to formal authority, while according to the human resources model, the manager develops and encourages a continually expanding degree of responsible participation, self-direction and self-control of their subordinates (p. 239). The question is how managers can desire one type of authority and control relationship with their superiors and at the same time advocate another type with their subordinates? An explanation can be found in human nature; managers tend to think more highly of themselves than of their subordinates, and they tend to want more than they are willing to give (p. 237). This goes for managerial traits such as responsibility and initiative as well (p. 235). Managers view themselves as capable of greater self-direction and self-control, but apparently do not attribute such abilities to their subordinates (p. 238).

In Figure 4.7. the arrows symbolise the level of self-management managers expect from their superiors and the level of self-management they are prepared to supply to their subordinates.

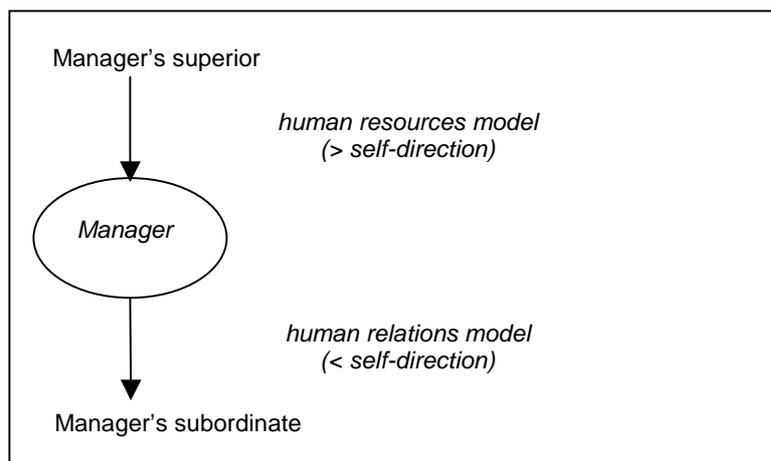


Figure 4.7. Managerial self-management expectations according to two models of participation.

Based on Miles' assumption that the managers' supervisors apply the human relations model to them, while they expect them to use the human resources model, we expect that manager's commitment to

¹⁵ We refer to Miles' text of 1974, which was reprinted from the original "classical" text of 1965.

career self-management will be higher than the level of support for career self-management they perceive to get from their superiors. Moreover, the managers' commitment to career self-management will be higher than the level of support they give to career self-management by their subordinates.

The theory on the psychological contract comes into play here since perceptions of different parties are involved. Several authors emphasise the role of the immediate supervisor for the development of the psychological contract (e.g. Farh, Podsakoff & Organ, 1990; McFarlane Shore & Tetrick, 1994; Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997; Ten Brink *et al.*, 1999).

The individual will have to depend on the immediate supervisor to carry out many of the contract terms. Therefore, the employee is likely to view the supervisor as the chief agent for establishing and maintaining the psychological contract (McFarlane Shore & Tetrick, 1994, p. 101). Moreover, the direct supervisor normally distributes important information and therefore influences the way the psychological contract is developed. A high-quality relationship with one's supervisor will often be sufficient for an individual to feel obliged to stay with the organisation.

Managers' increased HRD-responsibility implies higher expectations with regard to their support for subordinates' development. This support may concern the development of subordinates' responsibility for (career) self-management and the use of all kinds of HRD-activities, which may lead to performance improvement and increased employability.

Here lies an opportunity to stimulate subordinates' self-regulation, also with regard to their careers. "Any manager, on whatever level in the organisation, can use his or her power to promote learning. [...] Good management starts off as self management" (De Jong, Leenders & Thijssen, 1999, p. 183).

In sum, we expect that managers who themselves are supported by their immediate supervisors and thus experience benefits, will in turn feel obligated to supply as much support to their subordinates. This means that a positive relationship is expected between career self-management perceptions at different levels: the manager's perception of supervisor support for career self-management, their own commitment to career self-management and the support for career self-management they provide to their subordinates.

Finally

In this section it has become clear that managers are held increasingly responsible for the development of their subordinates. A lot of pressure is thus exerted on managers, since failure to direct and support subordinates' careers is a severe threat for subordinates' mobility and employability (Van der Heijden, 2000, p. 19).

It would be unfair to expect managers to fulfil their part of the new psychological contract without explicitly paying attention to the development of new skills and attitudes required in order to satisfactorily fulfil these new obligations. Managers have to be thoroughly prepared for and coached in their HRD-responsibility (De Jong, Leenders & Thijssen, 1999, p. 177). Noe (1996, p. 131) adds that to facilitate development behaviour, organisations might best use their resources to train managers in skills needed to support employee development (advising, referral, and feedback skills). Harrison (1992) stresses the idea to train at appraisal, assessment, counselling and coaching skills (p. 130). Furthermore, the advice is that there is more coaching and attention from the side of higher management levels who should fulfil a role model as well (Stoker & De Korte, 2001).

In this study we aim to study the similarity between managers' and subordinates' HRD-patterns and the relation between management perceptions of support obligations in an exploratory way, that is, based only on the mutuality of support perceptions.

4.2.6. Factors influencing the psychological contract

With regard to the individual background characteristics age (a) and educational level (b), we formulate expectations with regard to their relation with the psychological contract.

Ad b. Age and the psychological career contract

In modern times, where a trend towards a more individualistic society can be observed, people are raised as responsible and self-reliant persons. Self-management is thought of as a necessary and typical modern attitude people have to have at their disposal.

In the educational system, this kind of ideas has also found entry and has become common. The new generations are therefore more and more able to take responsibility for their own life, in particular for their professional life. Self-management of one's career is therefore a natural topic for younger people. We therefore expect younger employees to score higher on commitment to career self-management. Older employees are supposed to have more traditional ideas about the division of responsibilities between employer and employee with regard to career development.

With regard to support for career self-management it is more difficult to have clear expectations. Organisations might be inclined to put ample effort in the development of young potential in order to benefit optimally from them and trying to keep them inside the organisation as long as possible, at the same time paying insufficient attention to the career development of older employees. From a human capital perspective, organisations gain benefits from older employees' development during a shorter time-frame. Based on this line of reasoning, support for career self-management of older employees might have a negative relation with age as well, although the importance of a well-developed work force, including the older employee, has recently been more and more emphasised. This goes especially in times of a shortage of labour supply at the labour market.

Having hypothesised on the relation between age and commitment to career self-management and support for career self-management, consecutively, it is a logical result that we expect the psychological contract as a whole (that is the sum of commitment to and support for career self-management) to be different for younger and older employees as well.

According to Herriot (as cited in Anderson & Schalk, 1998, p. 641) older employees have different psychological contracts than younger employees, independent on the type of organisation they work for.

Ad b. Educational level and the psychological career contract

It may be assumed that higher educated employees show initiatives for career development to a high extent, while lower educated employees will show less career development initiatives (Lankhuijzen & Thijssen, 2000, p. 282). In higher levels of education a higher level of self-directed efforts is expected from students. We expect that this will go for corporate settings as well. Higher educated people will have taken this self-directed approach as a natural attitude.

It is of course doubtful that all students are capable of self-managing their learning efforts, let alone of self-managing their careers in later stages of their life. It is, however, likely that higher educated people will more easily self-direct their careers than lower educated people.

Beside our expectation that educational level is positively related to commitment to career self-management, we also expect that organisations will especially direct their support towards the same group of higher educated employees. From them the highest returns on investment in career-related career efforts are expected. In other words we expect a positive relation between educational level and the psychological career contract as a whole as well.

The hypotheses with regard to background characteristics and the psychological career contract will be summarised in section 4.3.4.

4.2.7. Conclusion and discussion: The psychological career contract

We conclude this section about the psychological career contract with a summary of the main points we made throughout the text. We will make some additional remarks with regard to the concept of the psychological contract, its relevance and our specific approach to this concept (the particular focus on career self-management expectations).

The main reason for us to measure the psychological career contract is the fact that the nature of the psychological career contract is expected to have consequences for behaviour and attitudes in our study for learning behaviour and mobility perspectives of managers. As a starting point for our study on the psychological career contract, we chose the work of Rousseau (1990, 1995, 1998a), Hall (1996, 1998) and Shore and Barksdale (1998).

First, by choosing an individual perspective, we follow Rousseau (1995). With her we agree that it is the individual perception of the contract that will influence the behaviour and motivation of people.

The psychological career contract, then, concerns employee's perceptions of mutual expectations that employees and employers have about individual career self-management commitment and organisational career self-management support. We use *expectations* terminology¹⁶, since this has consistently been employed in research and makes sense to respondents (Thomas & Anderson, 1998, p. 753). Moreover, because psychological contracts are largely implicit the term expectation seems appropriate. Beside the theoretical reason for applying the individual perspective, there is also a pragmatic reason for this approach. It seems extremely difficult to attain complete data and matching couples of managers and their managers within one organisation. Furthermore, respondents might find it scary to openly report on each other's behaviour and expectations. In our study we choose an etic approach in order to study psychological contracts across multiple settings and to generalise across them. In this approach, standardised methods are used to test hypotheses. Furthermore, we chose to take as the representative of the organisation the direct supervisor of the managers concerned. We thus want to make sure that a close relationship exists between employer and employee and that it is clear whose expectations are being compared. The relationship between manager and subordinate was explicitly addressed as a special kind of relationship. We expect similarities between their HRD-patterns and their psychological contracts, depending on certain factors such as the HR-role the manager fulfils.

Secondly, for the focus on career expectations we can largely use Hall's (1996, 1998) ideas about the protean career. Hall emphasises the role of both the individual and the organisation in career development. We fully agree with this role division. We therefore measure both the individual commitment to career self-management and the level to which this individual responsibility is perceived to be supported through organisational (mental) support. This contract thus does not concern an instrumental contract. The concrete facilities for career development that organisations may offer to stimulate their employees' career development are more instrumental in nature.

Thirdly, we follow Shore and Barksdale's (1998) assumption that it is important to study the level of balance of the contract. We expect the level to which balance exists between the individual's commitment to career self-management and the support for career self-management provided by the organisation to matter in the light of the development of managers and their mobility perspectives. We do not approach balance as a dichotomous construct, but rather as a continuum, meaning that the psychological contract can be more or less balanced. Different typologies based on the state of balance of the relationship were developed. We proposed our own typology of psychological career

¹⁶ Unlike Rousseau (1995), who refers to the "stronger" promises and obligations.

contracts, containing the modern type, the traditional type, the push-related type and the pull-related type (see Figure 4.6.).

Furthermore, we found some indications of the period of time needed for a psychological contract to develop and to reach relative stability. A period of six months in one's current job seems a justified amount of time to measure the nature of the psychological contract. The final topic we described was the relation between several background characteristics and the psychological career contract. A negative relation is expected between age and the psychological career contract. Educational level is expected to be positively related to the psychological career contract.

At the end of this chapter, we have to make some final remarks about the value of the concept and the use of the term psychological contract. In a critical text, Legge (1996) maintains that with the new approach of HRM (soft HRM) we are *all* managers, since employees become "responsibly autonomous" in their work (p. 55). If that were so, the psychological career contract containing perspectives of employees and supervisors (both being managers!) would not be valuable anymore. This sounds like an exaggeration. Full autonomy by employees at all levels does not match reality, not in the future, either. It is more likely that self-management obligations with regard to work and careers will be subject to discussion and negotiation. Depending on the level to which different parties are given room for self-management, different kinds of psychological career contracts will arise.

Moreover, Guest (1998) wrote an article titled "Is the psychological contract worth taking seriously?" and concludes that despite many problems "there is a case for taking the psychological contract seriously" (p. 659). He then mentions three reasons for this. First, the psychological contract might serve to make sense of and explore new employment relationship. Secondly, it explicitly addresses the distribution of power. Individuals may be better protected against large powerful organisations by making the contracts explicit. The third reason concerns the possibility to integrate key organisational concepts. Rousseau (1998a) adds that psychological contract research has built theory that helps explain phenomena that were previously unknown or not understood (p. 669).

Several authors (Shore & Barksdale, 1998; Tsui *et al.*, 1997) argue that the psychological contract is different than an employee-organisation relationship or an exchange relationship. While the psychological contract includes contract terms, exchange relationships are described in terms of e.g. level of balance. These terms, however, are closely related. In our study we choose the term psychological contract, although arguments in favour of another term could be given. The core is that we deal with employee's perceptions of mutual expectations. The fact that we include only the employee's perspective does in our view not make it impossible to speak of a psychological contract. Furthermore, Guest (1998) raises some questions about whether the metaphor of a contract is legal (since a large part of subjectivity exists within the psychological contract) and the seemingly easy way in which the principle of agreement is dealt with. In a reaction Rousseau (1998a) considers this latter line of criticism a misconception by Guest. It is the *perception* of mutuality, not necessarily mutuality in fact that is at the heart of the psychological contract.

The final remark concerns our focus on the career. Guest (1998, p. 654) states that we should be cautious in assuming that career concerns are particularly salient as content of the psychological contract. In spite of this warning we want to study this phenomenon on its impact on learning behaviour. One of the main reasons is that this was not studied before.

4.3. Research model

Central in the final part of this chapter is the research model as a whole (4.3.1.), which will be taken as the starting point for the empirical study described in the next chapters. Next, the relations of the model will be addressed. In 4.3.2. the relationship between the psychological career contract and the HRD-pattern will be described. In 4.3.3. influences on mobility perspective will be reported. We will finish this chapter with an overview of hypotheses (4.3.4.), which will include a summary of hypotheses on background variables as well.

4.3.1. Explanation of the research model

The basic research model is given in Figure 4.8.

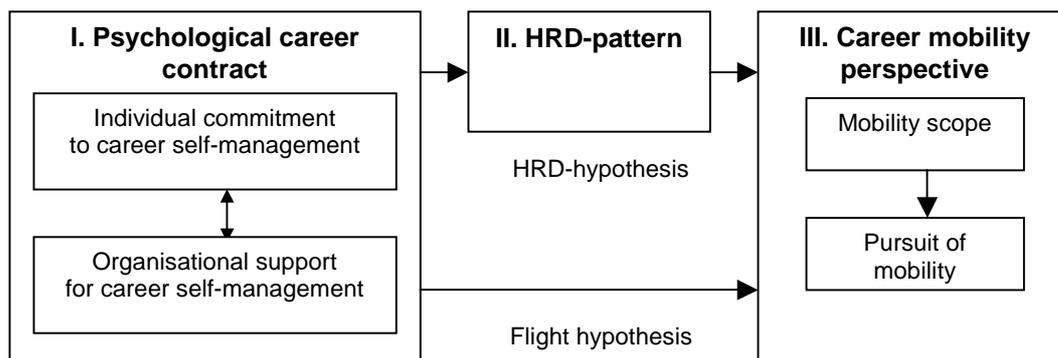


Figure 4.8. Conceptual research model.

The model contains several theoretical concepts, which are formulated at different levels of human (mental) activity. The psychological career contract represents an *attitude*, more precisely, the self-management attitude with regard to career development. This self-management attitude will influence career development *behaviour*. The HRD-pattern represents managers' behaviour. It is a pattern of various HRD-activities varying along the dimensions frequency, generic value and planning. The constellation of these activities represents the manager's learning behaviour. Mobility perspective stands for a future *intention* or mobility potential. Based on the experiences with the psychological career contract (perceptions) and with (learning) behaviour, a certain future orientation develops. Hence, we do not measure the actual mobility behaviour of employees, but rather the chance on mobility in the future. An argument in favour of this choice is made by Herriot and Pemberton (1996, p. 777) who state that the likelihood of perceptions of ability is a more powerful predictor of promotion than measures of ability. Moreover, this choice can be founded by the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen & Madden, 1986)¹⁷. These theories state that behaviour can well be predicted from people's intentions. With regard to the mobility issue, Wit *et al.* (1993) hold that mobility is well predictable based on employees' intentions with regard to mobility. Moreover, psychological research has illustrated that behavioural intentions are good predictors of actual behaviour (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979).

Figure 4.8. shows two paths. The upper path is called the HRD- or learning path. According to this path the psychological career contract indirectly influences the mobility perspective via the learning behaviour of managers. The lower path represents a direct relation between the psychological career

¹⁷ Recently, discussions are being held about whether intentions predict behaviour or whether it is the other way around. Crombag (2001) states that "regrettably, nothing predicts the future as good as the past".

contract and the mobility perspective. This is called the flight hypothesis. These hypotheses will be further addressed below.

Level of modernity and level of balance

Before we can describe our hypotheses with regard to the psychological career contract, we need to give some further explanation of approaches of the psychological contract. We assume that there are two relevant ways of approaching the psychological contract. First, the whole of career self-management commitment and career self-management support represents the “*level of modernity*” of the contract. In other words, the higher the score on these dimensions together, the higher the level of modernity of the psychological career contract. We assume that the modernity of the contract is positively related to learning behaviour (HRD-pattern) and mobility perspective. To explain, we suppose that the more modern the nature of the psychological career contract as a whole, the more positive the influence on future-oriented HRD-activities will be. That is, modern psychological career contracts are expected to result in richer HRD-patterns. In turn, these richer HRD-patterns are expected to broaden the range of jobs that managers are capable to fulfil. In sum, the path between modern career perceptions and mobility perspective goes via the HRD-pattern, which we will further call the HRD-path.

Secondly, a more complex approach of the commitment and the support scores is according to a balance perspective. Then, the scores on both dimensions separately have meaning. By subtracting the support score from the commitment score, we get a balance score. The assumption is that balance is to be preferred. Unbalance of the contract is expected to have negative consequences for the commitment employees have to their business unit or organisation and is thus likely to result in (organisation-external) pursuit of mobility. Therefore this path is indicated as the flight-path.

We will now continue this section with addressing the relations of the research model. First, the relation between the psychological career contract and the HRD-pattern is described (4.3.1.). After that, relations with mobility perspective will be described. The influence of both the psychological career contract and the HRD-pattern on mobility perspective will be discussed (4.3.2.). From literature we generated hypotheses with regard to these relations.

4.3.2. The relationship between the psychological career contract and the HRD-pattern

Important elements of the psychological contract are: 1) commitment to career self-management, 2) support for career self-management, 3) level of modernity of the psychological career contract, 4) level of balance of the psychological career contract, and 5) types of the psychological career contract. Hypotheses have been formulated on the basis of these five elements.

Managers who are eager to take ownership of their career development are expected to learn in another way than managers with more traditional views of their career. To illustrate this, in traditional labour relations one could survive by learning new tasks, coincidentally met on the job. Then, being passive and leaving initiatives to the organisation was not problematic. In contrast, nowadays merely specific development and unplanned HRD-strategies are not sufficient. We therefore expect that commitment to career self-management is positively related to HRD-pattern (frequency, generic value and planning of HRD-activities).

The same is expected when managers are supported for taking ownership of their own career development (regardless the level of commitment they themselves express). In other words, we expect a positive unique effect of support for career self-management on HRD-pattern. However, we do assume that the individual responsibility for career self-management has a larger impact on HRD-pattern than support alone will have.

The higher the scores on both commitment and support, the richer the HRD-pattern is expected to be. Level of modernity is therefore expected to relate positively to HRD-pattern. This expectation is explicated in several studies on the expectations of employer and employee about *development* (Baldwin, Magjuka & Loher, 1991; Granrose & Portwood, 1987; Noe & Wilk, 1993). These studies have demonstrated that the congruence between employee and organisational perceptions of development needs influences, among various other things, the motivation to learn.

In section 4.2.4. we have already concluded that in general an unbalanced contract has negative effects. We therefore expect that the larger the level of unbalance of the contract, the poorer the HRD-pattern of managers will be.

Finally, by making use of the above assumptions, it is possible to formulate expectations about the order of effects that the different types of psychological career contracts will have on the HRD-patterns of managers. According to a modernity approach, we expect that the modern contract leads to the richest HRD-patterns, and the traditional contracts to the poorest.

Likewise, according to a balance approach¹⁸, we expect that the balanced contracts lead to the richest HRD-patterns, and the unbalanced contracts to the poorest.

Furthermore, we are interested whether the relation between the psychological career contract at the mental level and the richness of the HRD-pattern is moderated by the level of perceived (concrete) facilities for career development. We assume that at least a certain level of facilities is required from the organisation, in order for managers to be able to self-manage their career development and to use HRD-activities in particular.

4.3.3. Influences on mobility perspective

First, we will generate hypotheses with regard to the relation between the HRD-pattern and mobility perspective (4.3.3.1.). In 4.3.3.2. the central relation will be the one between the psychological career contract and the mobility perspective of managers.

The mobility perspective contains various aspects: mobility scope (horizontal and vertical) and pursuit of mobility (organisation-internal and external) (see section 4.1.4.).

4.3.3.1. HRD-pattern and the mobility perspective

In section 4.1.6. we explained that three learning dimensions are especially important for modern career development: frequency, generic value and planning. These three dimensions together make up the *broader* HRD-pattern. HRD-activities which occur frequently, have a broad applicability and are directed towards career goals, represent a rich HRD-pattern. A rich pattern is thought to have the strongest effect on the mobility scope, or employability, of individuals. We therefore expect that the HRD-pattern as a whole is positively related to mobility scope. Moreover, we assume that it is especially the generic value of HRD-activities that will influence the size of the mobility scope, that is, we expect the relation of generic value of HRD-activities to be stronger correlated to mobility scope than frequency and planning of HRD-activities.

Furthermore, we expect that through the effect that mobility scope may have on the pursuit of mobility, HRD-activities will positively influence the pursuit of mobility indirectly. As such, the mobility perspective as a whole is assumed to be related to HRD-pattern in a positive way.

4.3.3.2. The psychological career contract and mobility perspective

Beside the effect that HRD-patterns have on mobility perspectives, we assume that the mobility perspective (mobility scope and pursuit of mobility) partly depends on the nature of the psychological

¹⁸ Both the terms approach and perspective will be used to refer to modernity and balance notions.

career contract. Individual expectations managers have about career development may be more or less modern. According to modern views on careers, it is more common to pursue mobility and therefore to work on one's opportunities to become mobile. As we stated before, the broadening of one's mobility scope is essential, which can be accomplished by using (generic) HRD-activities. Furthermore, it is likely that managers holding modern career expectations, which are supported by the organisation, will be more inclined to strive for mobility than managers with traditional thoughts about careers.

We expect that both commitment to and support for career self-management have a positive effect on pursuit of mobility. The explanation is that according to modern career conceptions it is more common to strive for mobility and to work on one's mobility opportunities.

The relation between the psychological career contract and mobility scope is expected to be mediated by the HRD-pattern. HRD-activities are used to enhance one's employability security. The relation between the psychological career contract and pursuit of mobility is expected to be a direct one.

This direct relation can be explained by two different approaches. Based on a modernity approach, we expect that managers holding modern ideas with regard to careers will overall be more inclined to strive for mobility. Based on a balance approach this pursuit of mobility can also be explained but this concerns a totally different line of argumentation. Now, it is not the modern career attitude that leads to a focus on mobility, rather it is the level of satisfaction that is supposed to determine the extent to which managers want to become mobile. The direction of the pursuit will depend on the relation they have with their current employer, unit, or direct supervisor. We expect that the larger the level of unbalance, the stronger the manager's reaction will be. This corresponds with a higher pursuit of mobility, both organisation-internally and organisation-externally. The pursuit of external mobility as a result of large unbalance of the contract represents a response that McFarlane Shore and Tetrick (1994) call "exit", or withdrawal from the situation. This hypothesis was earlier supported in the study of Larwood *et al.* (1998) who found a negative relation between fit of the psychological contract and intention to turnover.

In accordance with Shore and Barksdale's (1998) assumption that contracts containing mutual high expectations lead to the lowest intention to turnover, we expect that managers with balanced contracts will strive for *internal* mobility. The satisfactorily balanced relationship makes managers want to stay with the organisation. Simultaneously, their modern career attitude leads to an internal motivation to strive for mobility.

Expectations with regard to the types of psychological career contracts and their relation with mobility perspective can be formulated similarly. A major assumption is that unbalance leads to pursuit of external mobility, especially when the commitment to career self-management is high. To explain, individual career self-management itself will have a stronger effect on e.g. career-related outcomes than organisational support for career self-management alone. Without the commitment of the individual, organisational support will not have that much effect. Managers holding contract types with high unbalance in combination with high commitment are supposed to have the largest score on pursuit of mobility; managers holding balanced contracts with low levels of career self-management commitment are expected to have the lowest level of pursuit of mobility. Because this hypothesis is based on a combination of both the modernity and the balance perspective, we will call this the combination hypothesis¹⁹. This hypothesis is not a main hypothesis, but will be addressed.

In sum, as an alternative for the HRD-hypothesis (the upper path in the model), we propose the "flight hypothesis" (the lower path in the model) which is based on the balance approach. It describes the

¹⁹ This hypothesis is no main hypothesis and is therefore not included in the overviews. In chapter 7 it will be addressed as an alternative hypothesis.

possibility to leave the organisation by pursuing (organisation-external) mobility when the level of unbalance is high. The HRD-hypothesis and the flight hypothesis will both be tested. It will be determined which of both hypotheses and hypotheses is more plausible.

4.3.4. Overview of hypotheses

In the main study several main research questions will be addressed. The first questions focus on the characterisation of managers' HRD-patterns, their psychological career contracts and their mobility perspective and the relation with several background characteristics. The most important research question is how these three research questions are interrelated. We will test our research model in which these relations have been presented. In table 4.7. we provide an overview of hypotheses with regard to the research model as a whole. These hypotheses will be tested in the chapters 6 and 7. Moreover, we will explicate some extra hypotheses. These regard the relation between managers' psychological career contracts and the support they give to their subordinates' career self-management in turn.

Table 4.7. *Overview of hypotheses regarding relations between the psychological career contract, HRD-pattern and mobility-perspective²⁰.*

Research-model	Hypotheses ²¹	To be tested in:
Question: What is the relation between managers' psychological career contracts, HRD-patterns and mobility-perspectives?	I. Psychological career contract and HRD-pattern (section 4.3.2.)	Chapter 6
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. CSM-commitment as a whole has a positive effect on HRD-pattern; b. CSM-support as a whole has a positive effect on HRD-pattern; c. CSM-commitment has a stronger effect on HRD-pattern than CSM-support; d. Level of modernity of the psychological career contract positively influences the HRD-pattern e. Level of unbalance of the psychological career contract negatively influences the HRD-pattern. 	
	II. HRD-pattern and mobility-perspective (section 4.3.3.1.)	Chapter 7
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. HRD-pattern (frequency, generic value and planning) has a positive effect on mobility-perspective as a whole and on mobility-scope. Generic value will have the strongest effect; b. Mobility-scope fulfils an intermediary function between HRD-pattern (frequency, generic value and planning) and pursuit of mobility. 	
	III. Psychological career contract and mobility-perspective (4.3.3.2.)	Chapter 7
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. CSM-commitment as a whole has a positive effect on pursuit of mobility; b. CSM-support as a whole has a positive effect on pursuit of mobility. c. Level of modernity of the psychological career contract positively influences the pursuit of mobility. d. Level of unbalance of the psychological career contract positively influences the pursuit of mobility e. The relation between CSM-commitment as a whole and mobility-scope is mediated by HRD-pattern. f. The relation between CSM-support as a whole and mobility-scope is mediated by HRD-pattern. g. The relation between level of modernity of the psychological career contract and mobility-scope is mediated by the HRD-pattern. 	

²⁰ CSM is the abbreviated term for "career self-management".

²¹ In between brackets it is indicated in which section the particular hypothesis has been described.

Extra hypotheses	<i>IV. Relation manager-subordinate (section 4.2.5.)</i>	Chapter 6
<i>Question:</i> What is the relation between managers' and subordinates' psychological career contracts and HRD-patterns?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. A positive relation exists between fulfilment of the HR-role and subordinate support as part of the psychological career contract. b. The fulfilment of the HR-role relates positively to the HRD-pattern of managers themselves. c. Managers' CSM-commitment is higher than their perception of supervisor support for career self-management. d. Managers' CSM-commitment is higher than their support for subordinates' career self-management. e. A positive relation exists between supervisor-support, commitment and subordinate support for career self-management. 	

Table 4.8. below gives an overview of hypotheses belonging to the research question how do background characteristics relate to managers' HRD-patterns, psychological career contracts and mobility perspectives, consecutively. These hypotheses have been introduced in sections 4.1.7. and 4.2.6. and will be tested in chapters 6 and 7.

Table 4.8. *Overview of hypotheses regarding background-characteristics*

Background-characteristics	HRD-pattern (section 4.1.7.1.) (tested in chapter 6)	Dependent variables	
		Psychological career contract (section 4.2.6.) (tested in chapter 6)	Mobility-perspective (section 4.1.7.2.) (tested in chapter 7)
Age ²²	- (frequency, generic value, planning, and HRD-pattern as a whole) (Va)	- (commitment, support, contract as a whole) (Ve)	+ mobility-scope (Vg1) - pursuit of mobility ²³ (Vg2)
Educational level	+ (frequency, generic value, planning, and HRD-pattern as a whole) (Vb)	+ (commitment, support, contract as a whole) (Vf)	+ mobility-scope (Vh1) + pursuit of mobility (Vh2)
Management-level	+ (frequency, generic value, planning ²⁴ and HRD-pattern as a whole) (Vc)	No hypothesis	No hypothesis
Mobility-opportunities (existing vertical and horizontal positions)	No hypothesis	No hypothesis	- pursuit of external mobility (Vi)
Job expiration	+ (frequency, generic value, planning and HRD-pattern as a whole) (Vd)	No hypothesis	+ pursuit of mobility ²⁵ (Vj)

Explanation: an expectation of a negative relation is indicated with "-"; an expectation of a positive relation is indicated with "+". In parentheses the number of the hypothesis is given.

Finally

Mobility perspectives are expected to be influenced by a complex of factors. The nature of the psychological career contract, the richness of HRD-patterns and several background characteristics are all thought to be related to this concept.

²² and other time- and experience related factors such as job- and organisational tenure, years of working experience, number of job changes and number of management-jobs.

²³ The negative relation with organisation-external pursuit of mobility is expected to be stronger than with organisation-internal pursuit of mobility.

²⁴ The relation with planning is however not that transparent.

²⁵ Meaning that the sooner job expiration is expected the larger the pursuit of mobility.

We wonder which of the two described paths gets more support, the HRD-path or the flight path. The HRD-path is characterised by a proactive attitude of modern employees to further their careers. Through carrying out all kinds of HRD-activities managers enhance their mobility perspective and thus their chance of a job elsewhere. The flight path is characterised by a certain level of dissatisfaction based on an unbalanced psychological career contract and makes managers strive for (external) mobility. Both paths will be studied in the next chapters in which an empirical study in six organisations will be described, aimed at testing the research model and according hypotheses.

In chapter 5, we will first describe the development of the instrument to be used in the main study. Furthermore, the methods of the main study will be described (such as selection of participants, procedure, etc.).

Chapter 5

Method: Pilot and main study

This chapter will describe the method of the second and the third research phases. The central aim of this chapter is to describe the development of a research instrument, which contains the three main concepts of the research model: 1) the HRD-pattern, 2) the psychological career contract, and 3) the mobility perspective of managers.

Section 5.1. will first describe the choice for a written questionnaire as research instrument. Furthermore, the measurements of the three central concepts of the instrument will be addressed. Section 5.2. will describe the second research phase, consisting of a pilot study we conducted to test the research instrument. Results of reliability analyses will be presented. In section 5.3. we will describe the methods of the main study (third research phase). Additional analyses will be presented with regard to the reliability of the scales. Issues with regard to the validity of the instrument will be reported. In subsection 5.3.4. an overview will be given of the (adjusted) scales we will use throughout the empirical chapters 6 and 7.

5.1. The instrument

Several choices could be made with regard to type of instrument to be used in our study, such as interviews, observations or a written questionnaire. We have chosen for the written questionnaire, or survey, as research instrument. One of the reasons for this choice is that we intended to conduct the study at a relatively large scale, for which a standardised instrument was needed. Furthermore, standardisation was needed in order to conduct our study in several organisations. Another important reason is that in the field of study, several other studies have been conducted based on written questionnaires as research instruments. Rousseau *et al.* (1998b) developed the Psychological Contract Inventory, and Freese *et al.* (1999) developed an instrument on the psychological contract and intention to leave (to be compared with our pursuit of mobility). In short, instrument development on several central concepts had already progressed. We decided to join a quantitative approach and to develop a standardised written questionnaire.

In the following subsections the measurement of the three main concepts of this study will be described: the HRD-pattern (5.1.1.), the psychological career contract (5.1.2.) and the mobility perspective (5.1.3.). Subsection 5.1.4. will describe the measurement of background characteristics related to the research model.

5.1.1. HRD-pattern

We had to develop a reliable and valid instrument to measure individual managers' HRD-activities, according to new or "modern" career notions as reported on in chapter four. The following measures are needed: a. frequency, b. generic value, and c. planning of HRD-activities. For the development of these measures we can partly build on the categorisation of HRD-activities we presented in chapter 2. We asked managers to reflect on their HRD-activities of the previous twelve months. In this way, the time range on which managers reflect is equal for the total sample. All items with regard to the HRD-pattern are measured on five-point Likert-scales¹. This section will finish with analyses of the HRD-pattern of subordinates (ad d.).

Ad a. Frequency of HRD-activities

Frequency of HRD-activities is of importance because it is assumed that higher investments (qua time) in HRD-activities generally contribute to improvement of performance and employability.

We use self-perception measures to study the frequency of HRD-activities. In other studies, investment in learning and training was measured by self-report as well (e.g. Kwakman, 1999; Maurer & Tarulli, 1994; Warmerdam & Van den Berg, 1992). Beside relative measures of frequency of HRD-activities (Likert-scales), more objective measures can be developed, e.g. by asking managers to indicate the amount of time spent on HRD-activities in terms of days per year, or hours per week (=absolute measure). In this pilot study, we use both a relative and an absolute measure of frequency of HRD-activities.

Relative measure

Seven items measured frequency of HRD-activities. Each category of HRD-activities was measured by one item, except for the informal category for which we formulated four items (one item for each learning-by-doing activity). See Table 5.1. for the formulated items.

Absolute measure

We asked managers to indicate the amount of time spent on the categories of HRD-activities, except for the learning-by-doing category. This latter HRD-activity is highly integrated into work; it would be hardly possible for managers to distinguish between how much time was actually spent on learning and how much time was spent on working. Amount of time spent on formal HRD-activities is measured in number of days during the previous twelve months. Information seeking and asking advice are measured by the number of times managers were engaged in these activities per week, and by the average duration of these activities.

Other career development activities

We asked managers how much time they invested in other career development activities, beside the time they spent on HRD-activities. With "other career development activities" we mean the career development activities that Ball (1997, see section 4.1.2.) distinguishes besides "engaging in personal development" (what we describe as using HRD-activities): optimising the situation, career planning and balancing work and non-work.

¹ 1 represents a low score and 5 a high score.

Ad b. Generic value of HRD-activities

Generic value of HRD-activities is viewed as the major dimension of HRD-activities in the light of employability and mobility. Generic HRD-activities have a large transfer value and are often put in contrast with the smaller transfer value of (task- or job-)specific learning.

The generic value of HRD-activities represents the value the outcomes of HRD-activities have for future jobs. We formulated eight items according to the four categories of HRD-activities (see Table 5.1.). With regard to formal HRD-activities, a distinction is made between value for future jobs *within* and *outside* the current organisation.

Table 5.1. *Items for frequency (relative) and generic value of HRD-activities.*

Frequency:	To what extent did you use the following HRD-activities?
Generic value:	To what extent are HRD-activities you used valuable for future jobs?
1.	Formal HRD-activities (education, courses, training, workshops, etc.) (for generic value: future jobs within and outside the organisation)
2.	Information seeking
3.	Asking advice
4.	Learning by doing (a. trial and error; b. routinising; c. increasing level of difficulty; d. experimenting)

Measured on five-point Likert-scales (1=to a very low extent to 5=to a very high extent).

Ad c. Planning HRD-activities

People who are committed to develop their careers are assumed to plan their HRD-activities in order to reach career goals. Planning HRD-activities is measured by a selection of items of Megginson's (1995) Learning Strategies Questionnaire, which entails items on the strategies planned and emergent learning. The questions are specifically focused on managers' learning behaviour on the job. The questionnaire was originally in English and was translated into Dutch by Van der Sluis-Den Dikken (2000). Instead of the original 7-point Likert-scale Megginson used, we used a 5-point Likert-scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). We made some slight adjustments to the items. Table 5.2. shows the planning items (see Appendix 5.1. for Megginson's original scale and items in Dutch). Planning HRD-activities was measured in general and not (like frequency and generic value) according to the four categories of HRD-activities specifically.

Table 5.2. *Items for planning of HRD-activities² (p=planned; e=emergent).*

1.	I set targets for my development to continuously develop myself (p);
2.	In conversation with others I often come to new understandings of what I have learned (e);
3.	I set goals for my own learning (p);
4.	I regularly learn by accident (e);
5.	I use a personal learning contract (or development agreement) in which I formulate goals for my development (p);
6.	Most of my new learning emerges unexpectedly from things that happen (e);
7.	Writing down appraisals of my work performance is an important basis for setting new learning goals (p).
8.	You cannot plan significant learning (e).

Ad d. Subordinates' HRD-activities

Four items measured frequency of subordinates' HRD-activities (from the manager's perspective). Generic value of subordinates' HRD-activities was measured only for *formal* HRD-activities, because it is hardly possible for managers to have insight into the value that informal HRD-activities carried out by subordinates will have. Finally, two items in terms of statements measured planning subordinates' HRD-activities.

² Although the planning items have been formulated in the present tense, managers were asked to reflect on the level of planning of HRD-activities of the previous twelve months.

Table 5.3. *Items subordinates' HRD-activities.*

Subordinates' HRD-activities	
<i>Frequency</i>	To what extent did your subordinates use: 1. Use formal HRD-activities; 2. Seek information; 3. Ask advice; and 4. Learn by doing?
<i>Generic value</i>	To what extent do your subordinates' formal HRD-activities have value for future jobs? 5. Within the current organisation; 6. Outside the current organisation.
<i>Planning</i>	7. Many of my subordinates make a personal development plan in which they formulate targets for their development; 8. All of my subordinates regard it self-evident to set learning goals for their work.

5.1.2. The psychological career contract

We distinguish between psychological career contracts at a mental (perceptions) level and at a more concrete level (facilities for career development). First, the development of the mental psychological career contract will be described (5.1.2.1.). The development of the psychological career contract in terms of facilities will then be addressed (5.1.2.2.).

5.1.2.1. *The psychological career contract: Mental*

We identified the psychological career contract as a relevant theoretical concept in relation to learning by managers and the development of their mobility perspectives. It was necessary to develop our own instrument of the psychological career contract, since existing psychological contract instruments are neither specifically focused on career expectations nor on self-management perceptions. In accordance with Rousseau's (1995) approach, we chose for the measurement of the psychological career contract from an individual perspective.

The following operational definition was used as a starting point to measure the modern psychological career contract: employee's perceptions of mutual expectations and obligations employees and employers have about individual career self-management commitment and organisational career self-management support. Accordingly, the construct of the psychological career contract is the composite of two different perspectives: individual career self-management commitment and organisational support for career self-management.

1. *Individual commitment to career self-management*

The extent to which a manager feels obliged to him/herself to take self-regulated career efforts. This individual perspective will be abbreviated as CSM-commitment (CSM stands for career self-management) or simply as "commitment". We measured this perspective by the following statement (which will be completed with the career development activities a manager may feel responsible for):

Commitment statement: *I ought to ...*
(e.g. be alert at changes in the organisation's career policy)

2. *Organisational support for career self-management*

The extent to which managers perceive to receive support from the organisation to self-manage their career development. The organisation is represented by the manager's direct supervisor (see section 4.2.3.). This organisational perspective will be abbreviated as CSM-support, or simply as "support".

Support statement: *My direct supervisor encourages me to ...*
(e.g. distribute time and energy over work and leisure time)

The commitment and support statements were followed by the four career competences as distinguished by Ball (1997; see section 4.1.2.): 1. Optimising the situation; 2. Career planning; 3. Personal development, and 4. Balancing work and non-work. Since it is difficult to interpret commitment (or responsibility) to career *competences*, we transformed them into career development *activities*. In Table 5.4. an overview is given of the operational definitions of the career development activities according to which the psychological career contract items were developed.

Table 5.4. *Overview of operational definitions of career development activities.*

Career development activities

1. Optimising the situation

Optimising one's career prospects by:

- a. Being alert at changes that can be important for the course of one's career;
- b. Promoting one's career interests;
- c. Making contacts and building networks.

2. Using career planning skills

Planning one's career by:

- a. Reviewing and reflecting on one's current position;
- b. Exploring opportunities and changes in the light of perceived career needs;
- c. Planning further career steps and taking career initiatives.

3. Engaging in personal development

Activities that can be realised to compensate a certain perceived developmental need with the aim to further develop one's competence needed for fulfilling one's current job and to enlarge one's employability. Aspects we distinguish as typical for engaging in personal development are:

- a. Investigating development needs (for current job and future jobs);
- b. Taking a self-development approach (characteristic of an effective learner) by determining learning preferences/style, taking a positive learning attitude, etc.);
- c. Involving others in the learning process.

4. Balancing work and non-work

The process of finding a balance between the (seemingly) contradictory interests of one's current job, one's career and one's private life, by:

- a. Evaluating current job position and job satisfaction;
 - b. Clarifying personal values and career values;
 - c. Integrating individual, family and career needs.
-

Two items were formulated per aspect of the operational definition, which resulted in six items per category of career development activities. The total scales of individual commitment and organisational support contain 24 items (see Table 5.5.). The Dutch items are presented in Appendix 5.2. Hence, both perspectives were measured with a parallel set of items.

Table 5.5. *Items psychological career contract.*

Career development activities	Items ³
1. Optimising	1. Pay attention constantly to changes in the organisation which are important for further career progress (a); 2. Be alert for changes in the organisation's career policy (a); 3. Regularly explain career interests to persons who are important for my career (b); 4. Indicate in which jobs within the organisation I'm interested most (b); 5. Build networks of people at all levels within and outside the organisation who may promote my career development (c); 6. Make contact and collaborate with people who are valuable for my further career (c).
2. Career planning	7. Continuously reflect on whether my current position in the department and the organisation is the right one (a); 8. Constantly review if, when and where to I want to take a next career step (a); 9. Constantly consider which interesting vacancies exist within and outside the organisation (b); 10. Orientate at career opportunities by approaching colleagues, during receptions or meetings, who may tell me more about their job or activities (b); 11. Sketch a path or make plans to reach career goals (c); 12. Plan successive career steps (c).
3. Personal development	13. Continuously reflect on how my job can be performed better (more efficiently) and consequently link HRD-activities to this (a); 14. Think about which courses or other HRD-activities are needed to reach future career goals (a); 15. Find out in which way I prefer to learn and which way suits me best (e.g. by following courses, learning on the job, etc.) (b); 16. Use as much opportunities as possible to learn from my work (b); 17. Often gather people around me who may support me when I meet challenging learning situations / activities (c); 18. Consult experts on a certain domain whenever needed (c).
4. Balancing work and non-work	19. Evaluate my current job and reflect on the extent to which I am satisfied with it (a); 20. Keep a constant eye on the demands placed on me by the organisation and to let them know when the balance with my private life is threatened to be disturbed (a); 21. Clarify what is important in life (b); 22. Get a clear picture of the desired career situation in five years (b); 23. Continuously distribute time and energy over work and leisure time (c); 24. Create my career without endangering my personal values (c).

Managers could react on these statements on five-point Likert-scales (1=fully disagree to 5=fully agree). A high score represents a modern attitude towards labour relations in which self-direction is largely expected from the individual. A low score represents traditional conceptions of labour relations in which individual self-direction is less emphasised.

The psychological career contract measures concern self-perception items. Rousseau and Tijoriwala (1998) recommend the use of subjective measures (self-report) because they are the most direct sources of information with regard to nature and content of the psychological contract. It is the individual perception of reality that is important; these perceptions have to be understood and not so much the objective reality (see further section 4.2.3. for measurement issues).

³ The letter between brackets refers to the aspect of the operational definition (Table 5.4.).

A third perspective: Support for subordinates' career self-management

A third perspective on the psychological career contract that we distinguish is the extent to which managers provide support to their subordinates to self-manage their career development. Although this perspective is not part of the manager's own psychological career contract, we will describe it under the header of the psychological career contract since it has been measured with the same set of items and because subordinate support is supposed to be closely related to the manager's own career perceptions.

This measure is required to study the relation between managers' expectations of supervisor support and their own behaviour towards subordinates. With this measure, we are able to address the research question about the relation between managers and subordinates particularly with regard to career self-management expectations. Do managers act consequently, that is, to they use the same model of participation (Miles, 1965) regarding their own career development and their subordinates' career development? Do they give support to their subordinates' career self-management to an equal extent as what they expect from their supervisors? (see section 4.2.5.)

For the measurement of this third perspective the same set of items is used as for the other perspectives (commitment and support). Support for subordinates' career self-management will further be abbreviated as CSM-subordinate support, or simply as "subordinate support".

Subordinate support statement: *I encourage my employees to ...
(e.g. constantly review if, when and where to they want to take a
next career step)*

5.1.2.2. The psychological career contract: Facilities

In the previous section, organisational support for career self-management was formulated in terms of "mental" support. Besides this meaning, support may refer to organisational support in terms of concrete facilities for career development. A comparison of desired and actually offered facilities for career development refers to the psychological career contract at a more concrete level. Strictly speaking, this is not a "psychological" contract, since the term "psychological" implies implicitness. Still, we do want to stress the importance of balance of expectations managers have with regard to facilities for career development and the actual supply of such facilities by the organisation. The assumption is that it is not only the perceived mutuality of *perceptions* at a mental level, but also the balance with regard to concrete *facilities* that influences career development and mobility perspectives of managers.

In the questionnaire the two dimensions of the psychological career contract in terms of facilities are measured as follows:

1. Desired facilities

The extent to which managers expect their organisation to supply facilities for their career development.

Desired facilities statement: *In my opinion the organisation should provide the following facilities ...*

2. Actually offered (or perceived) facilities

The extent to which managers perceive their organisation to actually provide facilities for their career development.

Actually offered facilities statement: *In my opinion the organisation actually provides the following facilities ...*

For each career development activity three facilities were formulated, thus resulting in the following list of 12 facilities (see Table 5.6.; see Appendix 5.3. for Dutch items).

Table 5.6. *Items for organisational facilities for career development.*

Career development activities	Items (facilities)
1. Optimising	1. Information concerning changes which will happen, or which can be expected to happen, that may be important for my career progress; 2. Opportunities to participate in social networks (such as teams, project groups, committees, target groups, etc.) within and outside the organisation; 3. A system in which employees' career interests may be registered, for example linked to the use of performance reviews;
2. Career planning	4. Career counselling and advice (e.g. by an external agency or by experienced colleagues, boss, mentor, etc.); 5. Courses, workshops and self-study material (do-it-yourself books and software) in which attention is paid to career planning skills; 6. A regular overview of internal vacancies;
3. Personal development	7. A system of mentors or other people who support learning processes of employees at all levels in the organisation; 8. The opportunity to engage in job-specific HRD-activities <u>and</u> generic (widely applicable) HRD-activities;
4. Balancing work and non-work	9. Sufficient time (also during work) and money to facilitate HRD-activities; 10. Various secondary labour conditions, such as a day care centre, parental leave, health care leave and opportunities to work part-time; 11. An atmosphere in which not only work is important, but "life outside work" is valued as well; 12. An explicit policy in which employees are seen as more than a production factor only, that is, as complete human beings operating in society.

5.1.3. Mobility perspective

Outcomes of labour-related learning which are increasingly valued nowadays are employability-related. The mobility perspective of managers is such a relevant outcome of learning. Several authors measured concepts such as mobility readiness, mobility ability, readiness and ability to be educated, employability willingness and ability (e.g. De Grip, Van Loo & Sanders, 1998; Freese *et al.*, 1999; Schalk *et al.*, 1995). We could partly use these existing scales, as we shall address more precisely below.

Mobility perspective is a twofold construct. It is the possibility that a transition towards another job will take place, that is, towards another job at the same or another level, either within or outside the current department (business unit) or organisation. This depends on two components: an ability component and a motivational component: 1. mobility scope, and 2. pursuit of mobility.

Ad 1. Mobility scope

The mobility scope is the possibility that a job transition will take place, based on the employee's *ability* to fulfil another job inside or outside the department or organisation at the same or at a higher level with his/her current qualifications.

The word "scope" implies both the actual achieved level of competence and the ability to fulfil other jobs with current qualifications, both horizontally and vertically. As such, mobility scope or mobility radius is the result of past experiences and is the starting point for mobility in the future.

The scale we used to measure mobility scope distinguishes between the ability to fulfil a job at the same level and at a higher level (horizontal and vertical scope). Furthermore, a distinction is made

between organisation-internal and external scope. We added to the scale by specifying an extra level: the department-specific level. The scale we use consists of the six items presented in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7. *Items for mobility scope.*

1. To what extent are you capable of fulfilling another job with your current competences?

- a. at the same level within this department
- b. at the same level within this organisation, at another department
- c. at the same level outside this organisation
- d. at a higher level within this department
- e. at a higher level within this organisation, at another department
- f. at a higher level outside this organisation

Measured on five-point Likert-scales (1=definitely not; to 5=surely yes)

Ad 2. Pursuit of mobility

Pursuit of mobility is the possibility that a job transition will take place, based on the employee's *willingness* to fulfil another job inside or outside the department or organisation at the same or at a higher level. From literature we concluded that two dimensions of pursuit of mobility are important to measure (see section 4.1.5.): a. organisation-internal vs organisation-external mobility, and b. verticality of pursuit of mobility.

For the development of the "pursuit of mobility" scale, we could use the "intention to leave" scale by Freese (as cited in Schalk *et al.*, 1995). Freese's original items concern organisation-external mobility intentions (see Appendix 5.4. for original items in Dutch). In this study, however, we need to measure pursuit of job mobility both organisation-internally and organisation-externally. We therefore added some items with regard to organisation-internal mobility intentions. Whereas Freese used 7-point scales, we formulated these items on 5-point Likert-scales. We developed the items concerning verticality of pursuit of mobility by formulating three horizontal mobility items and three vertical mobility items.

Table 5.8. *Items for pursuit of mobility⁴.*

a. Organisation-internal (or functional) and organisation-external pursuit of mobility

(org.int. = organisation-internal, and org. ext. = organisation-external)

- | | |
|--|-------------|
| 2. I would prefer to finish my career with this organisation (recode); | (org. ext.) |
| 3. I plan to work as long as possible in this job at this department (recode); | (org. int.) |
| 4. I often consider quitting my job with this organisation; | (org. ext.) |
| 5. I carefully watch opportunities that occur to fulfil another job; | (org. int.) |
| 6. If it is up to me, I will soon have a job with another organisation; | (org. ext.) |
| 7. As far as I'm concerned I will soon fulfil another position. | (org. int.) |

b. Verticality of pursuit of mobility

(vert. = vertical; hor. = horizontal)

- | | |
|---|---------|
| 8. My next job does not necessarily have to be at a higher level; | (hor.) |
| 9. I will accept a new job only if it is at a higher level; | (vert.) |
| 10. If my next job is at the same hierarchical level as my current job,
that will not be a problem for me; | (hor.) |
| 11. For me it is utterly important that the next job is higher at the organisational ladder; | (vert.) |
| 12. I would be positive about fulfilling another job at the same level; | (hor.) |
| 13. I try to find a new job at a higher level than my current job. | (vert.) |

Measured on five-point Likert scales (1=fully disagree; to 5=fully agree)

⁴ These items were originally formulated in Dutch (see Appendix 5.4.). Items 2 and 3 were recoded.

5.1.4. Background characteristics

Several questions with regard to managers' backgrounds were included in the questionnaire. Some of them were included in test hypotheses; these are: age, educational level, management level, mobility opportunities, and job expiration. Furthermore, we formulated some hypotheses on management tasks. These tasks form the domains at which managers' HRD-activities are directed. We chose to especially emphasise HRM-tasks (1. Motivating / reinforcing, 2. Disciplining, 3. Handling conflict, 4. Staffing, 5. Training & development). We measured how much time managers spend on these tasks (frequency), to what extent they value these tasks (importance) and how they estimate their level of task competence.

Other variables were included to characterise our research group: gender, moment of entering labour market, number of jobs, years of managerial experience, number of management jobs, sector (according to standard categorisation of CBS⁵, which categorises organisations according to their economic activity, size (number of personnel), job tenure, organisational tenure, contract (full-time/part-time) and number of subordinates.

The development of the items and scales of the instrument have been described now. In section 5.2. we will report on a pilot study aimed at testing the instrument.

5.2. Pilot study

The primary objective of this pilot study (second research phase) is to test our research instrument and to reduce the number of items included on the base of reliability analyses. The adjusted instrument will be the input for the third (and final) research phase (see section 5.3.).

In this section, the group of participating managers and the procedure of this study will be described (5.2.1.). Then, information will be given about the data analysis (5.2.2.). Next, the results of the analyses will be presented (5.2.3.). We will conclude this section with a summary of the conclusions of this pilot study and consequences for the next research phase.

5.2.1. Participants and procedure

This pilot study was carried out in the period February – March 2000. We selected managers during group meetings of a course on Human Resource Management and Leadership. This course was organised by a training institute with course locations throughout the country. A requirement to follow this course was to have at least some managerial experience, which made these training groups valuable for our study. Five different groups with a total of 63 participants were requested to participate in this study. The psychological contract is the result of past experience with the organisation; therefore a minimum stay with the organisation is necessary. We chose six months of organisational tenure as a selection criterion.

The managers were asked to take the questionnaire home and to fill it out. After one week, the researcher picked up the filled-out questionnaires. In addition to the managers we visited during their classes, we sent hundred questionnaires to managers participating in the same course, but at locations that were geographically further away. Moreover, two companies (in the sector Communication and Construction) have been asked to co-operate. They distributed another eleven questionnaires. In total, a number of 42 filled-out questionnaires were returned, which reflects a total response rate of 24.1%⁶. Three questionnaires were excluded from the sample because they were poorly filled-out and/or did not meet one of the other criteria (not directly in charge of other people, too

⁵ Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek (the Dutch Central Statistical Office).

⁶ The original response rate was considerably higher than 24%; the additional effort we took to have more questionnaires filled out by distributing extra questionnaires by post lowered the response rate noticeably.

little managerial experience, too short organisational tenure). The analyses are based on 39 questionnaires.

Table 5.9. describes the research sample according some background characteristics; see Appendix 5.5. for a more extensive description of managers' background characteristics.

Table 5.9. *Sample description of pilot study according to background characteristics (N=39)*⁷.

Background characteristic	M	sd	Background characteristic	%	
Age	36.21	6.53	Gender	Male	94.9
				Female	5.1
Working experience (in years)	13.70	7.20	Educational level ⁸	Low	2.6
				Intermediate	25.6
Managerial experience (in years)	5.90	4.20		High	71.8
			Contract	Full-time	97.4
				Part-time ⁹	2.6

Male managers are over-represented in this study. Only two female managers participated. Although there are also more men at management positions than women in the entire population, it still seems that in this study this division is rather distorted. Most participating managers are highly educated. On average they are in their mid-thirties and have almost six years of managerial experience. It is striking that all participants, except one, have full-time contracts. Apparently, working part-time is not (yet) usual for managers.

In Appendix 5.5. it can be seen that the participants represent different management levels. Furthermore, they have a varying extent of control appearing from the different numbers of subordinates. The managers are employed in different companies across several sectors. The services sector and "industry" are represented most. All other managers are spread across various other sectors. We may expect that because of this variety of settings in which managers are working, the results have a certain level of generalisability. This is an important criterion to test our instrument. Managers are mostly employed in large companies; 76.9% of the managers work for organisations with more than 100 employees. In general, this can be seen as an indication for the existence of mobility opportunities. Another indication for horizontal and vertical mobility opportunities is the number of jobs at the same and at higher levels that exist in their organisation. All managers indicate that there are jobs at both higher levels and at the same level within the organisation. In principle, this means that all managers have the opportunity of job mobility.

The description according to the background characteristics above gives a varied picture of managers. The managers form a relatively young, higher educated group, working in large organisations with mobility opportunities. This seems a relevant group to conduct the pilot study and with to test the instrument on.

5.2.2. Data analysis

We carried out reliability analyses per part of the questionnaire. If additional information was required about the structure of the scales, we carried out factor analysis although the sample size (N=39) is rather small for this analysis technique. Reliability analyses will therefore be the primary basis for decisions with regard to adjustment (if necessary) of the instrument.

Interpretation of the results of reliability analyses was done on the basis of the values of Cronbach's alpha (α) as the lower bound for the true reliability of the questionnaire. The following criteria were used: Cronbach's alpha lower than .60 indicates a low reliability; the items do not form a scale.

⁷ Details with regard to management tasks will be dealt with in chapter 6.

⁸ Low = lower secondary vocational education and lower general secondary education. Intermediate = upper secondary vocational education and upper general secondary education and pre-university education. High = higher vocational education and university.

⁹ This concerns 1 respondent with a contract of 24 hours per week (male).

Cronbach's alpha between .60 and .70 is an indication of intermediate (or weak) reliability. Cronbach's alpha higher than .70 is good; the items together form a reliable scale (Nunnally, 1978). Moreover, the corrected item total correlation (R^{it}) was taken into account. A minimum requirement for the corrected item total correlation is that it is positive (De Heus et al., 1995) and preferably above .30. A R^{it} -value below .30 indicates that the item does not contribute to the reliability of the scale.

With regard to factor analyses (principal component analysis), factor loadings have to be at least .40 and preferably an item has to load on one factor only. Moreover, the difference between the factor loadings of one item on different factors has to be at least .20. If these criteria are not met, in most cases the item will be deleted. Exceptions are made when there is good reason not to delete the item, on the basis of content.

Before carrying out the analyses, we considered the procedure to be followed with regard to missing values. We found only a small number of missing values. Missing values in this pilot study were replaced by the series mean.

5.2.3. Results

This results section describes the reliability of the main elements of the research model: dimensions of HRD-activities as part of the HRD-pattern (5.2.3.1.), the psychological career contract (5.2.3.2.) and the mobility perspective (5.2.3.3.). In section 5.2.3.4. the subordinates' HRD-pattern will be addressed.

5.2.3.1. HRD-activities

The dimensions of HRD-activities will be addressed in the following order: a. Frequency of HRD-activities; b. Generic value of HRD-activities; c. Planning of HRD-activities. See Appendix 5.6. for a correlation matrix of these dimensions.

Ad a. Frequency of HRD-activities

Both the relative and absolute measure of frequency of HRD-activities will be addressed and compared.

Relative measure

All categories of HRD-activities are represented by one single item, except for the informal category, which contains four learning-by-doing activities. We performed reliability analyses to find out whether we can find a summarising characteristic of the learning-by-doing category. It appears that the fourth activity "experimenting" does not contribute to the reliability of the scale. All items except experimenting correlate positively. Experimenting, however, does not at all or negatively relate to the other three items. The initial Cronbach's alpha of .44 rises to .57 by excluding the experimenting item from the scale. We conclude to construct a total measure of frequency of learning-by-doing activities, which consists of the first three items. We exclude "experimenting" from the rest of our study.

With regard to a total measure of frequency of HRD-activities, Cronbach's alpha is .62. This is a moderate reliability (see Table 5.11. for a summary of Cronbach's alphas). Factor analysis gives additional insight into the scale frequency of HRD-activities. It reveals a single-factor solution explaining 48.27% of the variance. All factor loadings are higher than .40, except for the category of learning by doing (.39), which is only a small deviation from the minimum requirement. Based on reasons with respect to content, we decide not to exclude learning by doing from the analysis.

Absolute measure

In Table 5.10 descriptives are given of time spent on HRD-activities during the previous twelve months according to the absolute measures. We compared the relative and the absolute measures of frequency of HRD-activities by counting their correlations, which are included in this Table, too.

Table 5.10. *Time spent on HRD-activities in absolute numbers: Means, standard deviations and Pearson correlations.*

HRD-activity	Number of days	Number of times per week	Duration per activity (in minutes)	Amount of time per week (in minutes)	r (relative / absolute)
<i>Formal learning</i> (mode 60 ; median 35)	35.5 (26.93)	-	-	-	.42**
<i>Seeking information</i> (mode 15 ; median 40)	-	4.08 (4.27)	18.33 (13.73)	54.68 (55.07)	.31
<i>Asking advice</i> (multiple modi 15 / 20 / 30; median 37.50)	-	3.79 (4.09)	19.84 (14.11)	67.03 (66.98)	.38*

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (1-tailed)

We conclude that the two measures are positively correlated. An exception is the non-significant (but positive) relation between the relative and the absolute measure concerning seeking information ($p=.06$). The correlations give us an indication of the validity of the measures of frequency of HRD-activities.

In the next research phase we intend to categorise the amount of time spent on HRD-activities. Based on the absolute indications of time managers gave, we made categories to be included in the next research phase. The median is included in the mid-category and categories have equal ranges. The following five categories of number of days spent per year on formal HRD-activities were formulated: 1) 5 days or less, 2) 6 – 25 days, 3) 26 – 45 days, 4) 46 – 65 days, and 5) more than 65 days. Seeking information and asking advice were measured in categories of 15 minutes each: 1) less than 15 minutes, 2) 15 – 30 minutes, 3) 30 – 45 minutes, 4) 45 – 60 minutes, and 5) more than 60 minutes.

Ad b. Generic value of HRD-activities

Cronbach's alpha of the scale with regard to generic value of formal HRD-activities is .34, which is low (see Table 5.11.). The correlation between the two items is .21, which is not significant ($p>.05$).

Reliability analysis on the four generic value of learning-by-doing items revealed a Cronbach's alpha of .74, which is good. We found that although all items contribute to the reliability of the scale, the "experimenting" item has the lowest corrected item total correlation (R^{it}). To make this scale parallel to the frequency of learning-by-doing scale, we decided to exclude the experimenting item for the generic value scale as well. The new Cronbach's alpha then is .69, which is still satisfactory. Cronbach's alpha of all items together is .75, which is good. The items concerning generic value of formal HRD-activities seem to fit into the scale as a whole, too; therefore, we decided not to exclude these items from the scale.

Ad c. Planning of HRD-activities

Reliability analysis on the eight items with regard to planning of HRD-activities showed that one planned and one emergent learning item could be excluded from the scales. The reliability of the planned learning scale was increased from .61 to .65 when item 5 was deleted. The emergent learning scale was improved by excluding item 2 ($R^{it} -.11$), Cronbach's alpha, then, rose from .41 to .61. Moreover, it seemed that emergent and planned items were negatively correlated (see appendix 5.6.) in general. These two types of learning represent extreme ends of the same continuum: the planning continuum. We therefore recoded the emergent learning items, so that they too represent "level of planning" (instead of level of emergence/coincidence). The six items, then, form one scale with a Cronbach's alpha of .71.

In Table 5.11. we give an overview of the reliability scores of the scales frequency, generic value and planning of HRD-activities.

Table 5.11. *Reliability of HRD-activities scales (frequency, generic value and planning).*

HRD-activities	Frequency		Generic value		Planning	
	No. of items	Cronbach's α	No. of items	Cronbach's α	No. of items	Cronbach's α
1. Formal learning	1	-	2	.34		
2. Seeking information	1	-	1	-		
3. Asking advice	1	-	1	-		
4. Learning by doing	3	.57	3	.69		
Total	6	.62	7	.75	6	.71

Note that in case of a single item no Cronbach's alpha can be counted (indicated with -).

The reliability of the total scales is intermediate to good. For frequency of "learning by doing" (α .57) the value of Cronbach's alpha is low. This goes for generic value of formal HRD-activities as well. Since this subscale consists of only 2 items, it is doubtful whether Cronbach's alpha is valuable; it might be more fruitful to depart from the face validity of the items. In short, the small number of items may account for the low reliabilities of these two subscales. When we use the Spearman-Brown formula for test extension¹⁰, it is estimated that Cronbach's alpha of frequency of "learning by doing" would rise to .73 if the number of items were multiplied by two. Similarly, it is estimated that generic value of formal learning would lead to a Cronbach's alpha of .51 with a double number of items. These outcomes serve as an indication to preserve these subscales. Based on reasons with respect to content this decision can also be explained. Especially the fact that excluding them would lead to an incomplete representation of the formalisation dimension is a reason for this decision.

5.2.3.2. *The psychological career contract*

Based on reliability analysis the 24 items measuring the psychological career contract were reduced to 16 items (for each perspective). We excluded two items from each subscale¹¹. Per career development component four items remain in the questionnaire. The total scales of commitment, support and subordinate support each contain 16 items.

In order to make a comparison between perceptions from different perspectives, we needed parallel sets of items. We therefore analysed the different perspectives of the psychological career contract in a similar way. The same items were removed from the commitment, support and subordinate support scale.

The scales desired and actually offered facilities originally contained 12 items each. Based on reliability analyses the number of items per scale could be reduced to nine items¹².

The values of Cronbach's alpha for the initial and the adjusted total scales of the psychological career contract are presented in Table 5.12. For more details on Cronbach's alphas with regard to subscales of the psychological career contract, see Appendix 5.7.

¹⁰ Formula of Spearman Brown is:

$$r_{kk} = \frac{k \cdot r_{xx'}}{1 + (k-1) \cdot r_{xx'}}$$

k = times that test is extended; $r_{xx'}$ = reliability of the original test; r_{kk} = reliability of the k times extended test.

¹¹ The numbers of the excluded items are: 2, 4, 9, 10, 13, 18, 19 and 22 (see Table 5.5.).

¹² The numbers of the excluded items are: 2, 7 and 12 (see Table 5.6.).

Table 5.12. *Reliability of total scales of the psychological career contract: Mental and facilities.*

Psychological career contract		Initial scale (Cronbach's α)	Adjusted scale (Cronbach's α)
Mental	Commitment	.87	.86
	Support	.94	.93
	Subordinate support	.92	.91
Facilities	Desired facilities	.74	.78
	Perceived facilities	.85	.79

Table 5.12. shows that all alphas slightly decrease after some items are deleted. The aim of item reduction and simultaneously keeping reliable scales was reached. In the next research phase (section 5.3.) we will carry out additional analyses in order to create subscales.

Furthermore, we adjusted the heading of the first perspective from "I ought to ..." into "In my opinion I ought to ..." in order to make it more clear that it is about the perception of the managers *themselves* and not about what other actors think managers should be committed to. Furthermore, we made some adjustments to the original items in terms of time indications. We have included terms such as "all the time", "continuously" to make the statements stronger¹³.

5.2.3.3. *Mobility perspective*

We carried out reliability analyses on the scales with regard to mobility perspective. The mobility scope items appear to form a reliable scale; Cronbach's alpha is .74. The items with regard to pursuit of mobility (both organisation-internal and organisation-external) form one scale. Cronbach's alpha is .85., which is high. The reliabilities of the subscales are respectively .83 for organisation-internal pursuit of mobility and .77 for organisation-external pursuit of mobility. It appears that the reliability of the subscale organisation-external pursuit of mobility would increase by deleting item 2. However, the corrected item total correlation of this item is .46, which is high above the criterion value of .30. Therefore, we decided not to exclude this item from the scale.

Cronbach's alphas of the scales vertical and horizontal pursuit of mobility are high, respectively .77 and .83. The scales are improved by deleting one item from each scale (items 8 and 13), Cronbach's alphas rise to .79 and .92, consecutively. The items together do not form one scale. The items belonging to the horizontal and the vertical scales are negatively correlated (see Table 5.13).

Table 5.13. *Pearson correlations of vertical and horizontal pursuit of mobility.*

Items	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. G8 (horizontal)	1.00					
2. G9 (vertical)	-.40*	1.00				
3. G10 (horizontal)	.49**	-.61**	1.00			
4. G11 (vertical)	-.40*	.86**	-.60**	1.00		
5. G12 (horizontal)	.44**	-.34*	.65**	-.37*	1.00	
6. G13 (vertical)	-.31	.52**	-.46**	.44**	-.36*	1.00

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

We recoded the horizontal items, so that all items represent the level to which job mobility towards higher levels is pursued; that is verticality of pursuit of mobility. The reliability of the total scale "verticality of pursuit" is .84 (4 items). See Table 5.14. for an overview of Cronbach's alphas with regard to mobility perspective scales.

¹³ These additional time indications were added to items 1, 3, 17, 20 and 23.

Table 5.14. *Reliability of (aspects of) mobility perspective.*

Mobility perspective	No. of items (initial scale)	Cronbach's α Initial scale	No. of items (adjusted scale)	Cronbach's α Adjusted scale
<i>Mobility scope (total)</i>	6	.74	No adjustments	
Horizontal	3	.60 ¹⁴		
Vertical	3	.82		
<i>Pursuit of mobility</i>	6	.85	No adjustments	
Organisation-internal	3	.83		
Organisation-external	3	.77		
<i>Verticality of pursuit</i>	6	.85	4	.84
Vertical pursuit	3	.83	2	.92
Horizontal pursuit	3	.77	2	.79

5.2.3.4. *Subordinates' HRD-activities*

Cronbach's alpha of the four items on frequency of subordinates' HRD-activities is .62. We are, however, predominantly interested in the dimensions of subordinates' formal HRD-activities, since we assume that managers hardly have insight into the significance of subordinates' non-formal and informal HRD-activities, because of the unorganised character of these latter types.

The two items with regard to generic value of subordinates' formal HRD-activities do not form a scale; Cronbach's alpha is .26. Their correlation is .15, which is not significant ($p > .05$). The reliability of the planning scale is good; Cronbach's alpha is .82. The correlation of the two items is .70 ($p < .01$).

Cronbach's alpha of the items with regard to frequency and generic value of subordinates' formal HRD-activities and planning of subordinates' HRD-activities is .65.

Spearman's correlation (1-tailed) between the relative and absolute measure is .45 ($p < .01$), which is an indication of validity of the measures. On average, subordinates spend 9.66 days per year on formal training, according to their managers ($sd=9.21$). We developed the following categories to include in the adjusted instrument: 1) 5 days of less, 2) 6 – 10 days, 3) 11 – 15 days, 4) 16 – 20 days, 5) more than 20 days, ... (the respondents were asked to indicate the number of days in case this number was higher than 20).

5.2.3.5. *Conclusion pilot study*

The primary aim of the pilot study was item reduction. We were able to reduce the number of items within the questionnaire, especially with regard to the psychological career contract scales.

Furthermore, we made some adjustments with regard to formulation and we developed categories to measure time spent on HRD-activities in absolute terms.

We also gained some first insight into the reliability of the scales. All total scales of the main concepts (HRD-pattern, psychological career contract and mobility perspective) have good reliabilities, except for the total scale frequency of HRD-activities. It appears to be difficult to develop a reliable construct that reflects the total time investment (=frequency) in HRD-activities. The positive relation we found between the relative and absolute measures of frequency of HRD-activities points at the validity of the measures.

Like us, Maurer and Tarulli (1994) met some difficulties in their attempt to construct a composite reflecting a variety of development activities. They included six items, which resulted in a Cronbach's alpha of .59 (compare our results: .62). Factor analysis indicated a distinction between in-house activities and external activities within the total set. But these subscales did not have good Cronbach's alphas, either (.55 and .45, consecutively).

Because these analyses were done on a relatively small database ($N=39$), we will further address matters of reliability and validity in the next subsection (5.3).

¹⁴ The item concerning mobility at the same level within the same department does not contribute to the scale. Based on reasons with respect to content we will continue to work with this item. In the next research phase we will again consider the reliability of this item.

5.3. Method main study

With the adjustments based on the pilot study, we will continue this chapter with reporting on the methods of our main study, the third research phase. We will start with an introduction to the main research (5.3.1.). Next, a description of the selection of managers and organisations will be given (5.3.2.). In section 5.3.3. we will present analyses that we performed with regard to the reliability and validity of the research instrument, in addition to the analyses we did in the pilot study. Moreover, we will present the development of the constructs HRD-pattern as a whole, the psychological career contract as a whole and the mobility perspective as a whole. Finally, section 5.3.4. will address the procedure with respect to the data analysis we will follow throughout the empirical chapters 6 and 7.

5.3.1. Introduction to the main research

The objective of the study is to find out what the significance of management learning is in an evaluative sense. We want to find out whether the nature of the HRD-pattern depends on the nature of the psychological career contract. Moreover, we are interested in whether managers' HRD-patterns fulfil an intermediary role between their psychological career contracts and their mobility perspectives (see Figure 4.8. in section 4.3.1.).

In order to get an answer to our main research question, we need to address questions such as: How can HRD-patterns, psychological career contracts and mobility perspectives of managers *actually* be characterised? How do these concepts *actually* relate to each other? Are these results in support of theoretical expectations?

Our theoretical expectations will be compared to findings based on the empirical data we collected. Our research can therefore be characterised as both descriptive and declarative.

This approach must finally result in an answer to the question whether the relation between the psychological career contract and the mobility perspective of managers is mediated by the HRD-pattern of managers as can be expected from modern career theories.

5.3.2. Organisations and participants: Selection and description

We will first address the criteria we used for the selection of organisations and individual managers (5.3.2.1.). Then we will describe the sample according to background characteristics (5.3.2.2.). In 5.3.2.3. we will report on the procedure we followed during this research phase.

5.3.2.1. Selection of organisations and participants

We used four criteria for the selection of organisations. First, because a major variable in this study concerns the perspective on mobility within and between organisations, it is necessary that selected organisations have sufficient career opportunities and management positions. That is, multiple hierarchical levels and departments must exist. The implication of this criterion is that we select larger organisations (>100 employees).

Secondly, organisations have to operate in a sector with an intermediate to high sectoral employability index (De Grip *et al.*, 1998), which refers to the correspondence between need for employability and supply of employability within the sector. The employability index of the Banking and Insurance sector is highest (De Grip *et al.*, 1998, p. 60) compared to all other sectors. This favourable labour market condition can thus not obstruct mobility to occur. This forms a reason for us to select organisations within this sector. The increase of employment in the services-sector is high compared to other sectors (Heijke & Van der Velde, 1997), which further support a focus on this sector. Moreover, organisations within this sector are generally knowledge-intensive, which makes continuous learning necessary and relevant. By choosing organisations within one and the same sector, we keep career opportunities

constant. It would be inappropriate to treat organisations within e.g. the sector of education (few career opportunities) and within the financial sector (many career opportunities) equally. Because career opportunities will vary across companies within the same sector as well, we take into account the structure of an organisation in terms of specified job levels and number of positions at the same horizontal level (further indicated as mobility opportunities).

Thirdly, an important aspect to take into account when selecting organisations for a study on the psychological contract is the level of stability of the environment. Organisations' environments must be relatively stable. Rousseau and Tijoriwala (1998) argue that when a large-scale quantitative research is planned into the psychological contract (etic approach; see section 4.2.3.), organisations should not be enrolled in a serious innovation or change. Organisational change implies risks on being transferred against one's will or being laid off¹⁵, which may drastically influence the psychological contract and makes studying it extremely difficult. Outcomes cannot be interpreted unambiguously. De Grip *et al.* (1998, p. 42) report that in the sector of Banking and Insurance the level of organisational developments (internal reorganisation) is very low, which points at a relatively stable environment and forms another reason to select this sector for this study.

Fourthly, the location of the organisation must be at accessible distance, that is, located in the centre of the country.

For the selection of managers we used the following criteria:

1. At least six months of managerial experience;
To reflect on HRD-activities directed at mastering management tasks and management competence, a certain period of time is needed.
2. At least one hierarchical level above the current level;
Top-level managers are excluded since questions about the behaviour of direct supervisors are posed. Moreover, a higher level needs to exist in order to measure organisation-internal pursuit of mobility in a vertical sense.
3. At least six months employed in current organisation and in current job;
Since it needs time for a psychological career contract to develop (see section 4.2.3.), a minimum stay with the same organisation is required. Otherwise, no plausible conclusions with regard to the psychological contract can be made;
4. Directly responsible and in charge of at least two subordinates;
With this criterion we select employees who we defined as "manager".
5. Maximum age of 55 (preferably; no reason for exclusion beforehand).
After the age of 55, it is likely that, in general, topics such as mobility and career development will play a relatively minor role in one's career. A large group of beyond 55 years will already be preparing for retirement and thus be decreasing their professional activities.

Based on the criteria mentioned above we selected six large Dutch companies in Banking & Insurance and one Temporary Employment agency¹⁶. The organisations, in terms of the number of personnel employed, varied from medium-sized (100-500) to large enterprises (1000-5000). The written questionnaire was sent to 664 managers. 260 Questionnaires were filled out and returned. The total average response rate is 39.2%. After a check on the criteria¹⁷ and on the quality of the filled-out

¹⁵ These involuntary forms concern job mobility as well, but not the kind of mobility we intend to study.

¹⁶ The participants in our study are managers working at the headquarters and the local offices of this chain of employment agencies; they are core personnel and not flex-workers who work *on behalf of* this agency for other companies.

¹⁷ Five participants were excluded on the basis of too short managerial experience; three participants on the basis of too short an organisational tenure; three participants on the basis of too short a job tenure; seven participants

questionnaires (90% of questions needed to be answered well), 242 questionnaires were judged to be useful for analysis (93%). Eventually, 18 cases were excluded from further analyses.

In Table 5.15. we present details on number of participants per organisation, the percentage of the total sample, and response rates.

We see that in most organisations the response rate is rather high. An exception is the response rate of organisation E, which is rather low (22.2%). This lower response rate can be explained by the fact that this organisation was in the end phase of a reorganisation process, which is likely to have caused this lower readiness to participate in our study.

Table 5.15. *Number of participants and responses rates per organisation.*

Organisation	No. of sent questionnaires	No. of questionnaires returned	Response rate (%)	No. excluded from sample	Final No. of participants (N)	Percentage participants (%)
A	175	69	39.4	8	61	25.2
B	158	70	44.3	4	66	27.3
C	91	48	52.7	4	44	18.2
D	25	14	56.0	0	14	5.8
E	158	35	22.2	1	34	14
F	57	24	24.1	1	23	9.5
total	664	260	39.2	18	242	100

5.3.2.2. *Sample description according to background characteristics*

Table 5.16. describes the research sample according to some background characteristics; see Appendix 5.8. for a more extensive description of managers' background characteristics.

Table 5.16. *Sample description of main study according to background characteristics (N=242).*

Background characteristic	M	sd	Background characteristic	%
Age	38.12	7.64	Gender	Male 68.5
				Female 31.5
Working experience (in years)	16.20	9.20	Educational level ¹⁸	Low 4.5
				Intermediate 29.8
Managerial experience (in years)	7.59	6.73		High 65.7
			Contract	Full-time 93.8
				Part-time 6.2

The average age of managers participating in this study is 38. Male managers are over-represented in this study. About one third of the sample consists of female managers. It seems that this sample is largely similar to the division between males and females in the larger population of managers, in which there are also more men at management positions than women. Our research concentrates on managers with relatively high levels of education; 65.7 per cent finished university or obtained bachelor's degrees in higher vocational education. They have approximately 7.5 years of experience with management tasks. Different management levels are represented. Most managers are working at a middle line management position.

On average the managers are more than 8 years employed in their current organisation. In other words, they have spent sufficient time in their organisation for a psychological career contract to develop. Most participants have full-time contracts with their organisation. Only 6.2% fulfils a part-time contract. Evidently, working part-time is not (yet) usual for managers.

filled out less than 90% of the questions; nine participants failed to fill out entire parts of the questionnaire (Note that eight participants were excluded on multiple criteria simultaneously).

¹⁸ Low = lower secondary vocational education and lower general secondary education. Intermediate = upper secondary vocational education and upper general secondary education and pre-university education. High = higher vocational education and university.

We checked on differences between the sub-samples. No differences were found on the central concepts of the research model and on background characteristics between managers off the six organisations. It was decided to conduct all analyses on the sample as a whole.

5.3.2.3. Procedure

Per organisation the procedure varied to a certain extent. In two organisations (A and B) we had contact persons who distributed the questionnaires to the selected participants. The questionnaire was accompanied with an introductory letter, which explained the aim of the study and gave some guidelines for filling out the questionnaire. Furthermore, it was explained that by filling out the questionnaire they would benefit personally by gaining insight into their career attitude and their possible career ambitions. By clarifying the value for the respondent him or herself, we tried to get maximum response. Moreover, they were given the opportunity to receive a copy of the results of the study.

By and large, the questionnaires could be returned directly to the researcher via a post-paid return envelope. In some instances (organisation B) contact persons collected the filled-out questionnaires and returned them all together. In two organisations, the questionnaire was (partly) sent by e-mail (organisation C: 35 per regular post and 56 per e-mail; organisation E: 158 (all) per e-mail).

In order to maximise the response rate, we asked contact persons within the organisations to emphasise the relevance of the study for their own organisation and the guaranteed anonymity. A reminder was sent after one week, by regular mail, e-mail, and in some cases in person by the contact persons.

5.3.3. Instrument development continued

The instrument described in section 5.1. together with the adjustments made on the basis of the results of the pilot study (section 5.2.), are now subject to additional reliability analyses. Moreover, the sample size of this research phase is large enough to perform factor analyses. The type of factor analysis we report on is principal component analysis. The rotation method we use is varimax rotation with Kaiser Normalisation. Factors are extracted on the basis of on eigen values higher than 1 (unless reported else).

All questions used in this research concern self-rating scales. Five-point Likert-scales range from 1 (= to a very low extent) to 5 (= to a very high extent).

Because we formulated hypotheses with regard to the HRD-pattern as a whole, we will describe how we constructed this measure (5.3.3.1.). Furthermore, measures representing modernity and unbalance of the psychological career contract (5.3.3.2.) and mobility perspective as a whole (5.3.3.3.) will be addressed.

5.3.3.1. Dimensions of HRD-activities and the HRD-pattern as a whole

In this section we will address the reliability of the several dimensions of HRD-activities: a. frequency of HRD-activities; b. generic value of HRD-activities; c. planning of HRD-activities. Moreover, the HRD-pattern as a whole will be described; the narrower and broader definition of the HRD-pattern will be introduced.

Appendix 5.9. contains a correlation matrix of frequency, generic value and planning of HRD-activities.

Ad a. Frequency of HRD-activities

As in the pilot study, we counted correlations between the different measures of frequency of HRD-activities with the purpose of validation. We added a rank order measure. Managers needed to place the types of HRD-activities in order from most frequently (1) to least frequently (5) used. See Table 5.17. for correlations between the relative, absolute and rank order measures of frequency of HRD-activities.

Table 5.17. *Frequency of HRD-activities: Spearman's correlations (Rho) between relative, absolute and rank order measures.*

HRD-activity	Relative – absolute	Relative – rank order	Absolute rank order
Formal	.52**	-.51**	-.29**
Non-formal (information seeking)	.40**	-.21**	-.19**
Non-formal (asking advice)	.38**	-.23**	-.27**
Informal	-	-.14*	-

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (1-tailed).

We found, as expected, positive correlations between the relative and the absolute measures of frequency of HRD-activities. With regard to the relative and the rank order scores, we expected negative correlations, meaning that higher scores on the relative scale go together with lower scores on the rank order scale. All correlations appear to be significantly negative. The correlations between the absolute and rank order measures were also expected to be negative. We found support for this expectation, too. The results of Table 5.17. are all indications for the validity of the measures we developed for the frequency of HRD-activities, in particular for the relative measure. From this point on we will therefore restrict ourselves to the relative measure of frequency of HRD-activities.

Factor analysis was performed on the six items concerning frequency of HRD-activities, which resulted in a three-factor solution. In Table 5.18. the rotated factor matrix is shown. Per item the highest factor loading is printed in bold.

Table 5.18. *Rotated factor matrix of frequency of HRD-activities.*

Frequency of HRD-activities	1	2	3	Total
1. Formal	-.11	.06	.84	
2. Non-formal: seeking information	-.02	.81	.19	
3. Non-formal: asking advice	.16	.78	-.15	
4. Informal (trial & error)	.64	.21	-.34	
5. Informal (routinising)	.75	.04	-.12	
6. Informal (difficulty)	.67	-.03	.43	
Explained variance (in %)	27.64	19.76	16.76	64.16
Cronbach's alpha	.45	.46	-	.34

The first factor represents the category of informal HRD-activities. The second factor contains both non-formal HRD-activities. The item concerning frequency of formal HRD-activities is distinguished as a third factor. Cronbach's alphas of the total scale and of the subscales are low. As in the pilot study, this seems to be the consequence of the small number of items. Application of the Spearman-Brown formula for test extension demonstrates that if we had formulated a double number of items, reliabilities would improve considerably. The non-formal scale would be .63; the informal subscale would be .62, and the alpha of the total scale would rise to .51. These outcomes are satisfactory; we find it acceptable to continue working with these subscales.

Furthermore, in our attempt to construct a measure of frequency of HRD-activities we considered the results of correlation analyses. Frequency of formal HRD-activities does significantly correlate with frequency of non-formal and informal HRD-activities. Non-formal and informal HRD-activities are positively correlated ($r=.17$; $p<.01$). Whereas we expected compensation, and therefore negative correlations, it seems that types of HRD-activities are used independently. As in the empirical study of chapter 3, the compensation hypothesis is not supported. Instead of approaching frequency of types of HRD-activities as a scale, we will use the alternative of an index¹⁹, which at least gives an indication

¹⁹ The frequency index is counted as follows: (Frequency of formal HRD-activity / 1 item) + (frequency of non-formal HRD-activities / 2 items) + (frequency of informal HRD-activities / 3 items) / 3 (HRD-types).

of the extent to which HRD-activities are used. As a consequence, conclusions based on analyses in which this measure is used have to be interpreted carefully.

It seems possible to combine two categories of HRD-activities, seeking information and asking advice, into one category. The two items with regard to frequency of non-formal HRD-activities cluster together (see factor analysis in Table 5.18). Their correlation is .30 ($p < .01$). Moreover, frequency scores are close to each other. They take the second (3.69; $sd = 1.03$) and the first place (3.76; $sd = .87$), consecutively, in order of extent of use. As we shall see later on, this goes for the scores on generic value for both these non-formal HRD-activities as well.

Seeking information and asking advice can both be viewed as the consultation of a resource, in the first instance a written resource, and in the second instance, a personal resource (verbal). Together we can approach these HRD-activities as gathering (written and verbal) information. These two HRD-activities have in common that they are non-formal (they are neither highly structured nor highly unstructured), and that they concern activities by which one seeks to demarcate a problem for which one has to take action to get an answer to the problem from an external source. This external source may concern either written information or information that is possessed by another person.

In the remainder of this study, we will distinguish between three categories of HRD-activities, instead of the original four categories. They are:

1. Formal HRD-activities (courses, etc.)
2. Non-formal HRD-activities (gathering information)
3. Informal HRD-activities (learning by doing)

Ad b. Generic value of HRD-activities

Factor analysis on the seven items concerning generic value of HRD-activities resulted in a two-factor solution. In Table 5.19, the rotated factor matrix is shown. Per item the highest factor loading is printed in bold.

Table 5.19. Rotated factor matrix of generic value of HRD-activities.

Generic value of HRD-activities	1	2	Total
1. Formal within organisation	.14	.92	
2. Formal outside organisation	.17	.91	
3. Non-formal: seeking information	.75	.19	
4. Non-formal: asking advice	.73	.20	
5. Informal (trial & error)	.72	.15	
6. Informal (routinising)	.76	-.08	
7. Informal (difficulty)	.54	.27	
Explained variance (in %)	43.09	19.36	62.44
Cronbach's alpha	.76	.86	.78

Factor analysis shows that the non-formal and informal categories of HRD-activities can be taken together as one factor. We carried out an additional factor analysis to find out how the factor structure would be when extracting three factors. This explains an additional 12.11% of variance; however, the eigen value of the third factor is below 1 (.85). We do however see this as an indication that it is justified to work with three categories of HRD-activities, as is the case with regard to frequency of HRD-activities. Cronbach's alpha of generic value of non-formal HRD-activities is .76. Cronbach's alpha of generic value of informal HRD-activities is .64.

The reliabilities of all subscales and of the total scale of generic value of HRD-activities are good.

Similar to our conclusions of the frequency section, we may combine generic value of seeking information and asking advice into one category "generic value of gathering information". Generic

value of the two activities correlate significantly positively ($r=.62$; $p<.01$). The total scale generic value of HRD-activities is the average sum of the subscales of generic value of formal, non-formal and informal HRD-activities.

Ad c. Planning of HRD-activities

We performed factor analysis on the six items concerning planning of HRD-activities. Three items were already recoded (see section 5.2.3.1. ad c.) so that all items concerned the level of planning (and no longer the level of emergent learning). The analysis revealed a two-factor solution. See Table 5.20 with the rotated factor matrix of which the highest factor loadings per item are printed in bold.

Table 5.20. Rotated factor matrix of planning of HRD-activities.

Planning of HRD-activities Items	1	2	Total
1	.41	.67	
3	.35	.62	
4 (recoded)	.78	.28	
6 (recoded)	.84	.04	
7	-.29	.79	
8 (recoded)	.53	.03	
Explained variance (in %)	38.48	19.70	58.18
Cronbach's alpha	.63	.53	.66

The first factor represents the items that were initially formulated as emergent learning. The second factor contains the planned learning items. Since Cronbach's alphas are not satisfactory, we decided to see whether it was possible by excluding more items from the scale to raise Cronbach's alpha. It appeared that by excluding items 7 and 8 (recoded) we could form a uni-dimensional scale with Cronbach's alpha of .71. The deletion of items 7 and 8 (recoded) was based on a corrected item total correlation $< .30$ and considerable progression of the alpha's after deletion of the items. In subsequent analyses we will therefore work with the total scale of planned learning based on these four items. See Table 5.21. for the results of the final factor analysis that reveals one factor, which explains 53.75% of the variance.

Table 5.21. Rotated factor matrix of selected items on planning of HRD-activities.

Planning of HRD-activities Items	1
1	.71
3	.65
4 (recoded)	.82
6 (recoded)	.74
Cronbach's alpha	.71

Ad d. HRD-pattern as a whole: Narrower and broader definition

To answer our research questions, a measure for the HRD-pattern as a whole is needed. The HRD-pattern as a whole is a summarizing characterisation of a variety of HRD-activities used by a manager. The dimensions frequency, generic value and planning of HRD-activities are important dimensions of the HRD-pattern.

Generic value is considered to be the major indicator of the value HRD-activities of managers have for future employability. Furthermore, the (sub)scales concerning generic value of HRD-activities seem to be reliable and therefore a better starting point for a total measure of the HRD-pattern than frequency of HRD-activities of which the reliability of the total scale appears to be rather problematic. Moreover, the range of frequency scores is smaller than the range of scores on generic value. Only few managers have low frequency scores, which makes frequency of less distinct value than generic

value. Since we do value the extent to which HRD-activities are carried out, in addition to the generic value of HRD-activities and the level of planning of HRD-activities, we decided to construct two measures: HRD-pattern in a narrower and a broader sense.

1. HRD-pattern in a narrower sense

This is a summarizing characterisation of the variety in generic value of HRD-activities, in casu the sum of generic value of various HRD-activities used by managers in a given period of time. At first sight it might seem peculiar to use the word “pattern” for a construct concerning one single dimension, since a pattern normally refers to a whole of activities in which a certain system is recognisable and which re-occurs. We choose to use the term “pattern” in a metaphorical manner. Pattern, then, refers to the narrower HRD-pattern as well, which consists of generic value of *various* HRD-activities, thus being a pattern.

In this research we will primarily work with the narrower approach of HRD-pattern. When examining relations with HRD-pattern we follow the narrow approach, unless we explicitly indicate that we use the broader definition of HRD-pattern. In the empirical chapters six and seven, we will report on the broader HRD-pattern only if results lead to evidently different answers to our research questions (and when much stronger or weaker effects on dependent variables are found).

2. HRD-pattern in a broader sense

This is a summarizing characterisation of the variety in various dimensions of HRD-activities, in casu the sum of generic value, frequency and planning of various HRD-activities used by managers in a given period of time. The three dimensions constitute the richness of the pattern. A rich pattern contains continuous (=frequent), generic and planned HRD-activities. A poor pattern contains few, specific and unplanned HRD-activities.

The HRD-pattern (both according to the narrower and the broader definition) may vary from poor to rich. A poor HRD-pattern is supposed to have less favourable effects on the mobility perspective than a rich HRD-pattern.

We have already addressed the reliability of the narrower HRD-pattern under the header “generic value of HRD-activities”. The construction of the broader HRD-pattern is more complex since it includes three dimensions. Two of the dimensions, frequency and generic value, were measured HRD-activity-specific. The third dimension, planning, was measured in general (not HRD-activity-specific). Some preliminary analyses have to be done in order to decide whether these three dimensions may be viewed as one total construct.

We have to assess how these dimensions are correlated. In order to make a sum score, scores on frequency and generic value must be positively related to each other. The question remains whether these correlations exist on the level of total scores and on the level of each distinguished category of HRD-activity as well. Appendix 5.9. shows that with regard to all types of HRD-activities (formal, non-formal and informal) the HRD-dimensions frequency and generic value are positively correlated. This goes for the total scores as well. From this result it can be concluded that the more managers use HRD-activities, the more they will choose activities that have value for future jobs.

Because all correlations are positively significant it is justified to create a sum score of both dimensions. Planning of HRD-activities relates positively to all frequency and generic values scores, except to frequency and generic value of informal HRD-activities (.00 and .12, consecutively). Since

these correlations are not negative, they constitute no objection to counting a sum score of frequency, generic value and planning of HRD-activities representing the broader HRD-pattern.

5.3.3.2. *The psychological career contract (mental)*

Reliability and factor analyses and construction of measures will be presented with regard to the psychological career contract: a. in mental terms, and b. in terms of facilities.

Ad a. The psychological career contract in mental terms

Per perspective of the psychological career contract, we performed factor analysis on the 16 items. We constructed parallel subscales in order to make comparisons between the various perspectives constituting the psychological career contract possible. Therefore, we had to take one of the perspectives as the starting point. We decided to start a factor analysis on the commitment items and to see whether it is possible to formulate parallel subscales for the support items and the subordinate support items by carrying out additional factor analyses and counting Cronbach's alphas. In Table 5.22. the results of factor analysis on the commitment items are presented.

Table 5.22. *Rotated factor matrix of commitment to career self-management.*

Commitment items (+ original item number ²⁰)	1	2	3	4	5	Total
1 (1)	.02	-.11	.55	.40	.32	
2 (3)	.02	-.01	.27	.77	.02	
3 (5)	.07	.30	-.06	.81	.13	
4 (6)	.10	.35	.19	.65	.17	
5 (7)	.15	.10	.78	.01	.08	
6 (8)	-.02	.32	.75	.21	.04	
7 (11)	.07	.82	.14	.14	.15	
8 (12)	.12	.79	.19	.21	.05	
9 (14)	.09	.51	.58	.12	.04	
10 (15)	.14	.28	.26	.16	.43	
11 (16)	.16	.01	.05	.12	.83	
12 (17)	-.10	.47	.08	.09	.55	
13 (20)	.73	.21	.17	.01	.07	
14 (21)	.77	-.00	-.03	.03	.02	
15 (23)	.85	.06	.05	.17	-.02	
16 (24)	.67	-.01	.06	-.04	.36	
Explained variance (in %)	29.74	13.12	7.66	7.24	6.48	64.24
Cronbach's alpha	.77	.86	.73	.74	.53	.84

A new structure of five factors was found. Table 5.23. gives an overview of the new labels and abbreviated terms. We will further indicate these five career development activities as "career development components".

Table 5.23. *Five career development components.*

Career development components	Abbreviated term (for use in Tables, Figures, etc.)
1. Combining work and non-work demands	Combining
2. Career planning	Planning
3. Monitoring career opportunities	Monitoring
4. Career networking	Networking
5. Shaping learning opportunities	Shaping

The first factor is named "combining work and non-work demands". In the original categorisation this factor was named "balancing work and non-work". The reason for altering this label is that the term

²⁰ The original item numbers given between brackets refer to the item numbers like in Table 5.5. (in section 5.1.2.).

“balancing” will be reserved for the meaning according to the balance approach of the psychological career contract. Balancing, then, refers to the process of matching individual commitment and organisational support for career development, and not to activities that are directed at combining one’s private life and one’s working life.

Furthermore, we see that optimising the situation has changed into “career networking” based on the fact that one item has been removed from this scale. The label networking seemed to better cover the remaining items.

Career planning seemed to consist of a “reflective” and an “active” component. The reflective items of career planning make up the “reflective career planning” component, together with the first and the ninth item (which were originally part of the optimising and the personal development scale and both include a reflective aspect). To make a clear distinction between those two in further analyses, we will indicate the “reflective” component of career planning as “monitoring career opportunities”. The active career planning will remain indicated as “career planning”.

Finally, the term “personal development” has been replaced by “shaping learning opportunities” in order to prevent confusion with learning which is not labour-related. The items that load on this factor refer to the opportunity managers may take to create (or shape) favourable circumstances for learning to take place. Moreover, the term “shaping” has been chosen because of the active connotation of the word.

In addition we carried out factor analyses on the support items and the subordinate support items. Factor analysis on the support items gave a three-factor solution explaining 61.93 % of the variance. The first factor combines support for career planning and support for personal development. The second factor represents combining work and non-work and the third factor contains the items with regard to optimising (see Appendix 5.10a. for details).

Factor analysis on the subordinate support items largely resembles the outcomes of the factor analysis on the commitment items. It reveals a five-factor solution explaining 65.27% of the variance: 1) combining work and non-work; 2) optimising; 3) career planning; 4) personal development; and 5) monitoring career opportunities (see Appendix 5.10b. for details).

The difference with the results of the analysis of the commitment items is that the first item loads on the optimising factor. Most important resemblance is that career planning, in both analyses, appeared to be divided into “reflective career planning” and “active career planning”.

Taking the factor analysis on the commitment items as the starting point, we counted Cronbach’s alpha of all the parallel subscales within the three perspective of the psychological career contract. In Table 5.24. results are presented.

Table 5.24. *Reliability of career development components as subscales of the psychological career contract.*

Career development components	N items	Commitment (α)	Support (α)	Subordinate support (α)
1. Networking	3	.74	.79	.70
2. Monitoring	4	.73	.79	.70
3. Career planning	2	.86	.88	.80
4. Shaping	3	.53	.76	.65
5. Combining	4	.77	.84	.80
Total	16	.84	.92	.86

Table 5.24. shows that all alphas are good (>.70) except for the shaping learning opportunities subscale according to the perspectives of individual commitment and subordinate support.

Overall, the conclusion is that subscales and total scales are highly reliable, which makes us to decide to continue our analyses with these (sub)scales.

Measures of the psychological career contract as a whole

As we described in chapter 4, two measures have to be derived from the construct of the psychological career contract as a whole: 1. the level of modernity, and 2. the level of (un) balance.

Ad 1. Modernity of the psychological career contract

The individual level of career self-management commitment in combination with the level of organisational career self-management support determines the modernity of a manager's psychological career contract. To illustrate, consider the situation in which a manager consistently takes control of various career development components and who is at the same time largely stimulated by his superior to take as much responsibility for career choices as he likes. This situation is a very stimulating and positive climate for mobility and for career development to evolve. This is what we call a modern or protean contract. The total of these two dimensions (sum score) thus determines the protean character, or modernity, of the contract. See also section 4.3.1. on this topic.

Ad 2. Unbalance of the psychological career contract

The extent to which the level of individual career self-management commitment matches the level of organisational career self-management support constitutes the level of balance or unbalance of the contract. The level of unbalance is counted by subtracting CSM-support from CSM-commitment (see also section 4.3.1). An example of a measure of the same kind was found in the study by Porter *et al.* (1998) who constructed a gap measure as well. In chapter six we will further address our unbalance measure and explain why we chose to use the *absolute* unbalance measure.

Ad b. The psychological career contract in terms of facilities

The nine items measuring desired and perceived facilities were the input for factor analyses. The analysis on "desired facilities" resulted in a two-factor solution and explained 50.72% of the variance. The factors could, however, not be interpreted. We decided to treat the scale "desired facilities" as a total scale. Cronbach's alpha is .79.

Factor analysis of "perceived facilities" resulted in a two-factor solution explaining 44.13% of the variance and was not meaningfully interpretable, either. As with the desired facilities scale, we will continue working with one total scale of perceived facilities of which Cronbach's alpha is .73. See Appendix 5.10c and 5.10d. for rotated factor matrices.

5.3.3.3. Mobility perspective

We need one measure for the mobility perspective of managers as a whole. We view the perspective on mobility as a composite of both mobility scope and pursuit of mobility. As explained in section 4.1.5., employees need to be both able and willing to be mobile in order for mobility actually to occur. A third aspect of mobility that we measured is the verticality of pursuit of mobility, this is however not the core of modern career mobility. Rather, it serves as an extra indicator to which positions one's ambition is directed. It will not be part of the measure of mobility perspective as a whole.

In order to determine whether verticality of pursuit is distinguished as a factor, we did a factor analysis on all items, including mobility scope, pursuit of mobility and verticality of pursuit items (16 items). A three-factor solution was found. The first factor is mobility scope (31.58%). The second factor is pursuit of mobility in general (15.24%). And the third factor is the verticality of pursuit (12.89%). Verticality of pursuit was indeed distinguished from pursuit of mobility in general. Moreover, it explains least variance as compared to mobility scope and pursuit of mobility in general. We therefore

continued to perform another factor analysis without the items concerning “verticality of pursuit”. See Table 5.25. for factor loadings and reliability scores.

Table 5.25. *Rotated factor matrix of mobility perspective.*

Items	1	2	3	Total
G1a Mobility scope (horizontal)	-.01	.18	.80	
G1b idem	.06	.26	.82	
G1c idem	.03	.55	.52	
G1d Mobility scope (vertical)	.16	.79	.30	
G1e idem	.17	.79	.35	
G1f idem	.16	.87	.08	
G2new Pursuit of mobility	.56	.38	-.25	
G3new idem	.56	.30	.03	
G4 idem	.73	.12	-.08	
G5 idem	.67	-.08	.21	
G6 idem	.81	.09	-.04	
G7 idem	.79	.12	.15	
Explained variance (in %)	35.38	19.49	8.48	63.35
Cronbach's alpha	.80	.85 (incl. 1c) .88 (excl. 1c)	.72 (excl. 1c) .76 (incl. 1c)	.83

The first factor is pursuit of mobility. The second factor contains the vertical mobility scope items. The third factor concerns horizontal mobility scope. One of the items (item G1c; horizontal mobility scope outside organisation) loads on two factors (both printed bold). Based on reliability analysis, we decided to include this item in the third factor “horizontal mobility scope”.

Additional factor analysis on the mobility scope items only revealed a two-factor solution and gave more reason to view the item g1c as measuring horizontal mobility scope (the factor loading on vertical mobility scope is .46, while the factor loading on horizontal mobility scope is .62).

Factor analysis on the items with regard to pursuit of mobility in general gives a one-factor solution and explains 50.48% of the variance²¹.

The mobility perspective as a whole is the sum score of mobility scope and pursuit of mobility. This sum score is justified on the basis of positive correlations between the sum scores of the items that load highest on the separate factors. The correlation between pursuit of mobility and horizontal scope is .13 ($p < .05$). The correlation between pursuit of mobility and vertical scope is .36 ($p < .01$). Pursuit of mobility and mobility scope as a whole correlate significantly, too ($r = .31$; $p < .01$).

5.3.3.4. *Extra measures*

As extra measures we developed the subordinate's HRD-pattern and the manager's HR-role. The reliability of these measures will be addressed now.

Ad a. Subordinates' (formal) HRD-pattern

Strictly speaking it is the subordinate's *formal* HRD-pattern²² we address here. Because this measure concerns an estimation by managers of their subordinates' HRD-activities, we did not consider it to be valuable to ask them to reflect on subordinates' non-formal and informal HRD-activities (see section 5.1.1. ad d.). Table 5.26. provides reliabilities of the (sub)scales and correlations.

²¹ Based on this outcome of factor analysis, we will approach pursuit of mobility as one factor most of the time. However, when hypotheses are tested on the relation with organisation-internal and external pursuit of mobility, we will use these subscales of which Cronbach's alphas are .74 and .67; they are acceptable to work with.

²² When we address subordinates' HRD-patterns we mean their *formal* HRD-patterns, although this will not always be explicitly mentioned.

Table 5.26. *Subordinates' HRD-pattern: Reliability and Pearson correlations.*

Subordinates' formal HRD-activities	No. of items	Cronbach's α	1	2	3	4
1. Frequency	1	-	1.00			
2. Generic value	2	.68	.39**	1.00		
3. Planning	2	.78	.12	.25**	1.00	
4. Formal HRD-pattern	5	.67	.67**	.75**	.71**	1.00

** significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

The values of Cronbach's alphas are satisfactory; they are close to .70 or above. In order to validate the relative measure of frequency of subordinate's formal HRD-activities, we measured the frequency in absolute terms as well. The absolute and the relative measure of frequency of subordinates' formal HRD-activities correlate significantly positively. Spearman's Rho is .68 ($p < .01$), which means that there is a high correspondence between both measures, which is an indication of validity of the measures.

From the correlation diagram we see that the HRD-dimensions are correlated significantly, except for planning and frequency.

Similar to managers' HRD-patterns, subordinates' HRD-patterns can also be approached in a narrower and a broader sense. When we compare managers' and subordinates' HRD-patterns, we will restrict ourselves to their formal HRD-activities, since these have been measured for both groups.

Ad b. HR-role

As an indication of the role managers fulfil with regard to their HR-tasks, we measured the frequency, importance and competence with regard to five HRM-tasks. The composite of these three dimensions reflects the attitude of managers towards HR, or their HR-role. The fifteen items that make up the HR-role have a Cronbach's alpha of .81. All items contribute to the reliability of the scale.

Factor analysis on the dimensions frequency, importance and competence of all management tasks shows that a distinction can be made between HRM-tasks and other tasks. Next, we carried out factor analyses on HRM-tasks only. A three-factor solution was best interpretable. The tasks "motivating and reinforcing" and "training & development" cluster together. Another cluster is formed by the activities "disciplining / punishing" and "handling conflict", which are both directed at keeping discipline and a good atmosphere within the department. The fourth activity "staffing" seems a distinct cluster. See the rotated factor matrix in Table 5.27.

Table 5.27. *Rotated factor matrix on frequency, importance and competence with regard to HR-tasks.*

Management tasks	1	2	3	Total
<i>Frequency</i>				
1. Motivating / reinforcing	.69	.24	-.02	
2. Disciplining / punishing	.11	.78	-.12	
3. Handling conflict	-.08	.70	.33	
4. Staffing	.11	.09	.84	
5. Training & development	.67	.02	.17	
<i>Importance</i>				
1. Motivating / reinforcing	.68	.15	-.03	
2. Disciplining / punishing	.09	.67	-.15	
3. Handling conflict	.14	.52	.20	
4. Staffing	.13	-.05	.80	
5. Training & development	.68	-.07	.27	
<i>Competence</i>				
1. Motivating / reinforcing	.64	.28	.09	
2. Disciplining / punishing	.41	.52	.06	
3. Handling conflict	.31	.46	.25	
4. Staffing	.20	.17	.71	
5. Training & development	.73	.10	.23	
Explained variance (in %)	29.29	12.76	10.86	52.90
Cronbach's alpha	.80	.72	.76	.81

We will further indicate the first factor as the “development-oriented” HR-role. The second factor is named the “discipline-oriented HR-role”. The third factor is called the “staffing HR-role”. Especially the fulfilment of the development-oriented role is expected to be important in the light of this study (e.g. positively related to managers’ own and subordinates’ HRD-pattern and subordinate support).

5.3.4. Conclusions method: Summary and considerations

The results of this method section will be summarised according to the three main concepts HRD-pattern, psychological career contract and mobility perspective. We will end this subsection with an overview of the main variables and extra variables with which we will continue our study (Table 5.28.).

HRD-pattern

As a measure for the frequency of HRD-activities we decided to use an index, since the reliability of the total scale of frequency of HRD-activities was rather low. Since this is most likely due to the small number of items, it seems acceptable to us to work with this index, which gives an indication of the extent to which managers spend time on HRD-activities.

Furthermore, the number of categories of HRD-activities was reduced to three. Based on correlations and factor analyses both non-formal HRD-activities “seeking information” and “asking advice” could be approached as one category “gathering information”. The remainder of the study reports on the categories formal, non-formal and informal HRD-activities.

Finally, we defined the HRD-pattern as a whole in a narrower and a broader sense. The narrower definition focuses on the generic value that various HRD-activities have. In the remainder of the study we will primarily use this narrower definition of which the reliability is good. The broader definition entails the three dimensions of HRD-activities: generic value, frequency and planning, and will only be reported on in case the outcomes of analyses on this construct lead to different answers to our research questions.

Some criticism can be levelled at the choice for the measurement of frequency of HRD-activities by a relative measure (Likert-scale). In their article titled “How seldom is often?”, Michels and Voeten (1993) point at problems that arise when measuring such things as emotional dispositions and personality traits in terms of frequency indications. The main problem is that what one person regards

as “often”, another person may regard as “not often at all”. This problem goes as well for the measurement of time investment in HRD-activities, which is also rather subjective. Each manager creates his or her own interpretation of what is “to a low extent” or “to a high extent” and thus each manager constructs a relative scale for his or her own learning behaviour.

Some precautions may be taken in order to reduce the methodological problems related to this kind of measurement, for example by explicitly specifying the context in which certain attitudes or behaviours are meant to be estimated in terms of frequencies. The reason for this is that the interpretation of frequency depends on the situation to which it applies. In our study, the context is clear; it is formed by the managers’ work environment, which triggers them to learn to master management tasks. Because at least a certain level of homogeneity is assumed within our research group (all in management positions in the commercial sector, using HRD-activities directed at mastering management tasks) these interpretations of frequency of HRD-activities of managers converge, despite the fact that each manager makes his or her own interpretation.

Another step that may be taken when using relative frequency measures is to compare them with more objective measures. We did a check on the validity of the relative measure by comparing it to an absolute measure of time investment in HRD-activities (such as formal training in number of days) and to a rank order measure. The correlations we found indicate that the relative measure is valid; all measures point in the same direction. To conclude, despite the remaining methodological problems the relative measure of frequency of HRD-activities is regarded to be acceptable.

Both with regard to frequency of HRD-activities and generic value of HRD-activities we saw that formal learning takes a distinct place, e.g. formal HRD-activities appeared as a distinct factor in the factor analyses. A plausible explanation could be the fact that formal HRD-activities are less self-directed in nature than the other types of HRD-activities. As a consequence, the learner has less control of both time investment (the duration of the course is determined by the training institute or some other authority) and the value for future jobs that this type of HRD-activity has (the programme of formal courses is usually predetermined).

Psychological career contract

Factor analysis on the psychological career contract items revealed a five-factor solution. The five career development components, on which we will report in the next chapters, are career networking, monitoring career opportunities, planning career changes, shaping learning opportunities, and combining work and non-work.

The psychological career contract was measured from three different perspectives: individual commitment, organisational support and subordinate support. The first two perspectives are viewed as most significant. All scales have been analysed similarly and seemed to be reliable.

We introduced two measures for the psychological career contract as a whole: 1. modernity of the contract as a sum score of individual commitment and organisational support, and 2. unbalance of the contract as the difference between individual commitment and organisational support.

The analyses on the psychological career contract were done similarly for all perspectives. The main reason for this approach is that a measure of the psychological career contract per definition involves a perception of a *mutual* obligation. Consequently, multiple perspectives have to be compared, which can best be done on parallel sets of items. The individual commitment was chosen as the starting point for the analyses of the various perspectives, since this perspective is regarded of the point of reference in an individual’s psychological career contract.

Finally, the scales with regard to desired and perceived facilities, which are part of the psychological career contract in terms of facilities, are both reliable.

Mobility perspective

The scales with regard to mobility scope, pursuit of mobility (in general) and verticality of pursuit of mobility are all reliable. Mobility scope seemed to consist of two components: a horizontal and a vertical component. Pursuit of mobility will most of the time be approached as one factor. Exceptions are sometimes made to test hypotheses that involve organisation-internal and external pursuit of mobility.

Although it appeared from factor analysis that mobility perspective consists of three factors, we define mobility perspective as a whole as the composite of both mobility scope and the pursuit of mobility in general²³. The verticality of pursuit is not included in the total scale, since in modern careers horizontal mobility is valued as much as vertical mobility is.

Extra variables: Subordinates' HRD-pattern and manager's HR-role

We described the development of a measure for the formal HRD-pattern of subordinates. The reliability is intermediate (.67).

With regard to the HR-roles managers fulfil we distinguish between the development-oriented, the discipline-oriented and the staffing-role on the basis of factor analysis.

In Table 5.28 an overview is given of the (adjusted) scales we will use throughout the empirical chapters 6 and 7.

Table 5.28. *Overview of main variables.*

HRD-pattern	Psychological career contract (mental)	Mobility perspective
<u>1. Narrower HRD-pattern</u> Generic value of HRD-activities (formal, non-formal and informal HRD-activities)	<u>1. CSM-Commitment</u> 5 career development components: 1. career networking 2. monitoring career opportunities 3. career planning 4. shaping learning opportunities 5. combining work and non-work	<u>1. Mobility scope</u> - horizontal - vertical
<u>2. Broader HRD-pattern</u> Generic value, frequency and planning of HRD-activities	<u>2. CSM-support</u> 5 career development components <u>3. Modernity</u> (CSM-commitment + CSM-support) 5 career development components <u>4. Unbalance</u> (CSM-commitment – CSM-support) 5 career development components <u>5. Four types of contracts</u> 1. modern 2. push-related 3. pull-related 4. traditional	<u>2. Pursuit of mobility</u> - organisation-internal - organisation-external

²³ Additional support for this decision was found by performing an unrotated factor analysis. The first unrotated component then represents the mobility perspective as a whole, which contains the communality of all items. It seemed that all items with regard to mobility scope and pursuit of mobility load high (>.40) on the first unrotated component. To conclude, mobility perspective as a whole can be regarded as a hierarchical construct, with mobility scope and pursuit of mobility as aspects of mobility perspective as a whole.

Beside the main variables mentioned in the overview, we use the following “extra” variables:

- Psychological career contract in terms of facilities
measured by desired facilities and perceived facilities for career development (nine facilities) and the unbalance between these measures;
- Subordinates' formal HRD-pattern
measured by generic value of formal HRD-activities (=narrower) and frequency and planning (included in broader HRD-pattern besides generic value);
- Verticality of pursuit
this variable concerns the extent to which managers' pursuit of mobility is directed at higher hierarchical levels.
- Manager's HR-role
measured by frequency, importance and competence with regard to HRM-tasks. Three HR-roles have been distinguished: the development-oriented, the discipline-oriented and the staffing-oriented HR-role.

5.3.5. Data analysis

In this subsection we report on the procedure that we followed with regard to the data analyses, as will be reported on in the following two empirical chapters (six and seven).

Before we started our analyses, we have considered the missing values of the database. Based on literature, we decided to use two-way imputation²⁴ as a procedure to replace missing values (Bernaards, 2000). Consequently, we had a complete data set. The next chapters report on analyses with N=242, unless else is reported.

Based on the fact that we used five-point Likert-scales throughout the whole study, we give the following meaning to scores: scores beneath 2.5 are considered to be 'low', scores between 2.5 en 3.5 are 'medium' and scores higher than 3.5 are 'high'.

In the next two chapters we will present results per part of the research model as reported on in section 4.3. In chapter 6 we will describe the psychological career contract and the HRD-pattern of managers, and we will address the relationship between these two concepts.

Chapter 7 will address the influences on the mobility perspective of both the psychological career contract and the HRD-pattern.

The following analysis techniques will be used: (non-) parametric correlations, independent and paired samples t-tests, one-way analysis of variance, k-means cluster analysis and various kinds of regression analysis (both simple and multiple linear regression analysis and hierarchical procedures, both uni- and multivariate) and path-analysis.

Because of the complexity of the relations within the research model and the relative new and explorative nature of this study, we chose for a rather explorative procedure for the data analysis. That is, we started with correlations to get first insight into the several relations. Furthermore, uni- and multivariate tests, analysis of variance and path-analysis were performed to test hypotheses that we formulated.

²⁴ Person mean + item mean – total mean (Bernaards, 2000).

Chapter 6

The psychological career contract and its meaning for HRD-pattern

In this chapter we focus on the relation between the psychological career contract and the HRD-pattern of managers. The following four main research questions will be addressed:

1. How can managers' HRD-patterns be described? (6.1.)
2. How can managers' psychological career contracts be described? (6.2.)
3. To what extent do managers' psychological career contracts influence their HRD-patterns? (6.3.)
4. How do managers' psychological career contracts and HRD-patterns relate to subordinate support and to subordinates' HRD-patterns? (6.4.)

These research questions will be described in the sections as indicated between brackets. We finish this chapter in section 6.5. with a summary of the findings and points of discussion.

6.1. The HRD-pattern of managers

The central question of this section is how to describe managers' HRD-patterns. HRD-patterns are part of the whole of activities that managers may undertake in the light of their career development; therefore we are also interested to what extent managers engage in such "other career development activities".

To answer this main research question, the following three sub-questions will be addressed:

1. How can managers HRD-patterns be described? (6.1.1.)
2. To what extent are managers engaged in other career development activities, and how does this relate to the use of HRD-activities? (6.1.2.)
3. How do background characteristics relate to HRD-patterns? (6.1.3.)

6.1.1. Characterisation of managers' HRD-patterns

In chapter 5 we introduced the narrower and broader definition of HRD-pattern. We said to report primarily on the narrower HRD-pattern, and to report on the broader HRD-pattern only in case different results were found (compared to the narrower HRD-pattern). This counts especially when the analysis of *relations* between the HRD-pattern and other dependent variables are involved. When it comes down to a characterisation of HRD-patterns of managers, like we intend to do with this main research question, the dimensions frequency and planning of HRD-activities will be addressed as well, which are both part of the broader HRD-pattern.

In order to characterise HRD-patterns of managers, we will first describe the HRD-dimensions (ad a.): frequency, generic value and planning of HRD-activities and the broader HRD-pattern. We continue with presenting the percentages of managers with so-called poor, medium and rich HRD-patterns (ad b.).

Ad a. HRD-dimensions: frequency, generic value and planning of HRD-activities

The next Table shows means and standard deviations regarding the three HRD-dimensions and the broader HRD-pattern.

Table 6.1. *HRD-dimensions frequency, generic value and planning and the broader HRD-pattern: means and standard deviations¹.*

HRD-activity	Frequency		Narrower HRD-pattern (Generic value)		Planning		Broader HRD-pattern	
	M	sd	M	sd	M	sd	M	Sd
1. Formal	3.24	1.24	3.47	1.15				
2. Non-formal	3.72	.77	3.31	.97				
3. Informal	3.60	.67	3.29	.84				
4. Total	3.52	.54	3.35	.75	3.42	.72	3.43	.51

** significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Frequency

On average managers score high on frequency of HRD-activities. The mean scores of types of HRD-activities vary from intermediate (formal) to high (non-formal and informal). None of the scores are below the midpoint of the scale.

Analysis of variance demonstrates that types of HRD-activities are not used to an equal extent ($F=17.64$; $p<.01$; $df\ 2 / 723$). Post-hoc analysis (Tamhane's statistic was used since variances are not equal; Levene's statistic 61.20; $p<.01$) reveals that managers use formal HRD-activities to a lesser extent than they use non-formal and informal HRD-activities. The mean difference between frequency of non-formal and informal HRD-activities is not significant. In sum, formal learning is done to a lesser extent than informal and non-formal learning².

In appendix 5.9. we already presented the correlations between HRD-dimensions per type of HRD-activity. Frequency of formal HRD-activities does not relate to frequency of non-formal and informal HRD-activities. The frequencies of non-formal and informal HRD-activities do correlate significantly (positive). The compensation hypothesis is not supported.

On a more detailed level, we found that frequency of formal HRD-activities is negatively correlated with frequency of "trial and error" (the most incidental kind of learning by doing) ($r=-.14$; $p<.05$). In addition, the three informal HRD-activities correlate significantly³, but the most incidental and the most intentional correlate least. Both findings seem to indicate that managers use HRD-activities according to a preference for more or less intentional HRD-activities. Managers inclined to use intentional HRD-activities, are less inclined to use incidental HRD-activities; and the other way around.

Generic value

The HRD-activities that managers use have intermediate generic value. All scores are in the upper half of the intermediate class (2.5 – 3.5). Analysis of variance demonstrates that types of HRD-activities do not differ with regard to generic value ($F=2.35$; $p=.10$; $df\ 2 / 723$).

Moreover, correlations show that generic value of all types of HRD-activities are positively correlated (see appendix 5.9.). These positive correlations could point at an underlying career orientation that determines the choice for HRD-activities based on the value that an activity has for future employability.

¹ Correlations on more detailed level (HRD-activity-specific) can be found in appendix 5.9. Moreover, all scales range from 1 to 5.

² Most managers follow less than 25 days training per year (80.6%), 12% follows between 25 and 45 days formal training per year and another 7.4% spends even more than 45 days per year on formal HRD-activities. The details of times spent on information seeking activities are: 32% less than half hour per week; 48.1% half hour till hour per week; 19.9% more than one hour per week.

Asking advice: 41.7% less than half hour per week; 28.1% half hour till hour per week; 30.2% more than one hour per week.

³ Trial and error / routinising: $r=.33$ ($p<.01$); trial and error / level of difficulty: $r=.14$ ($p<.05$); routinising / level of difficulty: $r=.19$; ($p<.01$); two-tailed.

Planning

The average score on planning of HRD-activities is intermediate and indicates that managers do not plan their HRD-activities to a high, nor to a low extent. Next to the planning variables included in the planning scale, we asked whether managers dispose of a personal development or learning contract. Managers score low on this variable ($m=2.43$; $sd=1.34$). In sum, we conclude that managers are not largely engaged in planning of HRD-activities.

Broader HRD-pattern

The broader HRD-pattern, which includes all HRD-dimensions generic value, frequency and planning of HRD-activities, is intermediately rich. Such an intermediately rich HRD-pattern is not expected to be highly beneficial for the enhancement of mobility chances. Since the pattern cannot be called “poor” either, the nature of managers’ HRD-pattern is not expected to harm or obstruct the development of employability in the future.

The *total* scores of frequency, generic value and planning of HRD-activities and the broader HRD-pattern (see appendix 5.9.) are positively correlated. This means that in general it is the case that the higher the frequency of HRD-activities, the higher also the generic value of these HRD-activities and the higher the level to which managers plan these HRD-activities.

An interesting detail is that frequency and generic value of each type of HRD-activity in specific are positively correlated. Planning of HRD-activities correlates positively to all frequency and generic value scores, except for the informal category of HRD-activities, which seems logical since informal HRD-activities are by definition not pre-arranged and consequently less planned.

Ad b. Richness of HRD-pattern

In order to give more insight into the nature of both narrower and broader HRD-patterns of managers, we present percentages of low, intermediate and high scores. As an illustration, we also provide details on the dimensions frequency and planning. A low score on HRD-pattern represents a poor pattern; a high score represents a rich pattern.

Table 6.2. *Percentages of managers with poor, intermediate and rich scores on the narrower and (dimensions of the) broader HRD-pattern.*

HRD-pattern	Poor		Intermediate		Rich	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1. Narrower HRD-pattern (= generic value)	34	14	97	40.1	111	45.9
2. Broader HRD-pattern	12	5	118	48.7	112	46.3
3. Frequency	9	3.7	109	45.1	124	51.2
4. Planning	33	13.6	113	46.7	96	39.7

NB. Poor is ≤ 2.5 , intermediate is $2.5 < x \leq 3.5$ and rich is > 3.5

Most managers have HRD-patterns with an intermediate or rich character. A relatively small percentage of managers has a poor HRD-pattern (14% narrower HRD-pattern; 5% broader HRD-pattern). It seems that fewer managers have poor scores on the broader HRD-pattern than on the narrower HRD-pattern because of the fact that only few managers score low on frequency of HRD-activities.

6.1.2. Use of other career development activities

The next Table presents managers’ engagement in other career development activities (besides HRD-activities) in relation to the use of HRD-activities.

Table 6.3. *Frequency of other career development activities: means, standard deviations and Pearson correlations.*

Other career development activities ⁴	M	sd	1	2	3	4
<i>Frequency</i>						
1. Optimising the situation	3.27	1.08	1.00			
2. Career planning	3.07	1.04	.48**	1.00		
3. Balancing work and non-work	3.70	1.14	-.03	.04	1.00	
<i>HRD-activities⁵</i>						
4. Frequency of HRD-activities	3.52	.54	.16*	.26**	.15**	1.00

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Managers are intermediately to often engaged in other career development activities. They indicate to be especially busy with balancing work and non-work. The first two career development activities (optimising and career planning) are positively correlated, while the frequency of balancing work and non-work does not correlate with the other career development activities. Furthermore, we see no strong, but significant positive correlations between the use of HRD-activities and the engagement in all other career development activities.

Analysis of variance demonstrates that managers are not engaged in the other career development activities to an equal extent ($F=18.96$; $p<.01$; df 3 / 964). We used Tamhane's statistics for post-hoc analysis (unequal variances) and found that managers are less frequently engaged in on the one hand optimising- and career planning activities than in activities directed at finding a balance between work- and private life and in using HRD-activities on the other hand.

6.1.3. HRD-pattern and background characteristics

In section 4.3.4. we formulated hypotheses regarding the relation between background characteristics and HRD-pattern. Although, we do not have expectations with regard to engagement in other career development activities, we will also present details on these relations as illustration. The next Table shows correlations regarding the relation between background characteristics and (dimensions of the) HRD-pattern and frequency of other career development activities.

Table 6.4. *Correlations between background characteristics, HRD-pattern and other career development activities.*

HRD-pattern and other career development activities	Age (Pearson's r)	Educational level (Spearman's Rho)	Level of line management ⁶ (Spearman's Rho)
<i>HRD-pattern</i>			
1. Narrower HRD-pattern (generic value)	-.24**	.06	-.19**
2. Broader HRD-pattern	-.18**	.07	-.17**
3. Frequency of HRD-activities	-.17**	-.06	-.12
4. Planning of HRD-activities	-.04	.11*	-.07
<i>Other career development activities</i>			
5. Optimising	.09	.08	-.06
6. Career planning	-.20**	.13*	-.07
7. Balancing work and non-work	-.09	.00	-.14*

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (1-tailed).

⁴ Since frequency of other career development was measured by single items based on Ball's original categorisation (and were not subject to factor analysis and reformulation of labels), here we use the original labels as introduced by Ball (1997): balancing work and non-work instead of combining work and non-work, and optimising the situation instead of career networking.

⁵ HRD-activities represent Ball's third career development activity "personal development".

⁶ N=205; we excluded staff-management and project-management from this analysis.

Age

We expected a negative relation between age and the narrower and the broader HRD-pattern (and its dimensions)⁷. This hypothesis is supported except for the HRD-dimension planning of HRD-activities. Hypothesis V.a. is partly supported.

With regard to other career development activities, we found a negative correlation between age and frequency of career planning activities. Apparently, the extent to which managers engage in career planning activities decreases with age. The engagement in optimising activities and balancing work and non-work activities appears to be constant over the years. In sum, with age the HRD-pattern of managers grows poorer and the frequency of career planning activities decreases⁸.

Educational level

The hypothesis (V.b.) that educational level relates positively to HRD-pattern and its dimensions is partly supported by the data. Educational level correlates positively with planning of HRD-activities only. Managers with higher educational levels, plan their HRD-activities to a higher extent.

Regarding the relation with frequency of other career development activities, we found one significant positive correlation between educational level and career planning activities. Apparently, higher educated managers are engaged in more career planning activities than their relatively lower educated colleagues. There is no relation with frequency of activities concerning optimising and balancing work and non-work. In sum, both level of planning of HRD-activities and frequency of career planning activities increases with the level of education. It seems, then, that planning in general seems characteristic of higher educated managers.

Since age and educational level are significantly correlated (Spearman's $Rho = -.12$; $p < .05$), we counted partial correlations for the relation between age and HRD-pattern, controlling for educational level. Likewise we carried out partial correlations between educational level and HRD-pattern, controlling for age. The analyses do not lead to other conclusions. Age negatively relates to HRD-pattern, while no significant correlations between HRD-pattern and educational level were found.

Level of line management

We expected a positive relation between level of line management and the HRD-pattern. In contrast, we found negative correlations. This means that on higher management levels, managers' HRD-patterns have a poorer character than on lower levels of line management. With regard to frequency and planning of HRD-activities no significant correlations were found. Hypothesis V.c., concerning level of line management, is not supported.

Additionally, it appears that the higher the level of line management the lower the engagement in activities directed at finding balance between work and non-work demands.

Furthermore, we tested whether differences exist between managers in line management positions and in staff-management positions. No differences were found. Analysis of variance shows that managers at project-management positions ($N=5$) plan their HRD-activities to a lesser extent than managers at staff positions⁹ ($F=3.09$; $p=.05$; $df=2, 231$).

⁷ The negative relation between frequency of HRD-activities and age is only statistically significant for formal HRD-activities.

⁸ In addition, we counted correlations between other time-related variables and HRD-pattern. No significant correlations were found with job- and organisational tenure. Like age, the number of years of working experience and managerial experience were found to be negatively related to the HRD-pattern (except for planning of HRD-activities).

⁹ Project-management: $M=2.65$; $sd=.63$; Line-man. $M=3.45$; $sd=.72$; Mean difference: $.80$.

Job expiration

We carried out one-way analysis of variance to find out whether differences exist with regard to HRD-pattern and other career development activities between managers who have different perceptions about the chance that their job will expire within three years or not. Three groups were compared. The first group (N=47) estimates the chance that their job will expire within three years as big. The second group (N=64) estimates the chance on job expiration within three years as small. The third group (N=123) is quite sure that the job will not expire within this period of three years. No differences were found between the three groups on the narrower and (dimensions of the) broader HRD-pattern, nor on frequency of the other career development activities. The F-statistic was never significant at the .05 level (df 2 / 231). To illustrate, with regard to the narrower HRD-pattern, the $F = .36$ ($p > .05$) and with regard to the broader HRD-pattern, $F = 1.64$ ($p = > .05$). To conclude, hypothesis V.d. is not supported. Whereas we expected that managers who count on the loss of their job within three years would learn more broadly in order to maximise their chances on a new job, in comparison to managers who feel rather safe in their current job, the data do not support this expectation.

Table 6.5. *Overview of support for hypotheses regarding relations with background characteristics and HRD-pattern.*

<i>Background characteristics</i>	<i>Hypotheses</i>	<i>Support for hypotheses*</i>
Age	V.a. Age is negatively related to the narrower and broader HRD-pattern, and its dimensions	+/- (narrower and broader HRD-pattern, frequency)
Educational level	V.b. Educational level is positively related to the narrower and broader HRD-pattern, and its dimensions	+/- (planning)
Level of line management	V.c. Level of line management is positively related to the narrower and broader HRD-pattern, and its dimensions	-
Job expiration	V.d. Job expiration is positively related to the narrower and broader HRD-pattern, and its dimensions	-

+ fully supported; +/- partly supported (between brackets it is written for which aspects the hypothesis is supported); - not supported.

6.2. The psychological career contract of managers

The central question of this section is how to describe managers' psychological career contracts. The next four sub-question will be addressed to answer this research question:

1. How can managers' psychological career contracts be described in mental terms (6.2.1.)
2. How can managers' psychological career contracts be described in terms of facilities (6.2.2.)
3. How do managers' mental psychological career contracts relate to their psychological contracts in terms of facilities? (6.2.3.)
4. How do background characteristics relate to the psychological career contract? (6.2.4.)

6.2.1. The psychological career contract in mental terms

The psychological career contract in mental terms will be described according to the two perspectives that constitute the psychological career contract: a) individual commitment to career self-management and b) organisational support for career self-management (or shortly, commitment and support). Then, the relation between these perspectives will be examined (ad c).

After this focus on separate dimensions, the psychological career contract will be considered as a whole, which is a combination of commitment and support. Both level of modernity (ad d) and level of

unbalance (ad e) of the psychological career contract will be focussed on. All analyses will be performed at the level of total scales (of commitment, support, modernity and unbalance) and at the level of career development components.

Ad a. Individual commitment to career self-management

In the following Table we present means, standard deviations and Pearson correlations regarding commitment to (components of) career self-management.

Table 6.6. *Commitment to (components of) career self-management: means, standard deviations and Pearson correlations.*

Commitment to:	M	sd	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Networking	3.79	.74	1.00					
2. Monitoring	3.81	.71	.45**	1.00				
3. Career planning	3.80	.89	.42**	.45**	1.00			
4. Shaping	3.89	.61	.43**	.43**	.40**	1.00		
5. Combining	4.29	.68	.20**	.23**	.24**	.28**	1.00	
6. Total	3.92	.50	.72**	.74**	.76**	.71**	.53**	1.00

** significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

The Table shows that managers are highly committed to self-management with regard to all career development components (>3.5). Especially, combining work and non-work is an activity for which managers feel highly responsible. Furthermore, we see that commitment to all career development components are significantly correlated. In other words, the more a manager feels responsible to take control over a certain career development component, the more he will tend to be in charge of other career development components as well.

To study whether level of commitment differs between the five components of career self-management, we performed analysis of variance. This analysis shows that differences exist between commitment to the five career development components ($F=21.86$; $p<.01$; $df\ 4 / 1205^{10}$). Post-hoc analysis reveals that managers feel more committed to self-manage the combination of work and non-work, than to self-manage any of the other career development components.

Ad b. Organisational support for career self-management

In the following Table means, standard deviations and Pearson correlations are presented regarding support for (components of) career self-management.

Table 6.7. *Support for (components of) career self-management: means, standard deviations and Pearson correlations.*

Support for:	M	sd	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Networking	2.83	.89	1.00					
2. Monitoring	2.95	.85	.67**	1.00				
3. Career planning	3.02	.98	.56**	.69**	1.00			
4. Shaping	3.07	.80	.55**	.64**	.55**	1.00		
5. Combining	2.87	.89	.46**	.48**	.44**	.51**	1.00	
6. Total	2.95	.71	.81**	.87**	.82**	.80**	.72**	1.00

** significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

The Table shows that on average managers perceive to get intermediate support from their direct superiors for career self-management. They are mostly stimulated to take control over the shaping of learning opportunities themselves. For self-management of career networking managers perceive

¹⁰ In order to carry out analysis of variance for comparison of variables (instead of the usual comparison of groups) we needed to adjust our data file. Since our five career-development components were put into one column, the total number of cases has become 1210 (5 x 242), which results in a number of degrees of freedom of 1205.

least support. Positive correlations exist between support for all career development components. This means that higher support for one component goes together with higher support for another career development component. Analysis of variance shows that there is difference between support for different career development components ($F=3.06$; $p<.05$). Post-hoc analysis reveals only one significant difference. The lowest and highest support score differ significantly. Managers feel more stimulated to self-manage the creation of learning opportunities than they perceive to be encouraged to build a network for furtherance of their career development.

Ad c. Correlations and differences between commitment to and support for career self-management.

The following Table presents the correlations of commitment to (components of) career self-management and support for (components of) career self-management.

Table 6.8. *Pearson correlations between commitment to and support for career self-management.*

Commitment to:	Support for:					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Networking	.28**	.27**	.08	.20**	.12	.27**
2. Monitoring	.10	.43**	.10	.20**	.12	.27**
3. Career planning	.04	.18**	.30**	.16*	.14*	.24**
4. Shaping	.09	.25**	.03	.34**	.04	.20**
5. Combining	.06	.06	.06	.11	.06	.10
6. Total	.14*	.29**	.15*	.25**	.12	.27**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

The correlation matrix shows significant correlations between commitment to and support for the same component of career development. Moreover, in some cases commitment to one component of career development correlates significantly with support for another component of career development (e.g. commitment to shaping learning opportunities correlates significantly with support for monitoring career opportunities). The total scores of commitment and support are correlated positively. This means that the higher the extent to which managers are encouraged to take control over their own career development, the more they will hold themselves accountable for their own career development, and the other way around.

With paired samples T-test we examined whether commitment and support with regard to the same career development components differ. It appears that with regard to all career development components and with regard to the total scores of commitment and support significant differences exist. In all cases the commitment score is significantly higher than the support score. The difference is largest between the commitment and support score with regard to combining work and non-work ($T=20.68$; $p<.01$) and smallest for career planning ($T=10.95$; $p<.01$).

Ad d. Modernity of the psychological career contract.

In the next Table means, standard deviations and Pearson correlations are given of levels of modernity¹¹ of (components of) the psychological career contract.

¹¹ Modernity is the average sum score of commitment and support (see chapter 5).

Table 6.9. *Modernity of (components of) the psychological career contract: Means, standard deviations and Pearson correlations.*

Modernity of:	M	Sd	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Networking	3.31	.65	1.00					
2. Monitoring	3.37	.66	.57**	1.00				
3. Career planning	3.41	.75	.43**	.53**	1.00			
4. Shaping	3.48	.58	.50**	.57**	.44**	1.00		
5. Combining	3.59	.57	.38**	.38**	.38**	.42**	1.00	
6. Total	3.43	.49	.76**	.81**	.77**	.76**	.66**	1.00

** significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

The modernity reflects the extent the psychological career contract as a whole matches modern career notions. It is the combination of individual responsibility for career self-management and support for this individual self-management attitude by their superiors.

Table 6.9. shows that the psychological career contract can be viewed as moderately till highly modern depending on the career development component. The score on combining work and non-work demands is high, while all other scores are moderately high. Analysis of variance ($F=6.43$; $p<.01$) reveals that the modernity of combining work and non-work differs significantly from modernity of other career development components except shaping learning opportunities. Moreover, all modernity scores are significantly positively correlated.

Ad e. Unbalance of the psychological career contract.

In our analyses we use the *absolute* difference between commitment and support. This absolute deviation from zero (zero is an indication of perfect balance) represents the level of unbalance¹².

From this score it cannot be understood whether commitment is higher than support or whether the opposite is true. In other words, the distinction between the push- and pull-related types is not discernible from this score¹³. Moreover, this distinction is not essential here since a major assumption is that the larger the unbalance (whether push- or pull-related), the poorer the HRD-pattern.

The next Table provides means, standard deviations and Pearson correlations of levels of absolute unbalance of (components of) the psychological career contract¹⁴.

Table 6.10. *Unbalance¹⁵ of (components of) the psychological career contract: means, standard deviations and Pearson correlations.*

Unbalance of:	M	Sd	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Networking	1.09	.86	1.00					
2. Monitoring	.92	.76	.59**	1.00				
3. Career planning	1.00	.91	.55**	.64**	1.00			
4. Shaping	.88	.76	.52**	.53**	.57**	1.00		
5. Combining	1.47	1.01	.43**	.50**	.44**	.52**	1.00	
6. Total	1.00	.71	.76**	.80**	.75**	.78**	.72**	1.00

** significant at the .01 level (2-tailed); # significant mean difference.

¹² We prefer to use the term *unbalance* rather than *balance*, since a higher score represents a higher level of unbalance.

¹³ Later on (in section 6.3.4.3.) we will carry out analyses in which this distinction is made. Then we will consider differences between the types of psychological career contract.

¹⁴ 15 managers' score on support is higher than their score on commitment. The average unbalance of this group is .26 (sd=.43), which represents only a very small level of unbalance. When excluding this specific group of managers from the analysis, the average unbalance score would be 1.05 (sd=.69; N=227). Since this score does not deviate considerably from the average unbalance score of the total group (m=1.00; sd=.71; N=242) we decide to continue our study with the total group of managers using the absolute unbalance score.

¹⁵ Note that this Table concerns absolute unbalance-scores (positive and negative scores cannot compensate for each other because of the absolute measure). These scores can therefore not be compared with the mean differences between commitment and support (in Table 6.6. and 6.7.).

The overall level of unbalance is exactly 1.00; this means that on average the level of CSM-commitment and CSM-support differ one point (on a five-point scale). Most unbalance occurs with regard to combining work and non-work demands. The psychological career contract is least unbalanced with regard to shaping learning opportunities. This means that managers' commitment to shaping learning opportunities and their support perception for this component deviate least. Accordingly, manager perceive the largest gap between the level of self-management commitment and –support with regard to combining work and non-work. Moreover, since all unbalance scores positively relate to each other, it means that more unbalance with regard to one aspect goes together with more unbalance with regard to another aspect.

Analysis of variance reveals that differences exist between unbalance with regard to the different career development components ($F=18.08$; $p<.01$). Post-hoc analysis demonstrates that unbalance is larger with regard to combining work and non-work than with regard to any of the other career development components.

The next Figure (6.1.) illustrates the perspectives of the psychological career contract, commitment and support, per career development component. Moreover, the modernity- and unbalance-lines are presented.

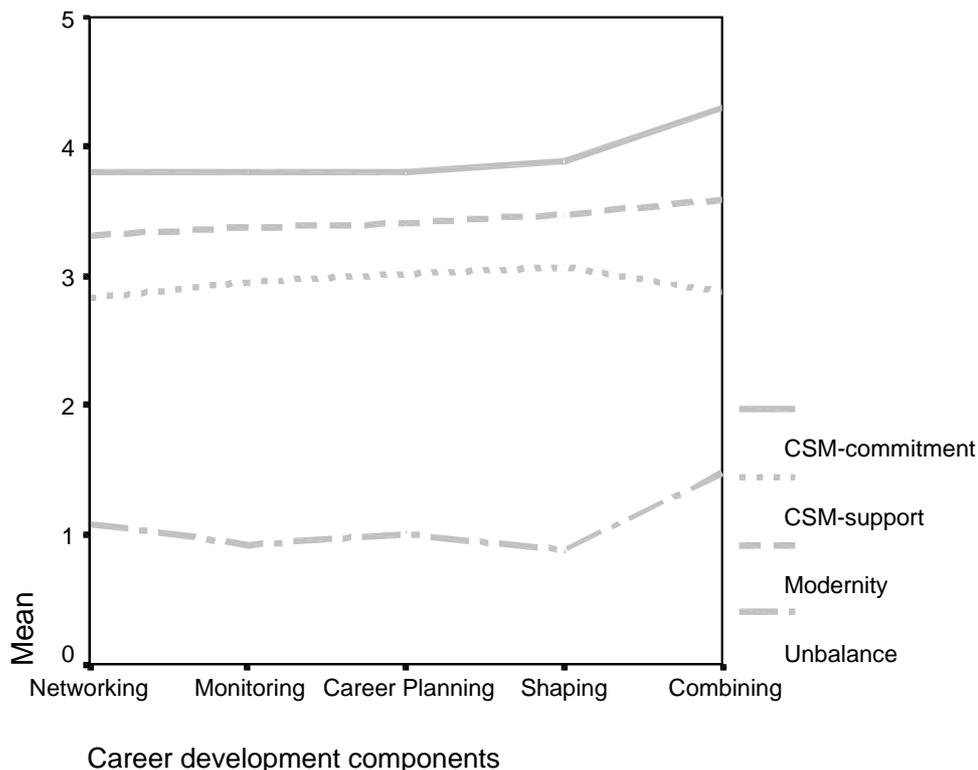


Figure 6.1. Line-diagram of commitment, support, modernity and unbalance of the psychological career contract.

The line-diagram gives insight into the deviation between the commitment and support scores with regard to the several components of career development. Moreover, the central line (between the commitment- and support-line) represents the level of modernity of the contract, which is the average score of commitment and support. The diagram demonstrates too that the unbalance of combining work and non-work is largest.

6.2.2. The psychological career contract in terms of facilities

The psychological career contract in terms of facilities will be described according to a) the level of desired facilities and b) the level of perceived (actually offered) facilities. Then, the relation between these facility measures will be examined (ad c).

Finally, the level of discrepancy between desired and actually offered facilities will be addressed, which represents the level of unbalance of the facility contract (ad d.)¹⁶.

In the next Table means, standard deviations and Pearson correlations are given regarding the extent to which managers desire and actually perceive facilities for career development offered by the organisation. See appendix 6.1. for more detailed information (for each facility for career development specifically).

Table 6.11. *Desired and perceived facilities for career development: means, standard deviations, Pearson correlations and paired samples T-test.*

	M	sd	r	T
Desired facilities	4.23	.45	.31**	17.10**
Perceived facilities	3.56	.58		

** significant at the .01 level (2-tailed; df = 241).

The average level of desired facilities is (very) high. This counts for all facilities (see also appendix 6.1.). The average level of perceived facilities for career development is high as well (> 3.5). On some items the score is below the midpoint of the scale (3), but the score is in no case low (<2.5).

The levels of desired and perceived facilities are positively correlated. Furthermore, it appears that for all facilities the level of expectation (or desire) is higher than the extent to which these facilities are perceived to be offered by the organisation. There is one exception; no discrepancy is perceived with regard to the facility "overview of internal job vacancies".

On average the difference between desired and perceived facilities (in absolute terms) is .72 (sd .56), which represents the level of unbalance of the psychological career contract in terms of facilities¹⁷.

6.2.3. Relation between mental and facility psychological career contract

The next Table shows correlations between the psychological career contract in mental terms and in terms of facilities.

Table 6.12. *Pearson correlations between mental and facility psychological career contract.*

	Desired Facilities	Perceived Facilities	Unbalance Facilities
Mental			
Commitment	.38**	.14*	.20**
Support	.10	.35**	-.33**
Modernity	.27**	.33**	-.14*
Unbalance	.18**	-.25**	.47**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

The correlations illustrate that the mental and the facility psychological career contract are correlated. Apparently, mental commitment to and support for career self-management relate to the level to which

¹⁶ Unlike the mental psychological career contract, a modernity-score of facilities has not been counted since this cannot be meaningfully interpreted.

¹⁷ 16 managers' score on actually offered facilities is higher than their score on desired facilities. The average unbalance of this group is .35 (sd=.37), which represents a small level of unbalance. When excluding this specific group of managers from the analysis, the average unbalance score would be .74 (sd=.56; N=226). Since this score does not deviate from the average unbalance score of the total group (m=.72; sd=.56; N=242) we decide to continue our study with the total group of managers using the absolute unbalance score.

managers expect facilities for career development from their organisation and the level to which they perceive that such facilities are indeed being offered.

From the Table we can see that commitment is related to both desired and perceived facilities. It appears that the higher the level of commitment, the higher the level of perceived unbalance with regard to facilities. Support only relates to the level of perceived facilities.

Finally, unbalance with regard to the mental psychological career contract relates positively to unbalance with regard to the psychological career contract in terms of facilities.

From this we conclude that the psychological career contract at the mental level and the more concrete (facility-) level are positively interrelated. This means that the more unbalanced one contract is, the more unbalanced the other contract is as well.

6.2.4. Background characteristics and psychological career contract

In section 4.3.3. we described that we expect a negative relation between age and the psychological career contract and a positive relation between educational level and the psychological career contract. The next Table contains Pearson and Spearman correlations to test these hypotheses.

Table 6.13. *Correlations between background characteristics and the psychological career contract.*

Psychological career contract (mental)	Age (Pearson's r)	Educational level (Spearman's Rho)
1. Commitment	-.14*	.00
2. Support	-.05	-.10
3. Modernity	-.11*	-.07
4. Unbalance	-.01	.11*

* significant at the .05 level (1-tailed).

Age

We expected a negative relation between age and the psychological career contract (commitment, support and modernity). We did not formulate an expectation regarding the relation with the level of unbalance. Hypothesis V.e. concerning the relation between age and the mental psychological career contract is supported for commitment and level of modernity of the contract. A negative relation with support was not found, which makes the hypothesis partly supported.

When we take a closer look at the relation with age and the psychological career contract at the level of the different career development components, then it seems that a negative relation exists between age on the one hand and on the other hand commitment to career planning ($r = -.21$; $p < .01$), support for career planning ($r = -.11$; $p < .05$) and modernity of career planning ($r = -.20$; $p < .01$) (see appendix 6.2.). Evidently, planning of ones career concerns a career development activity for which both commitment and support decrease with age.

Educational level

We expected a positive relation between educational level and the psychological career contract (commitment, support and modernity) (hypothesis V.f.). No expectations were formulated regarding the relation with the level of unbalance. From the correlation matrix it can be concluded that this hypothesis cannot be supported. Unexpectedly, we found a positive correlation between educational level and level of unbalance of the mental psychological career contract. The higher the level of education, the higher the level of unbalance. For career development components specifically this counts for monitoring career opportunities ($Rho = .13$; $p < .05$) and shaping learning opportunities ($Rho = .13$; $p < .05$). Apparently, compared to lower educated managers, managers with higher grades perceive a larger discrepancy between their responsibility for self-management of their career and the level to which their career self-management attitude is supported.

Since educational level and age are correlated, we checked the influence of age on the psychological career contract, controlling for the influence of educational level. A similar analysis was done for the influence of educational level on psychological career contract, controlling for age. These analyses did not lead to different conclusions.

Although we did not formulate hypotheses regarding the relation between age and educational level with the psychological career contract in terms of facilities, we counted correlations. None of them were found significant.

The next Table provides an overview of support for hypotheses regarding background characteristics and the psychological career contract.

Table 6.14. *Overview of support for hypotheses regarding relations between background characteristics and the psychological career contract (mental).*

<i>Background characteristics</i>	<i>Hypotheses</i>	<i>Support for hypotheses</i>
Age	V.e. Age is negatively related to commitment, support and modernity of the mental psychological career contract	+/- (commitment and modernity)
Educational level	V.f. Educational level is positively related to commitment, support and modernity of the mental psychological career contract	-

+ fully supported; +/- partly supported (between brackets it is written for which aspects the hypothesis is supported); - not supported

6.3. The relation between managers’ psychological career contracts and their HRD-patterns

In this section we focus on the relation between the psychological career contract and HRD-patterns of managers. We will examine how individual career self-management commitment and organisational career self-management support influence the nature of managers’ HRD-patterns¹⁸. The following picture shows the part of the research model that we address in this section.

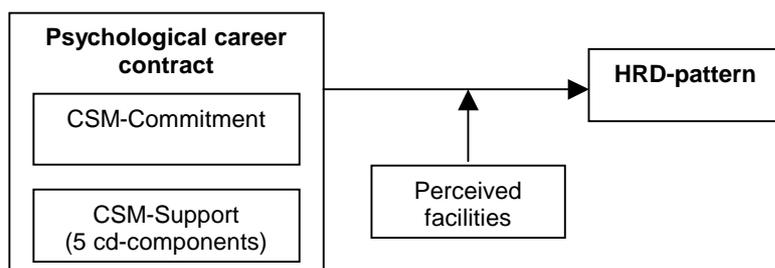


Figure 6.2. Research model: relation between psychological career contract and HRD-pattern.

The main question “to what extent do managers’ psychological career contracts influence their HRD-patterns?” has been subdivided into the following five sub-questions:

1. To what extent does commitment as a *whole*, and per career development component, (6.3.1.) influence the HRD-pattern?
2. To what extent does support as a *whole*, and per career development

¹⁸ The dependent variable is the narrower definition of the HRD-pattern, which is a summarising characterisation of the variety in generic value of HRD-activities, i.e. the sum of generic value of various HRD-activities used by managers in a given period of time.

- component, influence the HRD-pattern? (6.3.2.)
3. To what extent do commitment and support, and its interaction, influence the HRD-pattern? (6.3.3.)
4. To what extent do modernity and unbalance of the psychological career contract as a whole, and per career development component, influence the HRD-pattern? (including differences between types of psychological career contracts) (6.3.4.)
5. To what extent is the relation between the psychological career contract and HRD-pattern moderated by perceived career development facilities? (6.3.5.)

In chapter four we already presented five hypotheses on the relation between the psychological career contract and HRD-patterns of managers (hypotheses I.a. to I.e.; see section 4.3.4.). At the end of this section an overview is given of the hypotheses and the extent to which the hypotheses have been supported by the data (6.3.6.).

6.3.1. The influence of CSM-commitment on HRD-pattern

The first question to be answered is to what extent commitment to career self-management as a *whole*, and per career development component, influences the HRD-pattern?

In order to answer this question we first counted correlations and then we performed multiple linear regression analysis.

Table 6.15. shows the correlations between CSM-commitment as a whole and per component of career development and HRD-pattern¹⁹. These correlations represent the direct main effects of (components of) CSM-commitment on HRD-pattern.

Table 6.15. *Pearson correlations between (components of) CSM-commitment and HRD-pattern.*

CSM-commitment	HRD-pattern
1. Networking	.25**
2. Monitoring	.27**
3. Career planning	.23**
4. Shaping	.24**
5. Combining	.08
Total	.31**

** significant at the .01 level (1-tailed).

The Table shows that CSM-commitment as a whole is positively related to HRD-pattern. Moreover, this positive relation exists with regard to all career development components, except for combining work and non-work demands. The relation of commitment and the broader HRD-pattern is stronger ($r=.41$; $p<.01$). Moreover, in contrast to the narrower HRD-pattern, commitment to combining work and non-work demands does relate to the broader HRD-pattern ($r=.13$; $p<.05$).

Hypothesis I.a. about the positive relation of CSM-commitment as a whole on HRD-pattern, is supported.

For the correlations of other dimensions of HRD-activities with CSM-commitment we refer to appendix 6.3a. The correlations of CSM-commitment (and its components) and other HRD-dimensions are generally equal to the results with regard to HRD-pattern presented above. Interesting to see is that a relatively strong correlation is found between commitment to career planning and planning of HRD-activities ($r=.33$; $p<.01$). Apparently, managers who tend to plan their career development are likely to plan their HRD-activities as well.

¹⁹ Before doing the analyses, we did a check on outliers and considered whether it was necessary to exclude certain cases from the analysis. It seemed that only few outliers existed (std. residuals > 3). The influence on the results was almost zero. Therefore we decided to perform the analyses on the total data-base (N=242).

We proceeded testing the hypothesis by performing multiple linear regression analysis²⁰ with the five components of CSM-commitment as predictor variables and HRD-pattern as the dependent variable. In the following figure this analysis is presented schematically.

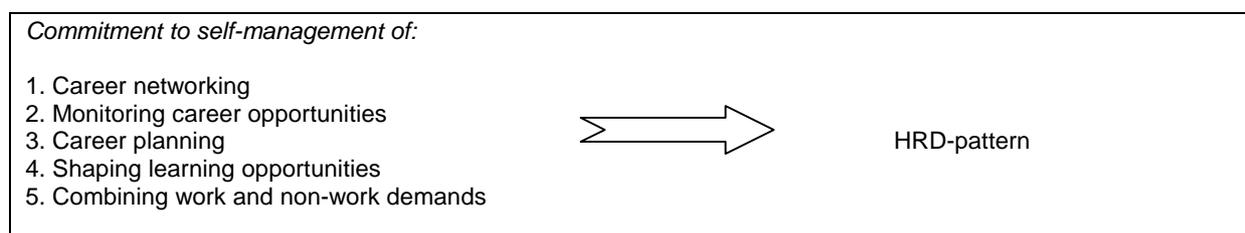


Figure 6.3. Multiple linear regression analysis with five components of CSM-commitment as predictor variables and HRD-pattern as the dependent variable.

In the next Table the results of this multiple linear regression analysis are displayed.

Table 6.16. *Multiple linear regression analysis with components of CSM-commitment as predictor variables and HRD-pattern as the dependent variable (method stepwise).*

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Δ R ²	F	Δ F	df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	Monitoring	.27	.07	.07	.07	18.99**	18.99**	1, 240	4.54	.27**
2	Monitoring Networking	.31	.09	.09	.02	12.28**	5.24*	2, 239	2.89 2.29	.20** .16*

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05-level.

It appears that two of the five components of CSM-commitment are included in the model, explaining 9% of the variance of HRD-pattern. The model includes commitment to monitoring career opportunities and commitment to career networking. From the beta-values (β) we conclude that commitment to monitoring explains more variance of HRD-pattern than commitment to networking does.

Analysis on the broader HRD-pattern as the dependent variable gives a somewhat different result. Here it seems that three components of commitment are included in the model, explaining 20.5% of the variance in the broader HRD-pattern (F=20.43; p<.01). The model includes commitment to monitoring career opportunities (β =.22; p<.01), commitment to shaping learning opportunities (β =.20; p<.01) and commitment to career planning (β =.16; p<.05).

Analyses on the other dimensions of HRD-activities, frequency, planning and the broader HRD-pattern, can be found in appendix 6.3b. Interesting findings are that frequency of HRD-activities is explained for 12.3% by shaping and monitoring; planning of HRD-activities is explained for 12.9% by career planning and shaping.

To summarise, the narrower and the broader HRD-pattern are influenced by different components of CSM-commitment, but monitoring career opportunities is included in both models, indicating that commitment to monitoring career opportunities plays an important and positive role for the richness of managers' HRD-patterns.

6.3.2. The influence of CSM-support on HRD-pattern

The question to be addressed here is to what extent support to career self-management as a *whole*, and per component, influences the HRD-pattern.

²⁰ The choice for *linear* regression analysis is based on a comparison of the relation between the psychological career contract and the HRD-pattern by a logarithmic and a linear function (by curve-estimation). It appeared that a linear relation may be assumed between the variables. This procedure was repeated prior to all regression analyses. We will not further report on this procedure.

To answer this question and to test hypothesis I.b. (CSM-support as a whole has a positive effect on HRD-pattern), we counted correlations and performed multiple linear regression analysis with CSM-support as a whole and support with regard to the five career development components as predictor variables and the HRD-pattern as the criterion variable.

Correlations between CSM-support as a whole and of its components and HRD-pattern represent the direct main effects of (components of) career self-management support on HRD-pattern. They are presented in the next Table (6.17.).

Table 6.17. *Pearson correlations between CSM-support and its components and HRD-pattern.*

CSM-support	HRD-pattern
1. Career networking	.21**
2. Monitoring career opportunities	.26**
3. Career planning	.15*
4. Shaping learning opportunities	.23**
5. Combining work and non-work demands	.13*
Total	.24**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (1-tailed).

The correlation matrix shows that CSM-support as a whole, and with regard to all career development components, is positively related to HRD-pattern. Hypothesis I.b. is confirmed.

For the correlations of CSM-support with other HRD-dimensions, we refer to appendix 6.4a. These correlations are generally equal to the results with regard to HRD-pattern as presented above. The only difference is that support for career networking and for combining work and non-work demands are not significantly related to planning of HRD-activities.

To further answer the second research question, we performed multiple linear regression analysis with the five components of CSM-support as predictor variables and HRD-pattern as the dependent variable. In the following Figure this analysis is presented schematically.

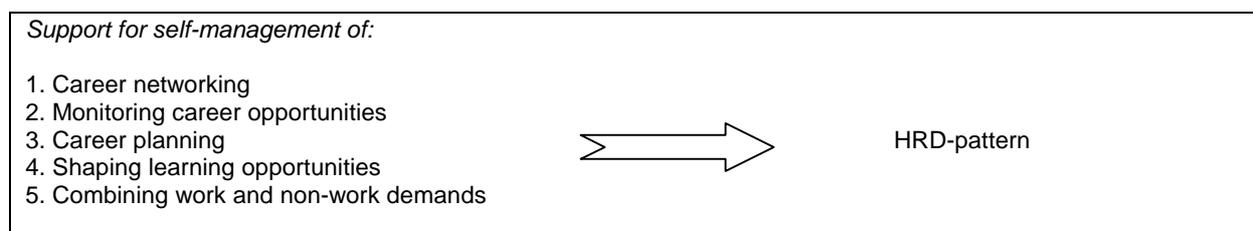


Figure 6.4. Multiple linear regression analysis with five components of CSM-support as predictor variables and HRD-pattern as the dependent variable.

It appears that only support for monitoring career opportunities is included in the model, explaining 7% of the variance of HRD-pattern (see Table 6.18).

Table 6.18. *Multiple linear regression analysis with components of CSM-support as predictor variables and HRD-pattern as the dependent variable (method stepwise).*

Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	F	df
Monitoring	.26	.07	.07	17.75**	1, 240

** significant at the .01 level.

Similar to the results on the narrower HRD-pattern, the dependent variable frequency of HRD-activities and the broader HRD-pattern were both influenced by support for monitoring career opportunities (see appendix 6.4b.). Analysis on planning of HRD-activities showed a different outcome. It is support for

shaping learning opportunities that seems to have a positive influence on the level to which managers plan their HRD-activities.

In conclusion, it is especially support for monitoring career opportunities that influences the richness of managers' HRD-patterns. Apparently, the nature of managers HRD-activities get more value for future employability when managers are encouraged by their organisation to constantly reflect on ones current career positions and to consider ones career ambitions.

6.3.3. The relation between CSM-commitment, CSM-support and its interaction on HRD-pattern

Here we focus on the question to what extent CSM-commitment and CSM-support, and its interaction, influence the HRD-pattern. While in the above analyses the direct unique main effects of CSM-commitment and CSM-support on the HRD-pattern were addressed separately, now we report on analyses in which commitment and support and an interaction-term were included in the regression analysis simultaneously.

Part of this question is whether one of the two aspects (CSM-commitment and CSM-support) of the psychological career contract has a stronger influence on HRD-pattern. As we already described in chapter four, we expect that CSM-commitment has a stronger impact on HRD-pattern than CSM-support (hypothesis I.c.). Commitment of people to take control over their own career development as an internal drive is assumed to be of more value as a unique main effect, than the support people receive to self-manage their career. Without individual commitment, organisational support will have a smaller impact.

We performed multiple linear regression analysis with CSM-commitment as a whole and CSM-support as a whole as the independent variables and the HRD-pattern as the dependent variable. First without interaction-effect, later on including the interaction-effect in a hierarchical multiple linear regression analysis. See the next Figure for a schematic representation of the analysis.

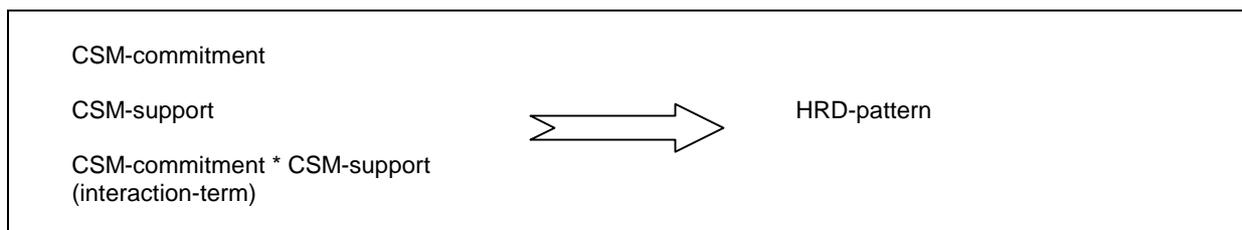


Figure 6.5. Multiple linear regression analysis with CSM-commitment, CSM-support and its interaction as predictor variables and HRD-pattern as the dependent variable.

The independent variables CSM-commitment and CSM-support are significantly correlated ($r = .27^{**}$). Although this correlation is not strong, it could cause a collinearity-problem, which refers to the troublesome situation where the correlations among the independent variables are strong. We considered the tolerance of CSM-commitment and CSM-support, which is .93. This means that only a very small percentage of one variable is explained by the other (7%). Based on this percentage we do not regard collinearity as a problem for this analysis.

In the next Table the results of multiple hierarchical linear regression analysis are presented.

Table 6.19. *Multiple hierarchical linear regression analysis with CSM-commitment and CSM-support, and their interaction, as predictor variables and HRD-pattern as the dependent variable.*

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Δ R ²	F	Δ F	df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	CSM-commitment	.31	.10	.09	.10	25.15**	25.15**	1, 240	5.02	.31**
	CSM-commitment CSM-support	.35	.12	.12	.03	16.65**	7.47**	2, 239	4.17 2.73	.26** .17**
2	CSM-commitment	.35	.13	.11	.00	11.37**	.82 n.s.	3, 238	2.03	.46*
	CSM-support								1.29	.56 n.s.
	Interaction-term								-.91	-.49 n.s.

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05-level.

In the first step of the hierarchical procedure we entered the CSM-commitment and CSM-support according to the stepwise method. Table 6.19. shows that both CSM-commitment as a whole and CSM-support as a whole affect the HRD-pattern, explaining 12% of the variance of HRD-pattern. The relative influence of CSM-commitment is stronger ($\beta=.26$) than the influence of CSM-support ($\beta=.17$). Hypothesis 1.c. is supported.

In the second step of the hierarchical procedure we entered the interaction-term. No interaction-effect was found of CSM-commitment and CSM-support on HRD-pattern. The added variance (ΔR^2) explained by the interaction-term is zero. After adding the interaction-term, the influence of CSM-support is not significant anymore.

Results of regression analyses with the other HRD-dimensions as dependent variables are included in appendix 6.5. For frequency of HRD-activities and the broader HRD-pattern similar results have been found as for the narrower HRD-pattern. No interaction-effect of commitment and support were found. 14% of frequency of HRD-activities is explained by CSM-commitment and CSM-support. The explained variance of the broader HRD-pattern is larger than of the narrower HRD-pattern. CSM-commitment ($\beta=.36$; $p<.01$) and CSM-support ($\beta=.18$; $p<.01$) explain 20% of the variance of the broader HRD-pattern. Unlike the other HRD-dimensions, planning of HRD-activities is influenced by CSM-commitment alone ($R^2=.10$). Neither CSM-support, nor the interaction-term has a significant additional effect on the level of planning of HRD-activities.

For exploratory reasons, the total group of managers was divided into subgroups based on the score on CSM-commitment and CSM-support. We used the 33.3% and the 67.7% percentiles to distinguish between these groups: they are identified as the low-, medium- and high-group. The combination of these three groups per dimension of the psychological career contract, results in nine subgroups. The average score on HRD-pattern was counted for the nine subgroups, which are given in the next Table.

Table 6.20. *HRD-pattern: means and standard deviations of nine groups according to level of CSM-commitment and CSM-support.*

Groups CSM-Commitment	Groups CSM-Support	N	M	sd
Low	Low	38	2.92	.83
	Medium	29	3.32	.77
	High	12	3.35	.78
Medium	Low	24	3.11	.87
	Medium	31	3.41	.52
	High	26	3.51	.48
High	Low	20	3.47	.79
	Medium	19	3.72	.70
	High	43	3.54	.73
Total		242	3.35	.75

Figure 6.6. presents a line-diagram of the relation between commitment, support and HRD-pattern.

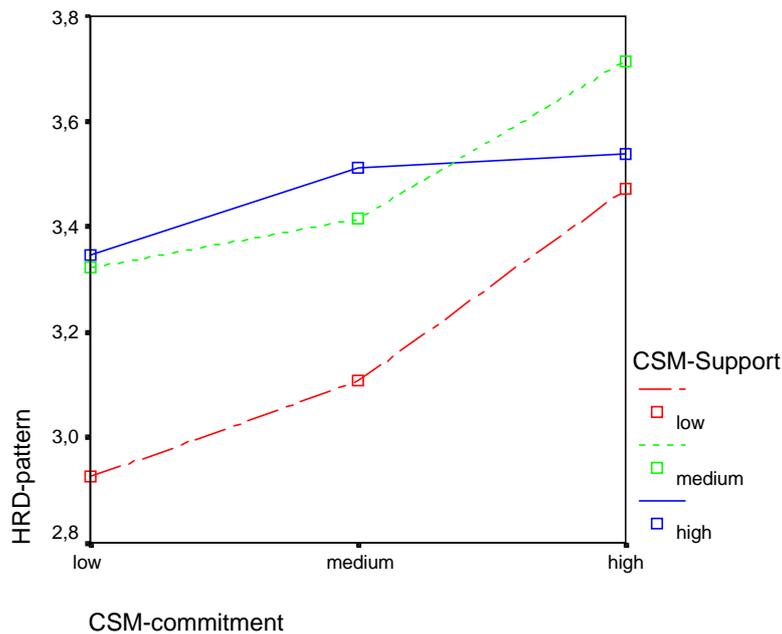


Figure 6.6. Interaction-effects of CSM-commitment and CSM-support on HRD-pattern.

From the Figure it becomes clear that whereas the lines for the low- and the medium-support groups are parallel, the line for the high-support group is not parallel with the other lines. Although from regression analysis it appeared that an interaction-effect does not exist, this figure seems to point in the direction of an interaction-effect of CSM-commitment and CSM-support on HRD-pattern.

Furthermore, the figure shows that a difference exists regarding the richness of HRD-patterns between managers who are supported for career self-management to a low and to an intermediate extent. This difference is represented by the space between the low-support line and the medium-support line.

The difference between the intermediate and highly supported group in relation to the level of commitment is however more complex. When it concerns managers with a low level of commitment, it seems that a high level of support does not contribute to a richer HRD-pattern compared to intermediate support. The line of reasoning could be that when managers are not motivated to take control over their own career development anyway, it does not matter whether the organisations stimulates them to a moderate or to a high extent to be more actively involved in career self-management. Apparently, once motivation for career self-management lacks, encouragement by the organisation will not help. In other words, what' not in managers, cannot be pulled out of them.

It gets interesting when we focus our attention on the intermediately and highly committed managers receiving intermediate till high levels of support. For managers who are moderately committed, a high level of support (compared to a moderate level of support) adds to the richness of their HRD-patterns. But, and this is a crucial point, managers with a high level of career self-management commitment benefit more from intermediate levels of support, than they do when they get a high level of support. In the most-right part of the diagram we observe that support may even have a negative effect on the richness of HRD-pattern. An optimal richness of HRD-pattern is reached by highly committed managers in combination with intermediate levels of support; and not, as we expected, high

commitment in combination with high support. Evidently, there is an optimum in the relation between the psychological career contract and the richness of HRD-patterns.

The conclusion is that for managers who are moderately till highly committed to career self-management, it makes a difference for the richness of their HRD-patterns whether they are given moderate or high support. While the medium-commitment group has the highest score on HRD-pattern when receiving a high level of support. This is not the case for the high-commitment group. Here, receiving medium-support leads to the highest score on HRD-pattern.

Although we need to be careful in drawing this conclusion (because of non-significant outcome of regression analysis), the picture seems to indicate that an abundance of support of highly committed managers has a negative result; that is, it leads to a poorer HRD-pattern.

6.3.4. The relation between psychological career contract from a modernity perspective and a balance perspective and HRD-pattern

In this section we still examine the relation between the psychological career contract and the HRD-pattern. This time we approach the psychological career contract from two different perspectives, a modernity perspective and a balance perspective (see also section 4.3.1. and 5.3.3.2.). We will compare the value of both perspectives for the examination of the influence of career self-management perceptions on the richness of HRD-patterns.

According to the modernity perspective, the psychological career contract is the sum of commitment and support. This sum represents the level to which a contract can be called modern or traditional. A high sum score means a modern attitude toward career self-management. A low score represents a more traditional character of the psychological career contract.

According to the balance perspective, it is important to see whether the level to which managers feel committed to self-manage their careers matches the level to which managers get support for self-managing their careers. The unbalance score is counted by subtracting support from commitment. A high score represents a high level of unbalance; a low score is a low level of unbalance. As already explained in 6.2.1. (ad e.), we will use an *absolute* unbalance score, since hypotheses concern the influence of the deviation from a perfect balanced situation (regardless whether commitment exceeds support or support exceeds commitment) on learning behaviour.

From the two perspectives two different and contrasting hypotheses have been formulated (see section 4.3.4.) and will now be tested. The next Figure presents the research model that we will examine in this section.

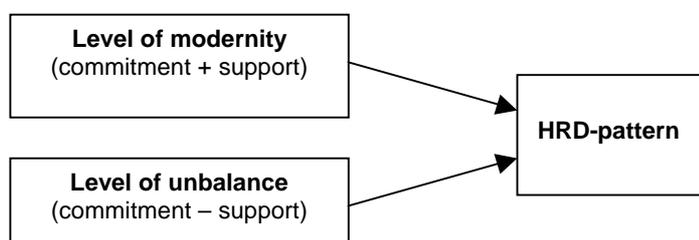


Figure 6.7. Research model: influence of modernity and unbalance of the psychological career contract on HRD-pattern.

We will first analyse the level of modernity of the psychological career contract as an influence on the HRD-pattern (6.3.4.1.). Next, the focus is on the influence on the HRD-pattern of the level of unbalance of the psychological career contract (6.3.4.2.). In 6.3.4.3. we distinguish between four types of psychological career contracts (by cluster analysis) and we will relate them to the HRD-pattern in section 6.3.4.4.

6.3.4.1. *The relation between modernity of the psychological career contract and HRD-pattern*

To what extent does the level of modernity of the psychological career contract as a whole, and per component, influence the HRD-pattern? This question is the central focus of this subsection. In section 4.3.3. we formulated the hypothesis (I.d.) that the level of modernity of the psychological career contract positively influences the HRD-pattern. Table 6.21. shows correlations between modernity and HRD-pattern.

Table 6.21. *Pearson correlations between modernity of (components of) the psychological career contract and HRD-pattern.*

Level of modernity with regard to:	HRD-pattern
1. Career networking	.29**
2. Monitoring career opportunities	.32**
3. Career planning	.23**
4. Shaping learning opportunities	.28**
5. Combining work and non-work demands	.15*
Total	.34**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (1-tailed).

From the correlation matrix it can be seen that level of modernity of the psychological career contract as a whole is positively related to HRD-pattern. This counts for all career development components. The strongest effect on HRD-pattern is of the modernity of monitoring career opportunities. Modernity of combining work and non-work demands is least related to HRD-pattern. Hypothesis I.d. is supported.

The positive relation between modernity of the psychological career contract counts for all HRD-dimensions and the broader HRD-pattern as well. The only exception we found is that modernity of career networking and of combining work and non-work demands does not relate to planning of HRD-activities. The effect of level of modernity of the psychological career contract on the broader HRD-pattern was found to be stronger ($r = .42$; $p < .01$) than on the narrower HRD-pattern (see appendix 6.6a.).

To examine whether modernity with regard to career development components influences the richness of HRD-patterns, we performed multiple linear regression analysis with the modernity scores of the five career development components as predictor variables and HRD-pattern as the dependent variable. See Figure 6.8. for a schematic representation of this analysis.

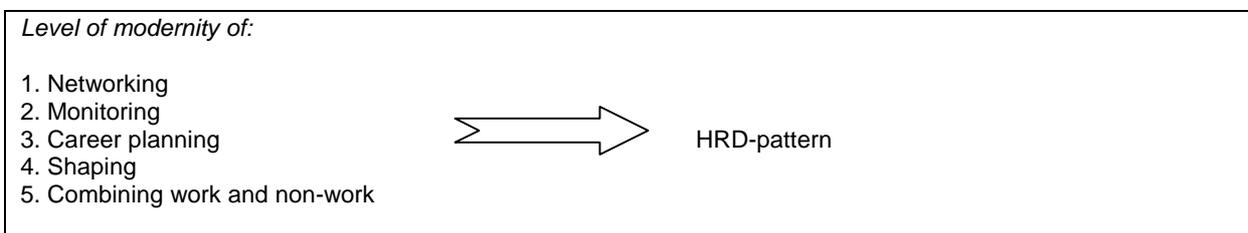


Figure 6.8. Multiple linear regression analysis with modernity of five career development components as predictor variables and HRD-pattern as the dependent variable.

In the next Table the results of the multiple linear regression analysis are presented.

Table 6.22. *Multiple linear regression analysis with modernity of career development components as predictor variables and HRD-pattern as the dependent variable (method stepwise).*

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Δ R ²	F	Δ F	df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	Monitoring	.32	.10	.10	.10	26.37**	26.37**	1, 240	5.14	.32**
2	Monitoring Networking	.34	.12	.11	.02	15.66**	4.56*	2, 239	3.05 2.13	.23** .16*

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05-level.

The Table shows that levels of modernity of two of the five components of the psychological career contract are included in the model, explaining 12% of the variance in HRD-pattern. The model includes modernity of monitoring career opportunities and modernity of career networking. The beta-values show that the influence of modernity of monitoring career opportunities on HRD-pattern is stronger than the influence of modernity of career networking.

In appendix 6.6b. additional regression analyses are included on the influence of modernity of (components of) the psychological career contract on other HRD-dimensions and the broader HRD-pattern. It appears that modernity of three career development components influence the broader HRD-pattern: modernity with regard to monitoring career opportunities, shaping learning opportunities and career planning (20%). Frequency of HRD-activities is influenced by modernity of shaping learning opportunities and monitoring career opportunities (13%) and planning of HRD-activities is influenced by the modernity of career planning and the modernity of shaping learning opportunities (10%).

6.3.4.2. *The relation between balance of the psychological career contract and HRD-pattern*

This section addresses the influence of the level of unbalance of the psychological career contract as a whole and per career development component, on the HRD-pattern of managers. Hypothesis 1.e. regarding this relation was introduced in section 4.3.4. We expect that level of unbalance of the psychological career contract negatively influences the HRD-pattern. Subsequent correlation and regression analyses give insight into whether the difference between commitment and support (the magnitude of the unbalance) influences the richness of the HRD-pattern. Table 6.23. shows correlations (1-tailed) between unbalance and HRD-pattern.

Table 6.23. *Pearson correlations between level of unbalance of (components of) the psychological career contract and HRD-pattern.*

Level of unbalance with regard to:	HRD-pattern
1. Career networking	-.09
2. Monitoring career opportunities	-.06
3. Career planning	.02
4. Shaping learning opportunities	-.08
5. Combining work and non-work demands	-.07
Total	-.05

It appears that the absolute unbalance score and HRD-pattern are not correlated. The difference between commitment and support does not seem to be related to the richness of managers' HRD-patterns. This counts for all components of career development. Moreover, other HRD-dimensions were not correlated either to the unbalance of the psychological career contract. Hypothesis 1.e. is not supported.

In addition, we counted correlations with level of unbalance of the psychological career contract and other HRD-dimensions and the broader HRD-pattern. No significant correlations were found (see appendix 6.7.).

Multiple linear regression analyses with absolute unbalance scores of the five career development components as predictor variables and HRD-pattern (and other HRD-dimensions) as the dependent variable did not reveal any significant results. The overall conclusion must be that state of unbalance per component is not a factor that contributes to explaining the richness of managers' HRD-patterns.

6.3.4.3. *Cluster analysis: Typology of the psychological career contract*

In the literature on the psychological contract typologies are often reported (see e.g. Rousseau, 1995; Shore & Barksdale, 1998; Tsui *et al.*, 1997). As described in chapter four, we propose that the psychological career contract may be categorised into four types. These types are based on the extent to which managers feel committed to self-manage their career development and on the extent to which they feel supported for career self-management by their organisation. We have labelled these types of psychological career contracts modern, traditional, push- and pull-related. We expect differences between these types with regard to HRD-pattern and mobility perspective.

We chose to categorise managers into these four categories by performing k-means cluster analysis. Clusters are formed based on similar cases and on differences between the clusters. According to this approach we take the empirical data as the starting point and test whether they support our theoretical distinction into four types of contracts. Shore & Barksdale (1998) also used k-means cluster analysis to categorise people into four types of exchange relationships.

This analysis is appropriate for large data-sets (> 200 cases). Based on our theoretical assumptions, we performed a cluster analysis in which we proposed four clusters of individuals (k=4). The next Table presents the final cluster centres of the standardised commitment and support scores and the distances between the final cluster centres.

Table 6.24. *Final cluster centres and distances between final cluster centres based on k-means cluster analysis (k=4).*

Clusters	Final cluster centres (z scores)		Distances			
	Commitment	Support	1	2	3	4
1. Modern	.99	1.13				
2. Push-related	-.33	.29	1.56	-		
3. Pull-related	.70	-.94	2.09	1.60	-	
4. Traditional	-1.29	-.95	3.08	1.57	1.99	-

In the following Figure a schematic representation of the clusters of psychological career contracts is given. The position of the final cluster centres is indicated with stars.

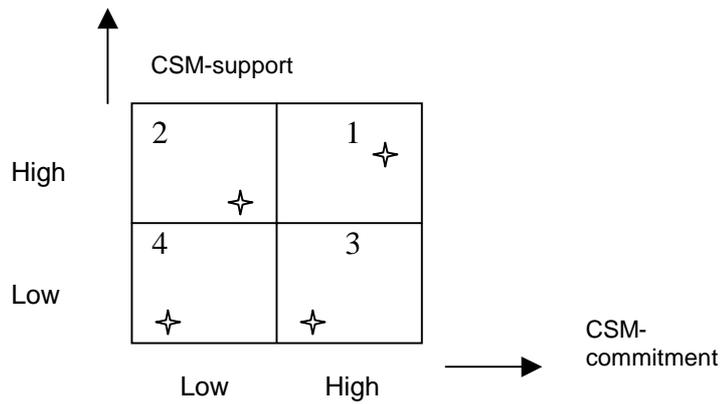


Figure 6.9. Final cluster centres based on k-means cluster analysis representing four types of psychological career contracts.

The four clusters according to the cluster centres can be described as follows:

Cluster 1: Modern (N=53)

(very) high score on CSM-commitment and (very) high score on CSM-support. This is a typical modern cluster;

Cluster 2: Semi-modern: push-related (N=95)

low CSM-commitment and high CSM-support. This is a semi-modern cluster; also indicated as push-related cluster;

Cluster 3: Semi-modern: pull-related (N=50)

high CSM-commitment and (very) low CSM-support. This is a semi-modern cluster; also indicated as pull-related cluster;

Cluster 4: Traditional (N=44)

(very) low CSM-commitment and (very) low CSM-support. This is a typical traditional cluster.

The final cluster centres of the modern and traditional clusters (1 and 4) are most distant, meaning that these clusters can be best distinguished. The push-related cluster (2) is relatively closest to all other clusters and is therefore most difficult to distinguish.

Individuals were assigned to one of the four groups, according to cluster membership. The next Figure shows the number of cases per type of psychological career contract.

Cluster 2	Cluster 1
Low/high	High/high
“Push-related”	“Modern”
N=95	N=53
Cluster 4	Cluster 3
Low/low	High/low
“Traditional”	“Pull-related”
N=44	N=50

Figure 6.10. Types of psychological career contract based on k-means cluster analysis.

The push-related cluster contains the largest number of managers (N=95). The original (unstandardised) scores showed relatively high means on commitment and also high (but lower)

means on support. A classification based on unstandardised scores, would most probably have lead to highest representation of the modern and the pull-related type.

People are inclined to score higher commitment (because it is generally seen as a positive characteristic) than on support (people may easily wish to get more support). By using standardised scores, a correction for this bias is conducted.

Besides the k-means cluster analysis, we conducted a hierarchical cluster analysis to judge whether a four-cluster solution is appropriate. From the dendrogram a four-cluster typology can well be recognised. Similar to the results of the k-means cluster analysis, the modern and traditional clusters are most distant. The two semi-modern clusters have some overlap. The results of the hierarchical cluster analysis support the typology in four categories.

The next Table gives a description of the types according to the cluster analysis by commitment, support, level of modernity and level of unbalance of the psychological career contract.

Table 6.25. *Description of the types of contract based on cluster analysis: commitment, support, modernity and unbalance.*

Dependent variable	Type of contract	N	Mean	sd	df	F	Differences (post-hoc)
Commitment	1. Modern	53	4.42	.28	3	156.47**	Tamhane 2, 4 < 1 2 < 3 4 < 2, 3
	2. Push	95	3.75	.26	238		
	3. Pull	50	4.27	.33	241		
	4. Traditional	44	3.27	.34			
Support	1. Modern	53	3.75	.39	3	154.54**	Tukey 2, 3, 4 < 1 3, 4 < 2
	2. Push	95	3.16	.35	238		
	3. Pull	50	2.29	.49	241		
	4. Traditional	44	2.28	.48			
Level of modernity	1. Modern	53	4.08	.27	3	239.03**	Tamhane 2, 3, 4 < 1 3, 4 < 2 4 < 3
	2. Push	95	3.45	.20	238		
	3. Pull	50	3.28	.30	241		
	4. Traditional	44	2.77	.24			
Level of unbalance	1. Modern	53	.67	.42	3	95.30**	Tamhane 1 < 3, 4 2 < 3, 4 4 < 3
	2. Push	95	.65	.39	238		
	3. Pull	50	1.98	.58	241		
	4. Traditional	44	1.04	.58			

** significant at the .01 level.

The F-statistic indicates that the four types of contracts differ significantly on commitment, support, level of modernity and level of unbalance. Post-hoc analysis was carried out to identify between which types differences exist. Levene's statistic was considered to determine whether equal variances of the types could be assumed. Tukey's post-hoc test was used in case of equal variances between the types. Tamhane's post-hoc test was used for unequal variances between the types.

Post-hoc analysis reveals that with regard to:

- commitment, all clusters differ except the modern type and the pull-related type; based on the theoretical notions we did not expect a difference between the traditional and the push-related type with regard to commitment. As expected, these two types do have the relatively two lowest scores.
- support, all clusters differ except the pull-related and traditional cluster. We did not expect a difference between the modern and the push-related type with regard to support. Still they do represent the two highest support scores;
- level of modernity, all clusters differ. The push- and pull-related clusters have both been defined as semi-modern, which is justified based on the fact that they take the mid-positions on the modernity

scores. They do however differ. The push-related contracts are more modern than the pull-related contracts.

- level of unbalance, all clusters differ except the modern and push-related cluster. We expected most unbalance in the push- and pull-related cluster. However, to our surprise, there is more unbalance in the traditional type, than in the push-related type. Clearly, most unbalance exists in the pull-related group, which comprises managers who are highly committed but who perceive to get only minor support from their organisation. For this group of managers, most negative effects can be expected for the richness of their HRD-patterns. Furthermore, their pursuit of mobility is expected to be highest as a result of dissatisfaction based on unmet career self-management expectations. Managers in the modern and the push-related cluster are expected to have the richest HRD-pattern and to have the lowest organisation-external pursuit of mobility.

6.3.4.4. Types of psychological career contracts and the HRD-pattern

Now that we have insight into types of psychological career contracts, the following question can be addressed: “are there any differences between the types of psychological career contract with regard to the richness of HRD-patterns?”. In section 4.3.4. we introduced the hypotheses (I.d. and I.e.), based on the modernity approach and the balance approach, that we have regarding this research question. As an alternative to the regression analyses that we already presented (in 6.3.4.1 and 6.3.4.2.), we will again test these hypotheses by comparing the HRD-patterns of managers who have various types of psychological career contracts (analysis of variance)²¹. It is thus examined which of both approaches, the modernity or the balance approach, has most value in explaining the relation between career self-management perceptions and learning behaviour.

Based on the modernity approach we expect that managers with most modern contracts have the richest HRD-patterns and managers with traditional contracts have the poorest HRD-patterns.

See Figure 6.11. for a schematic representation of this hypothesis. Note that this hypothesis also counts for the other HRD-dimensions (frequency and planning) and for the broader HRD-pattern.

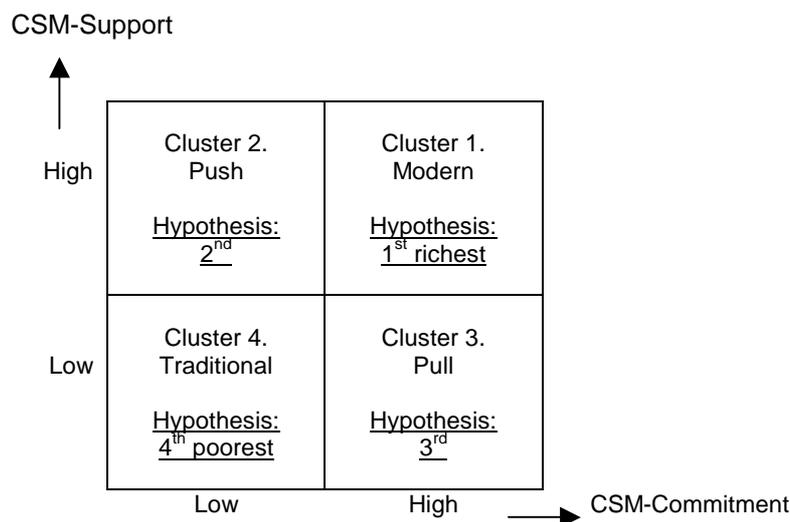


Figure 6.11. Hypothesis regarding order of richness of HRD-pattern according to the modernity approach (1st=richest, 4th=poorest).

²¹ It must be noted though that in concluding the level of support for the hypotheses, the regression analyses will be the decisive factor. The analyses based on the typology are primarily meant for illustration and additional insight.

Based on the balance approach we expect that managers with a balanced contract have richer HRD-patterns than managers with an unbalanced contract. All clusters differ except the modern and push-related cluster. Most unbalance exists in the pull-related unbalance cluster, the second-most unbalance exists in the traditional cluster and least unbalance exists in the pull-related and the modern cluster (see Table 6.25.). Accordingly, the richest HRD-patterns are expected in the modern and push-related clusters and the poorest in the pull-related unbalance cluster. The traditional cluster is expected to take the mid-position qua HRD-pattern.

See Figure 6.12. for a schematic representation of this hypothesis. Note that this hypothesis also counts for the other HRD-dimensions (frequency and planning) and for the broader HRD-pattern.

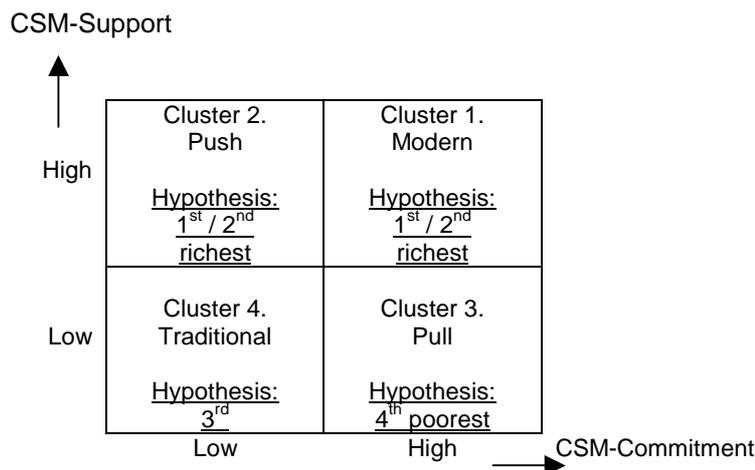


Figure 6.12. Hypothesis regarding order of richness of HRD-pattern according to the balance approach (1st =richest, 4th = poorest).

The hypotheses based on modernity and balance notions (I.d. and I.e.), will be tested by analysis of variance. The next Table shows the results of one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with HRD-pattern as the dependent variable and types of contracts (based on cluster analysis) as the independent variable.

Table 6.26. Anova on HRD-pattern (and its dimensions) as the dependent variable and types of contracts (based on cluster analysis) as the independent variable.

Dependent variable	Type of contract	N	Mean	sd	df	F	Differences (post-hoc)
HRD-pattern	1. Modern	53	3.51	.70	3	4.89**	Tukey 4 < 1, 2, 3
	2. Push	95	3.43	.62	238		
	3. Pull	50	3.38	.85	241		
	4. Traditional	44	2.98	.86			

** significant at the .01 level.

The F-values indicate that a difference exists between at least two of the four clusters on HRD-pattern and its dimensions. Post-hoc analysis (Tukey) reveals that managers with a traditional type of contract have significantly poorer HRD-patterns than all other types. No other differences were found.

This finding is partly in support of the modernity hypothesis, since at least the traditional type is found to be different than the modern type. The fact that the HRD-pattern of the modern type is not richer than the push- and pull-related types, limits the support for this hypothesis. Although not all types of contracts differ with regard to the richness of the HRD-pattern, when we consider the rank order of the scores this matches our expectations.

From the balance perspective, the pull-related type was expected to have the poorest HRD-pattern, which is clearly not the case. The unbalance hypothesis is not supported.

The results with regard to the broader HRD-pattern and other HRD-dimensions can be found in appendix 6.8. These results are also more in support of the expectations based on the modernity perspective than on the balance perspective. The traditional type has the poorest broader HRD-pattern and use least HRD-activities.

In sum, based on the analyses of types of psychological career contracts there is some support for the modernity approach, even though the modernity hypothesis is not fully confirmed. The unbalance hypothesis is not supported. The clearest distinction was found between the traditional type and the other types.

6.3.5. Facilities for career development as a moderator

We examined whether the relation between the mental psychological career contract and the HRD-pattern is moderated by the extent to which managers perceive facilities for career development from the organisation. The assumption is that managers who feel responsible to self-manage their career development, need at least certain facilities for career development, in order for them to be able to take control over their careers and to use HRD-activities. These career development facilities, then, form a condition for rich HRD-patterns to develop.

We first examined whether desired and perceived facilities for career development and the unbalance between these two variables are related to HRD-pattern. From correlation analysis (1-tailed) it appears that the level of desired facilities is positively related to the HRD-pattern ($r=.17$; $p<.01$) (both in narrow and in broad terms). To our surprise, there is no relation between the level of perceived facilities and the HRD-pattern ($r=.09$; $p=>.05$). It is however positively related to the broader HRD-pattern ($r=.13$; $p<.05$). Moreover, it appears that the level of unbalance is not related to the HRD-pattern ($r=.05$; $p>.05$).

Next, we analysed whether the level of perceived facilities would serve as a moderating factor of the relation between the psychological career contract and HRD-pattern. The moderator-effect would mean that for different levels of perceived facilities, the relation between psychological career contract and HRD-pattern would differ. However, since the relation between perceived facilities and HRD-pattern was not significant, no moderator effect could be found either²².

²² The interaction-term of perceived facilities and the psychological career contract on HRD-pattern revealed a ΔR^2 of zero. We found similar results for the relation with other HRD-dimensions and the broader HRD-pattern.

6.3.6. Summary of support for hypotheses

In the next Table the level of support for hypotheses regarding the third research question of this chapter are reported.

Table 6.27. Overview of support for hypotheses regarding relation between psychological career contract and HRD-pattern.

Hypotheses	Support for hypotheses
I.a. CSM-commitment as a whole has a positive effect on HRD-pattern	+
I.b. CSM-support as a whole has a positive effect on HRD-pattern	+
I.c. CSM-commitment has a stronger effect on HRD-pattern than CSM-support	+
I.d. Level of modernity of the psychological career contract positively influences the HRD-pattern.	+
I.e. Level of unbalance of the psychological career contract negatively influences the HRD-pattern.	-

+ fully supported; +/- partly supported; - not supported

All hypotheses except one are supported by the data. All findings show an influence of CSM-commitment on HRD-pattern and an additional influence of support on HRD-pattern. A significant interaction-effect of commitment and support on HRD-patterns was not found, although Figure 6.6. seems to point at the negative effect of a high level of support in addition to a high level of commitment.

We found support for our hypothesis that level of modernity has impact on the richness of the HRD-pattern. Level of unbalance does not seem to influence learning behaviour of managers. Moreover, we found differences between the types of psychological career contracts which confirms the expectations based on the modernity approach by and large and at the same time rejects the expectations of the balance approach.

6.4. Relation between managers and subordinates

In this section we address the relation between the managers' own psychological career contract and the level of support they provide to their subordinates (the third perspective on the psychological career contract) (6.4.1.). In 6.4.2. we address the relation between subordinate support and subordinates' HRD-pattern. We examine the relation between managers' and subordinates' HRD-patterns in 6.4.3. In 6.4.4. the HR-role that managers fulfil is described and hypotheses regarding HR-roles are tested. The following figure represents the research-model that we will examine next.

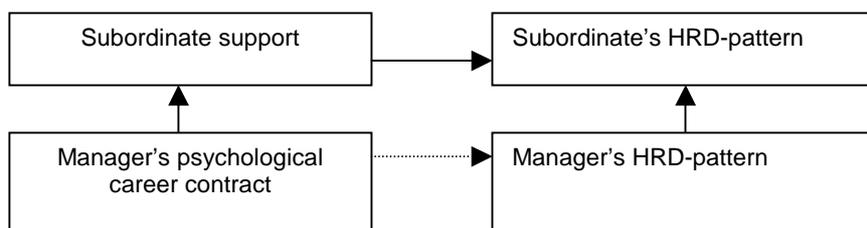


Figure 6.13. Relation between managers' and subordinates' HRD-patterns and psychological career contracts²³.

²³ Since the relation between managers' psychological career contract and their HRD-patterns has already been examined, a dashed line represents it.

6.4.1. Manager's psychological career contract and support for subordinates' career self-management

The questions that we will answer in this subsection are the following:

- 1a. To what extent do managers provide support for (components of) their subordinates' career self-management?
- 1b. To what extent is managers' support for their subordinates' career self-management related to their own psychological career contract?

Ad 1a. Managers' support for subordinate career self-management

In the next Table information is given about the level of subordinate support with regard to the different career development components.

Table 6.28. *Managers' support to subordinates' career self-management: means, standard deviations and Pearson correlations.*

Subordinate support	M	sd	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Networking	3.38	.71	1.00					
2. Monitoring	3.68	.66	.52**	1.00				
3. Career planning	3.83	.71	.32**	.46**	1.00			
4. Shaping	3.73	.66	.43**	.46**	.42**	1.00		
5. Combining	3.71	.74	.35**	.28**	.26**	.40**	1.00	
6. Total	3.67	.49	.73**	.75**	.69**	.75**	.65**	1.00

** significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Managers consider themselves highly supportive towards career self-management of their subordinates. For all career development activities, except for career networking, the score on subordinate support is high. Especially, career planning is an activity for which managers provide a lot of support to their subordinates. Analysis of variances ($F=14.91$; $p<.01$) and post-hoc analyses reveal that managers give significantly less support for subordinate's career networking than to all other career development components.

Furthermore, we see that subordinate support for all career development components are positively correlated. This means, that higher support with regard to one component goes together with higher support to another career development component.

Ad 1b. Managers' psychological career contracts and their support for subordinates' career self-management.

Questions to be answered are: to what extent does subordinate support relate to managers' own psychological career contracts? And, does the level of subordinate support differ from the level of support that managers themselves get from their direct supervisors?

In section 4.2.5. we described several aspects of the relation between managers and subordinates. In 4.3.4. we presented the hypotheses regarding this research question. Based on the work by Miles (1965), we expect that managers' commitment to career self-management is higher than the level of support they perceive to get from their direct supervisor (hypothesis IV.c.) and than the level of support they provide for career self-management to their subordinates (hypothesis IV.d.). Furthermore, we expect positive relations between on the one hand managers' commitment to and support for career self-management and on the other hand their support for subordinates' career self-management (hypothesis IV.e.).

Table 6.29. *Pearson correlations and paired samples t-tests between (components of) managers' commitment and support and (components of) subordinate support.*

	r	R	T	T
Subordinate support	Commitment (to similar component)	Support (to similar component)	Commitment (to similar component)	Support (to similar component)
1. Networking	.48**	.46**	9.00**	-10.19**
2. Monitoring	.63**	.49**	3.14**	-14.49**
3. Career planning	.39**	.43**	-.61	-13.63**
4. Shaping	.62**	.46**	4.35**	-13.50**
5. Combining work and non-work	.40**	.43**	11.90**	-14.87**
6. Total	.17**	.50**	7.59**	-17.80**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (1-tailed).

Table 6.29. shows that all components of managers' commitment and support are positively correlated to subordinate support. The relation with support is stronger than the relation with commitment. This means that the more a manager perceives to get support for career self-management, the more in turn he is inclined to give support to his/her subordinates.

With regard to the relation with commitment, we see that especially commitment to monitoring career opportunities and subordinate support for monitoring career opportunities are rather strong related ($r=.63$). The same counts for the component shaping learning opportunities ($r=.62$).

Overall we can state that there is a positive relation between on the one hand commitment to and support for career self-management of managers and on the other hand their support for subordinates' career self-management. Hypothesis IV.e. is supported by the data.

As expected we found that managers perceive to get less support from their direct supervisors than they give themselves to their subordinates. This counts for all components of career development. Hypothesis IV.c. is supported. Appearing from paired samples t-test, we found differences between managers' own psychological career contracts and the support they give to their subordinates' career self-management. Commitment to career self-management is higher than the support they give to their subordinates. This finding supports hypothesis IV.d. An exception is found with regard to the career planning component for which no difference was found between commitment and subordinate support.

6.4.2. Relation between subordinate support and subordinate's HRD-pattern

In the next Table the HRD-patterns of subordinates (in the eyes of their managers) are characterised. Means and standard deviations are given of frequency, generic value and planning of HRD-activities and the broader (formal) HRD-pattern of subordinates.

Table 6.30. *Frequency of subordinates' HRD-activities: means and standard deviations.*

HRD-activity	M	sd
1. Frequency formal HRD-activities	3.31	.85
2. Generic value formal HRD-activities	2.91	.88
3. Planning of HRD-activities	2.86	1.07
4. Formal HRD-pattern	3.03	.66

The Table shows that on average subordinates follow formal HRD-activities to an intermediate extent (according to their managers)²⁴. To illustrate, most subordinates (42.6%) spend on average 6 to 10 days per year on formal HRD-activities. 20.4% spends less than 5 days per year on formal training. And 37% spends more than 10 days on formal training per year.

²⁴ The scores on the non-formal HRD-activity "seeking written information" is intermediate (3.40; $sd=.84$) and "asking advice" is high (3.89; $sd=.69$). Informal HRD-activities are used to a high extent ($m=4.08$; $sd=.46$).

According to their managers, subordinates' formal HRD-activities have intermediate value for future jobs. Especially the value for future jobs outside the organisation is rather low (2.57; sd=1.08). A paired samples t-test demonstrates that subordinates follow more formal HRD-activities with value for future jobs within the organisation (m=3.25; sd=.94), than for future jobs outside the current organisation (T=10.73; p<.01). Apparently, subordinates are more focussed on organisation-specific than on organisation-generic learning. The extent to which subordinates plan their HRD-activities is intermediate. The score on the broader HRD-pattern of subordinates is intermediate as well.

We expect a positive relation between the level of subordinate support for career self-management provided by managers and their subordinates' HRD-patterns.

Table 6.31. *Pearson correlations between subordinate support for career self-management and subordinate's formal HRD-pattern.*

Subordinate support	Subordinate's narrower HRD-pattern r
1. Networking	.10
2. Monitoring	.11
3. Career planning	.22**
4. Shaping	.12*
5. Combining	.04
6. Total	.16**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (1-tailed).

The Table shows that there are some significant relations between subordinate support and the (narrower formal) HRD-pattern of subordinates. However these correlations are weak.

In addition we performed multiple linear regression analysis (see Figure 6.14.) with five career development components of subordinate support as predictor variables and subordinate's formal HRD-pattern as the dependent variable.

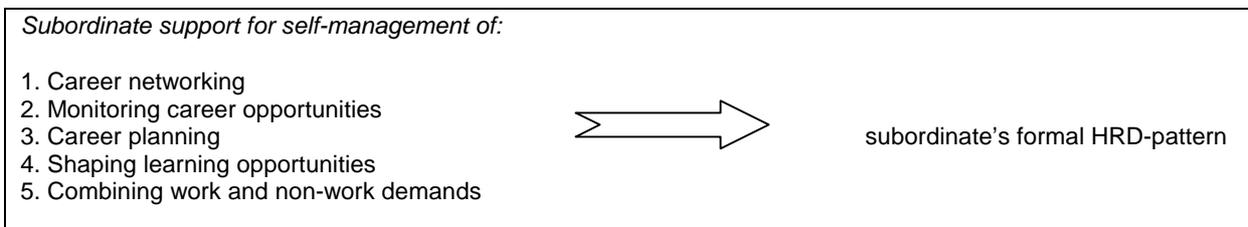


Figure 6.14. Multiple linear regression analysis with five components of CSM-subordinate support as predictor variables and subordinate's formal HRD-pattern as the dependent variable.

Table 6.32. *Multiple linear regression analysis with components of CSM subordinate support as predictor variables and subordinates' (narrower formal) HRD-pattern as the dependent variable (method stepwise).*

Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	F	df
Career planning	.22	.05	.04	11.92**	1, 240

** significant at the .01 level.

From Table 6.32. it appears that support for self-management of career planning by subordinates has a positive effect on the subordinates' HRD-pattern. Support for the other career development components were not included in the model. The same conclusion is drawn for the broader formal HRD-pattern of subordinates.

6.4.3. Relation between managers' and subordinates' HRD-pattern

The question is to what extent a relation exists between managers' HRD-patterns and those of their subordinates. We expect that HRD-patterns of managers and subordinates are positively related.

In the next Table, we present Pearson correlations regarding managers' and subordinates' formal HRD-patterns and T-values.

Table 6.33. *Pearson correlations and paired samples T-tests between managers' and subordinates' formal HRD-patterns.*

	R (manager – subordinate)	T (manager – subordinate)
1. Frequency formal HRD-activities	.28**	-.86
2. Generic value formal HRD-activities	.32**	7.21**
3. Planning of HRD-activities	.25**	7.65**
4. Broader (formal) HRD-pattern	.34**	6.25**

** significant at the .01 level (1-tailed); T-test: df = 241.

HRD-activities of managers and subordinates regarding all HRD-dimensions are significantly positively correlated. More formal, generic and planned formal HRD-activities by managers seem to go together with more formal, generic and planned formal HRD-activities by subordinates. Richer patterns of managers, relate to richer patterns of subordinates.

Managers perceive their own formal HRD-activities to have more generic value than the formal HRD-activities of their subordinates. Moreover, managers indicate that they plan their HRD-activities to a higher extent than their subordinates do. The extent to which managers and subordinates follow formal courses does not differ. In sum, managers see their own formal HRD-pattern as richer than their subordinates' HRD-patterns. Since the subordinates' HRD-pattern is measured from the point-of-view of managers, these results have to be interpreted very carefully. It is likely that managers have overestimated the worth of their own learning behaviour in the light of career development, while at the same time being cautious with their judgement about the value of their subordinates' HRD-activities.

6.4.3.1. HR-role

As we described in the fifth chapter (section 5.3.3.4. ad b.) we distinguish between three HR-roles, the development-oriented role, the discipline-oriented role and the staffing-role. These roles are based on frequency, importance and competence with regard to managers' Human Resource Management tasks. In appendix 6.9. more detailed information is given with regard to these HRM-tasks specifically; it includes results of paired samples T-tests as well. Frequency, importance and competence with regard to HR-tasks are all positively correlated.

The next Table contains means, standard deviations and Pearson correlations regarding HR-roles.

Table 6.34. *Means, standard deviations and correlations of dimensions of manager's HR-role.*

HR-roles	M	sd	1	2	3	4
1. Development-oriented (tasks 1 & 5)	4.25	.48	1.00			
2. Discipline-oriented (tasks 2 & 3)	3.65	.59	.40**	1.00		
3. Staffing (task 4)	3.99	.80	.36**	.23**	1.00	
4. Total	3.96	.44	.78**	.79**	.64**	1.00

** significant at the .01 level (2-tailed); # significant mean difference.

Managers score high on all three HR-roles. These scores do however all differ significantly. Managers see themselves mainly as development-oriented. They score relatively lowest on the discipline-oriented HR-role, thus indicating that maintaining a disciplined working climate and work force is the role in which they are least involved, compared to the two other roles.

The question remains how HR-role relates to managers own HRD-patterns and to the HRD-pattern of their subordinates. The next Table shows the relation with the formal HRD-pattern (both narrow and broad) of both managers and subordinates.

Table 6.35. *Pearson correlations between the fulfilment of HR-roles and managers' and subordinates' formal HRD-patterns (both narrower and broader).*

HR-roles	Manager		Subordinate	
	Formal HRD-pattern Narrow	Formal HRD-pattern Broad	Formal HRD-pattern Narrow	Formal HRD-pattern Broad
1. Development-oriented	.14*	.13*	.15*	.28**
2. Discipline-oriented	.01	.03	.20**	.23**
3. Staffing	.06	.03	.11*	.21**
4. Total	.09	.09	.21**	.32**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (1-tailed).

From the Table some interesting findings can be read. It appears that it is the fulfilment of the development-oriented role in particular that relates positively to both the managers own formal HRD-pattern as to their subordinates' formal HRD-pattern.

The fulfilment of all HR-roles is positively related to subordinates' narrower and broader HRD-pattern. The relation between fulfilment of HR-roles and the managers' own HRD-pattern (narrow and broad) is much weaker. Only the development-oriented role relates positively to managers' formal HRD-pattern.

In the next Table the relation of fulfilment of HR-roles and the managers own HRD-pattern is given, this time not restricted to formal HRD-activities only.

Table 6.36. *Pearson correlations between the fulfilment of HR-roles and managers' HRD-patterns (more than formal HRD-activities alone!) (both narrower and broader).*

HR-roles	HRD-pattern Narrow	Frequency	Planning	HRD-pattern Broad
	1. Development-oriented	.21**	.18**	.19**
2. Discipline-oriented	.06	.10	.05	.09
3. Staffing	.08	.04	-.02	.07
4. Total	.15**	.15*	.10	.18**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (1-tailed)

The Table shows similar results as with the managers' formal HRD-patterns. A development-orientation relates positively to all HRD-dimensions and the broader HRD-pattern as well. The other HR-roles do not relate to HRD-pattern. Also the total score on fulfilment of HR-roles relates positively to the narrower and broader HRD-pattern and to frequency of HRD-activities. The only exception is that no relation was found with planning of HRD-activities.

Our hypothesis (IV.b.) that the fulfilment of managers' HR-roles positively relates to the richness of their own HRD-pattern is supported, since significant relations were found for the total score. Moreover, it appears that this relation counts for the development-oriented role in specific.

Finally, we expected that the fulfilment of the HR-role is positively related to the level of subordinate support. The next Table presents correlations between fulfilment of HR-roles and the level of subordinate support as a whole and per component.

Table 6.37. *Pearson correlations between the fulfilment of HR-roles and subordinate support as a whole and per career development component.*

HR-roles	Networking	Monitoring	Career planning	Shaping	Combining	Total
1. Development-oriented	.19**	.17**	.23**	.28**	.16**	.29**
2. Discipline-oriented	.20**	.21**	.23**	.16**	.15*	.27**
3. Staffing	.10	.18**	.15**	.11*	.06	.17**
4. Total	.22**	.25**	.28**	.25**	.17**	.33**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (1-tailed).

The Table demonstrates that a positive relation exists between fulfilment of HR-roles and the level of subordinate support. This counts for all HR-roles with the total score on subordinate support. Especially the development-oriented role appears to be positively related to the level of subordinate support. The staffing-role is least related to subordinate support. Hypothesis IV.a. is supported.

6.4.4. Summary of support for hypotheses

The next Table provides an overview of support for hypotheses with regard to the relation between managers and subordinates. All hypotheses were supported by the data.

Table 6.38. *Overview of support for hypotheses regarding relation between managers and subordinates (with regard to psychological career contract and HRD-pattern).*

Hypotheses	Support for hypotheses
IV.a. A positive relation exists between fulfilment of the HR-role and subordinate support as part of the psychological career contract.	+
IV.b. The fulfilment of the HR-role relates positively to the HRD-pattern of managers themselves.	+
IV.c. Managers' CSM-commitment is higher than their perception of supervisor support for career self-management.	+
IV.d. Managers' CSM-commitment is higher than their support for subordinates' career self-management.	+ ²⁵
IV.e. A positive relation exists between supervisor-support, commitment and subordinate support for career self-management.	+

+ fully supported; +/- partly supported; - not supported

6.5. Conclusion and discussion

Throughout this chapter we have given overviews of the extent to which hypotheses were supported. In fact these overviews give answers to the research questions. In this section we will summarise the main findings of this chapter according to the four main research questions we formulated at the beginning of this chapter and points of discussion will be described.

1. How can managers' HRD-patterns be described?

Managers score high on frequency of HRD-activities. They use less formal than non-formal and informal HRD-activities. As in chapter 3, again no support was found for the compensation hypothesis. On average, the generic value of managers' HRD-activities is intermediate. There is no difference between the different types of HRD-activities. On planning of HRD-activities managers have moderate scores as well. Furthermore, it appears that all HRD-dimensions are positively correlated.

²⁵ The hypothesis has been supported on the level of *total* scores. The only exception is that no difference was found with regard to career planning.

In general, it may be concluded that the pattern of HRD-activities managers use to enlarge their management competences, is moderately to highly beneficial for the creation of mobility chances in the future. The fact that most managers use HRD-activities that result in broadly applicable competences is certainly a positive sign for the development of careers of today.

With regard to engagement in other career development activities it appears that managers spent most of their time on using HRD-activities and on combining their work and private life. They spent significantly less time on optimising their career situation (networking) and on career planning activities.

With regard to background characteristics it can be concluded that with age the HRD-pattern of managers grows poorer and the frequency of career planning activities decreases. Furthermore, educational level seems to relate positively to planning of HRD-activities and to engagement in career planning activities. In contrast to the expectation that we had about the relation of level of line management and HRD-pattern (positive), we found a negative correlation between these two variables. In other words, on higher levels of line management, the HRD-patterns appear to have a poorer character. This finding might be explained by the fact that managers who have already reached high management levels, do not need to use as many HRD-activities with generic value as managers who still have a way to go before they reach the highest levels of management. We found an interesting result for the group of project managers; they seem to be less engaged in planning of HRD-activities than their colleagues in staff management positions. This could be explained by the fact that in project management there generally is a low level of continuity and a high level of fragmentation of work compared to e.g. staff positions; it would therefore be harder for project-managers to plan in general, and to plan HRD-activities in particular.

II. How can managers' psychological career contracts be described?

The level of commitment to career self-management is high. Commitment to combining work and non-work is higher than commitment to any other career development component. The level of support that managers perceive to receive from their supervisors to self-manage their career is moderate. Managers perceive more support for shaping learning opportunities than for career networking. These two career development components have the relatively highest and the relatively lowest score.

With regard to all career development components the score on commitment is significantly higher than the level of perceived support for career self-management.

When we consider the psychological career contract as a whole, we found that the level of modernity of the psychological career contract is intermediate. The modernity score of combining work and non-work is higher than all other career development components. At the same time we see that the level of unbalance with regard to this same component is higher than the unbalance with regard to all other career development components. On average the level of unbalance between the level of commitment and support is one point (on a five-point scale).

On the basis of k-means cluster analysis we developed a typology of psychological career contracts, containing the following four types: modern, traditional, push-related and pull-related. Each of these types comprises a different combination of commitment and support scores. These types have been input for analysis of variance with the purpose to see whether the types of psychological career contract lead to different HRD-patterns and mobility perspectives.

With regard to the psychological career contract in terms of facilities we found that the average level of both desired and perceived facilities is high. It appears, however, that for all facilities the level of expectation (or desire) is higher than the extent to which these facilities are perceived to be actually offered by the organisation. The difference between desired and perceived facilities (in absolute terms) is .72 on average (on a five-point scale). This difference was to be expected, because it is

human nature that when people are given the opportunity to explicate their wishes, regardless of the domain or field of study, it is likely that wishes exceed reality.

The mental and the facility psychological career contract are correlated. It appears that the more managers feel responsible for controlling their own career, the more they expect from their organisation in terms of facilities. Moreover, commitment is positively related to perceived facilities.

The level of unbalance of the mental and the facility psychological career contract are positively correlated. This means that the more unbalanced one contract is, the more unbalanced the other contract is as well.

With regard to the relation of background characteristics and the psychological career contract, we found that age is negatively related to the level of commitment to career self-management and the level of modernity of the contract as a whole. No relation was found with support for career self-management.

Interestingly, the negative relation of age with the psychological career contract especially goes for the career planning component. With age managers' responsibility for career planning seems to diminish, which seems logical in the light of the relatively shorter time that is left for their career to develop compared to younger managers.

Our expectation of a positive relation between educational level and the psychological career contract was not supported.

III. To what extent do managers' psychological career contracts influence their HRD-patterns?

The results of the analyses show that commitment to and support for career self-management both have a unique main effect on the HRD-pattern of managers. The influence of commitment is found to be stronger than the influence of support on HRD-pattern. Moreover, the interaction effect of CSM-commitment and CSM-support on HRD-pattern was analysed, but does not seem to exist for the group as a whole. On a more detailed level the analyses seem to reveal an interaction effect. The results indicate that an abundance of support of already highly committed managers has a counteracting result; that is, it leads to a poorer HRD-pattern. To reach optimally rich HRD-patterns, highly committed managers can do with moderate support for career self-management.

A similar mechanism has been described in motivation literature (e.g. Deci & Ryan, 1985; Lens, 1993). Experimental research has proven that extrinsic rewards may undermine the naturally existing intrinsic motivation. In our study, this mechanism may be compared to the fact that excessive support for career self-management may undermine the (naturally existing) commitment to career self-management. Hence, the HRD-patterns of managers may be poorer than expected. One of the components of Deci's cognitive evaluation theory can be of help to explain the result of the negative effect of too large amounts of support. According to Deci the perception of competence and self-determination is of high importance for intrinsic motivation; and in terms of our study, self-determination is important for the use of HRD-activities that contribute to better career prospects. Managers who are being pushed to self-manage their careers might after a while find it hard to believe that it was originally their own natural drive to take their career progress in their own hands. Managers may start to believe that they have to take control of their careers because they are encouraged to do so, or even because "they have to" and no longer because they want it themselves. The perception of self-determination gradually diminishes, which in the end will result in poorer HRD-patterns.

Furthermore, we addressed the impact of various career development activities that constitute commitment and support as a whole as influencing factors on the HRD-pattern. We found that it is especially commitment to and support for monitoring career opportunities that has a positive effect on the richness of a manager's HRD-pattern, both in the narrower and the broader sense. This career

development component concerns a reflective approach to career planning. It involves activities such as reviewing the current job position and determining whether it is a good place to stay some time longer or not. Another example is to find out which ambitions career ambitions one possesses. Apparently, it is not only the active observable actions by which one's career may progress; it is especially the time and effort managers are prepared to spend on career reflection, or monitoring, and who are supported to do so, which helps the career to develop.

Moreover, it appears that feeling responsible for career networking positively influences the use of generic HRD-activities as well. Finally, commitment to shaping learning opportunities seems to influence all HRD-dimensions except the HRD-pattern in a narrower sense. This result seems to indicate that in order for HRD-activities to occur, it is important that managers take control of and feel responsible for creating circumstances from which they can learn.

Planning of HRD-activities is primarily influenced by the commitment to career planning. It was to be expected that commitment to career planning and actually planning one's HRD-activities would relate to each other. Planning attitude thus seems to actually influence planning behaviour.

Another interesting finding is that "combining work and non-work" was found to be both the most modern and the most unbalanced career development component. The modernity is the result of a high commitment score; in other words, managers feel highly responsible for integrating their "life at the office" and their "life at home". At the same time the support score is relatively lowest in comparison to all other career development activities. Although in itself this is an interesting finding, neither modernity nor unbalance with regard to this component influences the richness of HRD-patterns.

This particularly "modern" activity appears to be distinct in nature compared to the other activities. It might be argued that even though this activity does not (directly) contribute to better career prospects, it is an activity of major importance since it concerns a necessary *condition* in order for the career to develop. Furthermore, for all other career development activities it is rather clear that they concern a shared responsibility between employer and employee. On the contrary, for an activity that is so closely linked to private matters, the division of responsibilities seems more complicated. People probably do not even regard it as a major responsibility for their superiors to be involved in supporting the self-management of combining work and non-work demands. Additionally, it will largely depend on the style of a leader how this responsibility will be handled. It is likely that in hectic business environments, this activity will not be a number one priority and does not get the attention it deserves, especially when the span of control is large and managerial attention has to be divided over a large number of subordinates.

We compared two alternative approaches on the combined effect of commitment and support on HRD-pattern: the modernity approach and the balance approach. The results of analyses provide evidence for the modernity approach and reject the balance approach. This finding suggests that it is the sum of commitment to and support for career self-management that impacts the richness of managers' HRD-patterns. The higher the score on both, the more beneficial the HRD-pattern will be for future career-prospects²⁶. The discrepancy existing between the level of career self-management commitment and support is not essential in this respect. To summarise, the level of modernity matters more than the level of unbalance in explaining the richness of managers' HRD-patterns.

Finally, we found that facilities for career development do not moderate the relation between the psychological career contract and HRD-pattern. The fact that the level of perceived facilities for career

²⁶ A restriction of this modernity mechanism lies in the fact that for a rich HRD-pattern to develop, a high level of commitment is better to be supplemented with moderate support.

development is rather high may explain this result. It can well be true that if a lack of facilities was perceived, this would have negatively influenced the HRD-pattern.

IV. How do managers' psychological career contracts and HRD-patterns relate to subordinate support and to subordinates' HRD-patterns?

Managers consider themselves highly supportive towards career self-management of their subordinates. Less support is given to subordinates for career networking than for all other career development components.

Oosterhof (2001) studied the subordinate support perceptions of the managers of one of the organisations in particular. Moreover, this study involved the managers' subordinates as well. In contrast to our study, subordinate support was measured not by self-perception of the manager, but by self-report of subordinates themselves. From this study it appears that there is a statistically significant discrepancy between the perspectives of the different parties. Subordinates perceive less support for career self-management than managers indicate to provide to their subordinates. It is of course not clear whether such differences between perceptions occur in the other five organisations too. This topic deserves future study.

In support of our expectations we found a positive relation between on the one hand commitment to and support for career self-management of managers and on the other hand their support for subordinates' career self-management. This means that the more the psychological career contract of managers is characterised by modern features, the more managers will provide support for their subordinates' career self-management as well.

We found some differences between the several perspectives on the psychological career contract.

Managers perceive to get less support from their direct supervisors than they give themselves to their subordinates. Furthermore, commitment to career self-management is higher than the support they give to their subordinates.

By and large, Miles' (1965) expectation that managers apply two different models of participation is supported. On the one hand they seem to apply the human resources model for themselves in relation to their own superiors, thus expecting to be given room for self-direction. On the other hand, they appear to apply the human relations model for themselves in relation to their subordinates, giving them support for career self-management to a lesser extent than they expect to get themselves.

A positive relation exists between the level of subordinate support and subordinates' formal HRD-pattern. Especially support for self-management of career planning by subordinates has a positive effect on subordinates' HRD-patterns. HRD-patterns of managers and subordinates seem to be positively correlated. More formal, generic and planned formal HRD-activities by managers seem to go together with more formal, generic and planned formal HRD-activities by subordinates.

With regard to the fulfilment of HR-roles, it appears that in particular the fulfilment of the development-oriented role relates positively to both the managers own formal HRD-pattern as to their subordinates' formal HRD-pattern.

The relation between fulfilment of HR-roles and the managers' own HRD-pattern (narrow and broad) is much weaker. Only the development-oriented role relates positively to managers' formal HRD-pattern.

Since managers' HR-tasks are part of their leadership tasks and therefore (per definition) directed at subordinates, the finding that the fulfilment of all HR-roles relates stronger to the formal HRD-pattern of subordinates than to their own HRD-pattern is not surprising. It still seems to be the case that fulfilling HR-roles seriously, especially the development-oriented role, is also positively related to managers' own HRD-pattern.

Finally, a positive relation was found between fulfilment of HR-roles and the level of subordinate support. This goes for all HR-roles, but the relation is strongest for the development-oriented role. The

staffing-role is least related to subordinate support, which is not surprising since staffing tasks are not linked to employees' work itself. It concerns a preparatory task (making job descriptions, doing a job interview, etc.) directed at the selection of competent employees and the composition of a qualified work force.

Chapter 7

Influences on managers' mobility perspectives

In this chapter we focus on the following four main research questions:

1. How can managers' mobility perspectives be described? (7.1.)
2. To what extent do managers' HRD-patterns influence their mobility perspectives? (7.2.)
3. To what extent do managers' psychological career contracts influence their mobility perspectives? (7.3.)
4. Does HRD-pattern fulfil an intermediary role between managers' psychological career contracts and their mobility perspectives? (7.4.)

Analyses related to these research questions will be described in the sections as indicated between brackets. Several hypotheses belonging to these questions will be tested. In section 7.5. we present the results of path-analysis that we performed to test the research model as a whole. We finish this chapter in section 7.6. with a summary of the findings and points of discussion.

As already mentioned in chapter five (5.3.5.) we follow an exploratory approach to the data analysis. After the presentation of correlations, all subsequent analyses will be done first on the mobility perspective as a whole and then on aspects of the mobility perspective (scope and pursuit). This means that first univariate and then multivariate analyses will be described.

7.1. Mobility perspectives of managers

The central question of this section is how to describe managers' mobility perspectives, which consists of two aspects: mobility scope and pursuit of mobility. To answer this main research question, the following four sub-questions will be addressed:

1. To what extent are managers capable of fulfilling other positions with current competencies? (mobility scope) (7.1.1.)
2. To what extent do managers pursue job-mobility? (pursuit of mobility) (7.1.2.)
3. To what extent are managers' mobility scope, pursuit of mobility and mobility perspective as a whole related? (7.1.3.)
4. How do background characteristics relate to (aspects of) managers' mobility perspectives? (7.1.4.)

Section 7.1.5. summarises the support for the hypotheses tested. Finally, in section 7.1.6. we will shortly consider the verticality of pursuit of mobility in relation to other variables.

7.1.1. Mobility scope

The mobility scope of managers is described according to their perception of the main dimensions: horizontal and vertical mobility scope (the upper part of Table 7.1.). Furthermore, the items by which mobility scope was measured contain information about the extent to which managers judge themselves competent to fulfil other jobs within and outside of the current department and current organisation (the lower part of Table 7.1.). The next Table presents means, standard deviations and Pearson correlations regarding mobility scope.

Table 7.1. *Mobility scope: means, standard deviations and Pearson correlations.*

Mobility scope	M	Sd	1	1a	1b	2	2a	2b	3
1. Total mobility scope	4.08	.69	1.00						
a. Horizontal	4.50	.61	.80**	1.00					
b. Vertical	3.67	.95	.93**	.53**	1.00				
2. Organisation-internal	4.08	.75	.97**	.82**	.87**	1.00			
a. Section-internal	4.18	.79	.88**	.75**	.80**	.91**	1.00		
b. Section-external	3.99	.84	.90**	.75**	.80**	.93**	.69**	1.00	
3. Organisation-external	4.08	.73	.85**	.60**	.84**	.68**	.61**	.65**	1.00

** significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

In general managers have broad mobility scopes (average score > 3.5). Their horizontal mobility scope is perceived to be broader than their vertical mobility scope ($T=15.77$; $p<.01$). In other words, managers indicate to feel more competent to change jobs at the same hierarchical level, than to fulfil a new job at a higher level. It must be noted that even though the vertical mobility scope of managers is narrower than their horizontal scope, the score itself is high (>3.5). Moreover, managers perceive to be better able to fulfil another job within than outside their current section or department ($T=4.64$; $p<.01$). No difference was found between organisation-internal and organisation-external scope ($T=.06$; $p>.05$). Of course, the external environment of the current organisation entails such a large variety of jobs (in fact all kinds of jobs that one can possibly think of), which makes this question rather difficult to answer. Moreover, it appears that all forms of mobility scope are positively correlated.

7.1.2. Pursuit of mobility

Pursuit of mobility of managers consists of the pursuit of mobility *in general*, that is independent from the level towards which their pursuit is directed. It consists of organisation-internal and organisation-external pursuit of mobility (upper part of Table 7.2.). Moreover, we provide information about the verticality of pursuit, which contains both horizontal and vertical pursuit of mobility. The verticality of pursuit is however not a main variable in this study, but gives additional information (lower part of the next Table). Means, standard deviations and Pearson correlations regarding pursuit of mobility are given in Table 7.2.

Table 7.2. *Pursuit of mobility: means, standard deviations and Pearson correlations.*

Pursuit of mobility	M	sd	1	1a	1b	2	2a	2b
1. Total pursuit of mobility (or general)	2.85	.81	1.00					
a. organisation-internal (or functional)	3.24	.88	.89**	1.00				
b. organisation-external (or organisational)	2.46	.93	.90**	.60**	1.00			
2. Verticality of pursuit	2.72	.95	.23**	.26**	.15*	1.00		
a. horizontal direction	3.38	1.00	-.05	-.09	-.01	-.89**	1.00	
b. vertical direction	2.80	1.12	.33**	.35**	.25**	.91**	-.62**	1.00

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Managers pursue mobility to an intermediate extent. There is a difference between the scores on organisation-internal and –external pursuit of mobility ($T=14.93$; $p<.01$). The pursuit of organisation-internal mobility is moderately high, while the score on organisation-external pursuit of mobility is low (<2.5). Furthermore, the score on both horizontal and vertical pursuit of mobility are intermediate. They do however differ significantly. The pursuit of horizontal mobility is significantly larger than the pursuit of vertical mobility ($T=4.68$; $p<.01$)¹.

¹ From this point forward we will only consider the total-score of verticality of pursuit, indicating the extent to which managers pursue mobility towards higher hierarchical levels.

To conclude, managers strive for mobility to an intermediate extent and this pursuit is primarily directed at organisation-internal mobility at the same hierarchical level.

7.1.3. Relation between aspects of mobility perspective

To what extent are mobility scope, pursuit of mobility and mobility perspective as a whole related? Correlations are provided to give insight into the relation between these variables (see Table 7.3.).

Table 7.3. *Pearson correlations between mobility scope, pursuit of mobility and mobility perspective as a whole.*

	Pursuit of mobility (total)	Organisation-internal pursuit	Organisation-external pursuit	Mobility perspective
Mobility scope (total)	.31**	.33**	.23**	.77**
Horizontal scope	.13*	.17**	.07	.55**
Vertical scope	.36**	.36**	.28**	.76**
Mobility perspective	.84**	.78**	.73**	1.00

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

The mean score on mobility perspective as a whole is 3.47 (sd=.61) indicating a moderately favourable chance on mobility to actually occur. Mobility scope and pursuit of mobility are positively correlated ($r=.31$). This counts for all aspects of scope and pursuit. There is one exception; horizontal scope does not significantly relate to organisation-internal pursuit of mobility. Furthermore, mobility perspective as a whole is positively related to all aspects of mobility scope and pursuit of mobility. The correlation of mobility perspective with pursuit of mobility is slightly stronger than with mobility scope.

7.1.4. Background characteristics and mobility perspective

About the relation between several background characteristics and mobility perspective we formulated several hypotheses (see section 4.3.4.). Correlations are presented in Table 7.4.

Table 7.4. *Correlations between background characteristics and aspects of the mobility perspective.*

Mobility perspective	Age	Educational level	Vertical mobility opportunities	Horizontal mobility opportunities
	(Pearson's r)	(Spearman's Rho)	(Pearson's r) (N=240)	(Spearman's Rho) (N=237)
1. Mobility scope	-.03	.07	.06	.12*
a. Horizontal	-.05	.02	.14*	.18**
b. Vertical	-.02	.09	-.01	.06
2. Pursuit of mobility	-.28**	.18**	.20**	.12*
a. organisation-internal	-.25**	.23**	.13*	.07
b. organisation-external	-.24**	.09	.24**	.16**
3. Mobility perspective	-.20**	.16**	.17**	.14*

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (1-tailed).

Age

Age is not related to mobility scope; hypothesis V.g1 is not supported. Pursuit of mobility is negatively related to age. This counts for both organisation-internal and –external pursuit of mobility, which means that older managers are less inclined to pursue job-mobility than younger managers do. Hypothesis V.g2 is supported.

Educational level

We expected positive relations between educational level on the one hand and (total) mobility scope and (total) pursuit of mobility on the other hand. Hypothesis V.h1. regarding the relation with mobility scope is not supported. Apparently, higher educated managers do not have larger mobility scopes than their lower educated colleagues. Hypothesis V.h2. about the relation between educational level and pursuit of mobility is supported by the data. It means that the higher the level of education, the higher the extent to which managers are eager to change jobs. It should be mentioned that this positive relation counts for pursuit of mobility in general and for organisation-internal pursuit of mobility. The relation with organisation-external pursuit of mobility is not significant.

Because age and educational level are negatively correlated, we counted partial correlations for the relation between age and mobility perspective, controlling for the influence of educational level. This analysis does not lead to other conclusions. Similarly, we performed partial correlations between educational level and mobility perspective, controlling for age. For educational level it seems that the relation with vertical mobility scope is slightly stronger ($r=.11$; $p<.04$). This result indicates that the higher managers are educated, the broader the range of jobs at *higher* hierarchical levels they perceive to be able to fulfil. Furthermore it seems that it no longer the relation with organisation-internal pursuit of mobility that significantly relates to educational level, but the pursuit of organisation-external pursuit of mobility ($r=.20$; $p<.01$). Higher levels of education, when controlled for age, seem to lead to a higher pursuit of external mobility. Higher educated managers thus appear to be more risk-taking than lower educated managers.

Mobility opportunities

We expected a negative relation between the number of (vertical and horizontal) mobility opportunities and pursuit of external mobility. This hypothesis (V.i.) is not supported by the data. Instead, we found positive relations between those variables. This finding suggests that in case more organisation-internal mobility opportunities exist, the higher the pursuit of mobility, including pursuit of organisation-external mobility.

Job expiration

In order to find out whether differences exist in pursuit of mobility between managers who expect their job to expire and who don't, one-way analysis of variance was done. In the next Table results of this analysis are presented.

Table 7.5. *One-way analysis of variance on pursuit of mobility by job expiration (N=234).*

Mobility	Job expiration	N	M	Sd	df	F	Differences (post-hoc)
Pursuit of mobility	1. Probably yes	47	3.16	.77	231	4.66**	Tukey 1>3
	2. Probably no	63	2.83	.83			
	3. No	123	2.74	.80			
Organisation-internal pursuit	1. Probably yes	47	3.57	.72	231	4.13*	Tukey 1>2, 3
	2. Probably no	63	3.17	.88			
	3. No	123	3.15	.92			
Organisational-external pursuit	1. Probably yes	47	2.74	1.04	231	3.66*	Tukey 1>3
	2. Probably no	63	2.49	.98			
	3. No	123	2.32	.86			

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level.

The F-statistics indicate that for all kinds of pursuit of mobility a difference exists between the groups with varying probabilities of job expiration. Post-hoc tests (Tukey for equal variances) indicate that in all cases this concerns a difference between managers who indicate their job to probably end within three years ("probably yes") and managers who are quite sure that their job will still exist after three years (answer "no")². The first group shows a higher pursuit of mobility than the latter group. Evidently, the first group chooses for future job-security by already being open to another job-position. Hypothesis V.j. is supported.

7.1.5. Summary of support for hypotheses

In the next Table (7.6.) an overview is given of the level of support for the hypotheses regarding the relation between several background characteristics and aspects of the mobility perspective.

Table 7.6. *Overview of support for hypotheses regarding relations between background characteristics and mobility perspective.*

<i>Hypotheses background characteristics and mobility perspective</i>	Support*
V.g1. Age is positively related to mobility scope	-
V.g2. Age is negatively related to pursuit of mobility ³	+
V.h1. Educational level is positively related to mobility scope	-
V.h2. Educational level is positively related to pursuit of mobility	+ ⁴
V.i. The level of mobility opportunities (existing vertical and horizontal positions) is negatively related to the external pursuit of mobility	-
V.j. Job expiration ⁵ is positively related to pursuit of mobility	+

* + fully supported; +/- partly supported (between brackets it is written for which aspects the hypothesis is supported); - not supported

The hypotheses between on the one hand age and educational level and on the other hand mobility scope are not supported by the data. Moreover, the expectation regarding mobility opportunities was not supported too.

We did find support for our expectation that younger and higher educated managers pursue mobility to a larger extent in comparison to their older and lower educated colleagues. Finally, it appears that managers who expect their job to end within three years pursue mobility to a higher extent than managers who feel secure about the continuation of their job.

7.1.6. Verticality of pursuit considered

Although not directly related to the research questions, for exploratory purposes we examined the relation with the verticality of pursuit as dependent variable. We will focus on the most interesting findings.

It seems that older managers are less focussed on vertical job-mobility ($r=-.26$; $p<.01$). Furthermore, it appears that the higher the educational level of managers, the more they strive for vertical mobility ($Rho .13$; $p<.05$). Furthermore indications were found that managers are triggered to pursue higher

² Job expiration refers to the end of ones job as a result of e.g. restructuring of the organization. It is here certainly not meant to refer to job expiration as a consequence of e.g. bad performance.

³ The negative relation with organisation-external pursuit of mobility is stronger than with organisation-internal pursuit of mobility.

⁴ This positive relation counts for the total pursuit of mobility (as hypothesised) and for the organisation-internal pursuit of mobility in particular. No significant relation was found with organisation-external pursuit of mobility.

⁵ The variable was recoded, so that a high score means a high chance on job expiration and a low score means a low chance on job expiration. Meaning that the sooner job expiration is expected the larger the pursuit of mobility.

jobs, when these higher jobs are available within the organisation ($r=.12$; $p<.05$). Job-supply determines job-demand in this case.

Commitment to career self-management is positively related to the level of verticality of pursuit ($r=.20$; $p<.01$). This counts for commitment to all components of career self-management, except for commitment to combining work and non-work, which relates negatively (!) to pursuit of mobility towards higher job levels ($r=-.12$; $p<.05$). This finding is not so surprising. When managers are eager to fulfil a job at a higher level, this is likely to put more constraints on the home-situation. In other words, the combination of work and non-work is more difficult when there are higher job-demands. It appears that the higher managers' responsibility for finding a balance between the demands that their family and their work pose on them, the lower their pursuit of vertical mobility.

No statistically significant relations have been found between on the one hand CSM-support and unbalance of the psychological career contract and on the other hand the verticality of pursuit.

Regarding the relation between HRD-pattern and the verticality of pursuit it can be mentioned that a positive relation exists ($r=.20$; $p<.01$). Interestingly, it is especially the level of planning of HRD-activities that positively relates to the verticality of pursuit of mobility ($r=.28$; $p<.01$). With regard to other career development activities, it is especially engagement in career planning activities that positively correlates with the verticality of pursuit of mobility ($r=.28$; $p<.01$). Moreover, frequency of HRD-activities relates positively to verticality of pursuit of mobility ($r=.13$; $p<.05$). Activities directed at optimising one's situation and balancing work and non-work demands are uncorrelated with verticality of pursuit of mobility.

7.2. The relation between managers' HRD-patterns and their mobility perspectives

In this section we focus on the relation between the HRD-pattern of managers and their mobility perspectives. We will examine how the richness of HRD-patterns influences the perspective that managers have on career mobility. Hypotheses as formulated in section 4.3.4. will be tested.

In 7.2.1. we start with a test of our hypothesis (II.a.) that HRD-pattern positively influences the mobility perspective as a whole and mobility scope in particular. In 7.2.2. the focus shifts towards the relation between HRD-pattern and pursuit of mobility, which is expected to be mediated by mobility scope (hypothesis II.b.). Section 7.2.3. summarises the support we found for the hypotheses.

The following Figure shows the part of the research model that we address in this section.

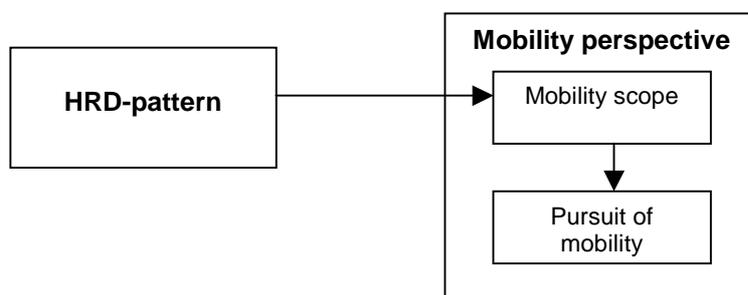


Figure 7.1. Research model: relation between HRD-pattern and mobility perspective.

7.2.1. Influence of HRD-pattern on mobility perspective

In order to answer the question "to what extent do managers' HRD-patterns influence their mobility perspectives", we started with counting correlations (see Table 7.7.) between the (narrower) HRD-pattern and (aspects of) the mobility perspective as a whole.

Table 7.7. *Pearson correlations between (narrower) HRD-pattern and mobility perspective.*

Mobility perspective	HRD-pattern
1. Mobility scope	.26**
a. Horizontal	.22**
b. Vertical	.24**
2. Pursuit of mobility	.18**
a. organisation-internal	.18**
b. organisation-external	.14*
3. Mobility perspective	.27**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (1-tailed).

The Table shows that mobility scope, pursuit of mobility and the mobility perspective as a whole are positively related to the HRD-pattern.

The relation of mobility scope is stronger than the relation with pursuit of mobility. In short, using HRD-activities with a high generic value relates to better career prospects in terms of mobility scope and pursuit of mobility. In appendix 7.1. the correlations with other HRD-dimensions and the broader HRD-pattern are given. Similar results were found for the broader HRD-pattern. Relations with frequency and planning of HRD-activities are weaker.

Univariate regression analysis

When we include the HRD-dimensions generic value, frequency and planning of HRD-activities simultaneously into a multiple linear regression analysis, it appears that only generic value of HRD-activities (the narrower HRD-pattern) positively influences the mobility perspective of managers ($F=18.11$; $p<.01$). Similar results are found for the influence of HRD-dimensions on mobility scope; only generic value of HRD-activities is included in the model ($F=16.95$; $p<.01$), which supports hypothesis II.a.

Multivariate regression analysis

In order to test the influence of HRD-pattern on all aspects of mobility perspective simultaneously, we carried out simple multivariate regression analysis. HRD-pattern is the independent variable. Dependent (or criterion-) variables are vertical and horizontal mobility scope and organisation-internal and –external pursuit of mobility.

Table 7.8. *Simple multivariate regression analysis with HRD-pattern as predictor variable and four aspects of mobility perspective as criterion variables.*

Independent variable	Dependent variables	Multivariate				Univariate		B
		Wilks' λ	F	df	Eta ²	F	Eta ²	
HRD-pattern (narrower)	1. Horizontal scope	.92	5.20**	4, 237	.08	12.12**	.05	.18
	2. Vertical scope					14.52**	.06	.30
	3. Org. int. pursuit					7.79**	.03	.21
	4. Org. ext. pursuit					4.87*	.02	.18

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level.

The HRD-pattern (generic value) influences all aspects of mobility perspective. The strongest effect is on the vertical mobility scope.

In addition we carried out similar analyses for the broader HRD-pattern and for the other HRD-dimensions. Results can be found in appendix 7.2.

The broader HRD-pattern significantly influences all aspects of the mobility perspective except for organisation-external pursuit of mobility. The multivariate test of frequency of HRD-activities is not significant. This finding implies that frequency of HRD-activities does not play a significant role for the mobility perspectives of managers, although the univariate analyses seem to point at a relation with

both horizontal and vertical mobility scope, it does not relate to pursuit of mobility. Planning of HRD-activities influences the vertical mobility scope. No effect was found on pursuit of mobility.

7.2.2. Mobility scope: a mediator between HRD-pattern and pursuit of mobility?

Hypothesis II.b., about the intermediary role of mobility scope between HRD-pattern and pursuit of mobility, will be tested according to the procedure as proposed by Baron & Kenny (1986)⁶. In order to draw the conclusion that this hypothesis is supported, the following three conditions need to be fulfilled:

- 1) HRD-pattern and mobility scope must each influence the pursuit of mobility;
- 2) HRD-pattern must influence mobility scope;
- 3) If HRD-pattern and mobility scope are in the regression analysis simultaneously, then the percentage of explained variance of pursuit of mobility by HRD-pattern must be smaller than in case HRD-pattern was alone in the analysis.

Regarding the first condition, HRD-pattern must influence pursuit of mobility. In the first step of Table 7.9. we see a significant effect of HRD-pattern on pursuit of mobility. Furthermore, mobility scope significantly influences pursuit of mobility ($r=.30$; $p<.01$; $F=24.89$; $p<.01$). The first condition is met.

The second condition (HRD-pattern must influence mobility scope) was already tested and supported before (it concerns hypothesis II.a.). For the third condition we consider the first and the second step in the hierarchical regression analysis in Table 7.9. When we compare the β -values of the first and second step, we see that whereas in step one the effect of HRD-pattern on pursuit of mobility is significant, this is no longer the case in the second step. It thus appears that the relation between HRD-pattern and pursuit of mobility is fully mediated by mobility scope. Hypothesis II.b. is supported by the data.

Table 7.9. *Multiple hierarchical linear regression analysis with HRD-pattern and mobility scope as predictor variables and pursuit of mobility as the dependent variable.*

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	ΔR^2	F	ΔF	df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	HRD-pattern	.18	.03	.03	.03	7.89**	7.89**	1, 240	2.81	.18**
2	HRD-pattern Mobility scope	.32	.11	.10	.07	13.96**	19.43**	2, 239	1.69 4.41**	.11 .28

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05-level.

In addition, we performed similar analyses for the broader HRD-pattern and other HRD-dimensions as the independent variables. The results are presented in appendix 7.3. Similar to the conclusion with regard to the narrower HRD-pattern, the relation between the broader HRD-pattern and pursuit of mobility is mediated by mobility scope as well. For frequency and planning of HRD-activities counts that the relation with pursuit of mobility is not mediated by mobility scope.

⁶ In this analysis we work with the total-scores of mobility scope and pursuit of mobility.

7.2.3. Summary of support for hypotheses

In the next Table an overview is given with the extent to which the two hypotheses that we tested have been supported by the data.

Table 7.10. Overview of support for hypotheses regarding the relation between HRD-pattern⁷ and mobility perspective.

Hypotheses HRD-pattern and mobility perspective	Support*
II.a. HRD-pattern (frequency, generic value and planning) has a positive effect on mobility perspective as a whole and on mobility scope. Generic value will have the strongest effect;	+
II.b. Mobility scope fulfils an intermediary function between HRD-pattern (frequency, generic value and planning) and pursuit of mobility.	+

* + fully supported; +/- partly supported (between brackets it is written for which aspects the hypothesis is supported); - not supported

In sum, both hypotheses have been fully supported by the data. Evidently, the richness of managers' HRD-pattern contributes to a better mobility perspective. More specifically, it appears that when managers use HRD-activities with a high generic value this leads directly to a broader mobility scope, which in turn leads to a higher pursuit of mobility.

7.3. The relation between managers' psychological career contracts and their mobility perspectives

The third main question of this chapter is about the influence of managers' psychological career contracts on their mobility perspectives. In other words, the question is to what extent managers' career self-management perceptions influence the possibility that a transition towards another job will take place. The picture shows the part of the research model that we address in this section.

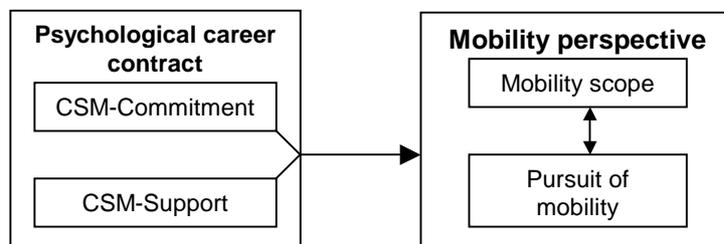


Figure 7.2. Research model: relation between psychological career contract and mobility perspective⁸.

In this section we are specifically interested in the *direct* relation between the nature of the psychological career contract on the one hand and (aspects of the) mobility perspective on the other hand. The direct relation is in particular expected for the mobility perspective as a whole and above all for pursuit of mobility. The hypothesis regarding the *indirect* relation (via HRD-pattern) between these variables, in fact the research model as a whole, will be dealt with in the next section (7.4.).

Figure 7.2. needs some further explanation. A double-sided arrow is placed between mobility scope and pursuit of mobility. Throughout this chapter it is examined in which direction the arrow points. In

⁷ The relation between engagement in other career development activities and mobility perspective has not been described in this section; we found no effects of these variables on aspects of the mobility perspective.

⁸ The shape of the arrow from the psychological career contract to the mobility perspective indicates that both perspectives "commitment" and "support" will be analysed separately and as a whole (modernity and unbalance).

chapter four we already noted that it seems more likely that scope will influence the pursuit of mobility, out of a motivation to use one's full potential in a new job. This assumption will be tested.

The main question "to what extent do managers' psychological career contracts influence their mobility perspectives?" has been subdivided into the following four sub-questions:

1. To what extent does commitment *as a whole*, and per career development component, influence the mobility perspective? (7.3.1.)
2. To what extent does support *as a whole*, and per career development component, influence the mobility perspective? (7.3.2.)
3. To what extent do commitment and support, and their interaction, influence the mobility perspective? (7.3.3.)
4. To what extent do modernity and (un)balance of the psychological career contract as a whole, and per career development component, influence the mobility perspective? (7.3.4.)
(including differences between types of psychological career contracts)

In chapter four we already presented hypotheses on the relation between the psychological career contract and mobility perspectives of managers (see section 4.3.4.). At the end of this section an overview is given of the hypotheses and the extent to which the hypotheses have been supported by the data (7.3.5.).

Like we did in all analyses, we started with examining the distribution of the variables related to mobility perspective. It seems that (aspects of the) mobility perspective does not have a normal distribution. Most of the sub-variables are left-skewed. Transformation of the data (log-transformation) did not solve the problem. From the literature it seems that for large data sets there is only a small effect of skewness on the distribution of the F- and t-tests (in regression analysis). We decided to continue our analyses with the original non-transformed variables.

7.3.1. The influence of CSM-commitment on mobility perspective

The first question to be answered is to what extent commitment to career self-management as a *whole*, and per career development component, influences the mobility perspective. In order to answer this question we first counted correlations and then we performed regression analysis.

Table 7.11. *Pearson correlations between (components of) CSM-commitment and (aspects of) mobility perspective.*

<u>CSM-Commitment</u>	1. Mobility scope (total)	1a. Horizontal scope	1b. Vertical scope	2. Pursuit of mobility (total)	2a. Org. internal	2b. Org. external	3. Mobility perspective
1. Networking	.15*	.11*	.14*	.06	.13*	-.02	.12*
2. Monitoring	-.02	-.05	-.01	.04	.13*	-.05	.01
3. Career planning	.07	.02	.09	.11*	.17**	.03	.11*
4. Shaping	.15**	.10	.15**	-.03	.02	-.06	.07
5. Combining	.05	.13*	-.01	.02	.09	-.05	.04
Total	.11*	.08	.10	.07	.16**	-.04	.11*

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (1-tailed).

The Table shows that the level of CSM-commitment as a whole is positively related to mobility scope (total), organisation-internal pursuit of mobility and mobility perspective as a whole. These correlations are however not strong. In general it appears that the more managers are committed to self-manage their careers, the more they perceive to be able to fulfil a broad range of jobs and the more they will pursue organisation-internal job-mobility. The mobility perspective as a whole seems to be more

favourable for highly committed managers than for managers who do not feel committed to take control over their own careers.

Univariate regression analysis

Although the correlation between total commitment and mobility perspective as a whole is significant, the simple linear regression analysis does not reveal a significant influence of commitment on mobility perspective as a whole ($F=2.79$; $p>.05$; $R^2=.01$).

We proceeded by carrying out multiple linear univariate regression analyses with the five commitment-components as the independent variables and mobility perspective as a whole as the dependent variable. It appears that commitment to none of the career development components is included in the model.

Multivariate regression analysis

In case to examine the influence of CSM-commitment as a whole on the aspects of the mobility perspective, we performed simple multivariate regression analysis.

Table 7.12. *Simple multivariate regression analysis with CSM-commitment as predictor variable and four aspects of mobility perspective as criterion variables.*

Independent Variable	Dependent variables	Wilks' λ	Multivariate			Univariate		B
			F	df	Eta ²	F	Eta ²	
CSM-Commitment	1. Horizontal scope	.94	3.69**	4, 237	.06	1.60	.01	.10
	2. Vertical scope					2.56	.01	.19
	3. Org. int. pursuit					6.57*	.03	.28
	4. Org. ext. pursuit					.31	.00	-.07

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level.

We expected a positive influence of commitment on pursuit of mobility. This hypothesis (III.a.) is only partly supported since no effect was found of commitment on organisation-external pursuit of mobility. In addition we tested whether this relation is indeed a *direct* relation as we expected. Unexpectedly, hierarchical regression analysis indicates that the relation with pursuit of organisation-internal pursuit of mobility is mediated by the HRD-pattern. The influence of commitment on organisation-internal pursuit of mobility decreases when HRD-pattern is added (from $\beta = .16$; $p=.01$ to $\beta = .12$; $p>.05$).

To shed more light on the influence of commitment-components on aspects of the mobility perspective, we performed multiple multivariate regression analysis. This analysis demonstrates only very small effects of components of career self-management commitment on aspects of the mobility perspective (see appendix 7.4.) The overall conclusion is that there is no direct relation between commitment to career development and pursuit of mobility.

Mobility scope is positively influenced by commitment to monitoring career opportunities (horizontal scope) and by commitment to shaping learning opportunities (vertical scope). Although a multivariate effect of combining work and non-work was found, this was not reflected in a significant univariate effect on one of the aspects of the mobility perspective.

7.3.2. The influence of CSM-support on mobility perspective

The second question to be answered is to what extent support for career self-management as a *whole*, and per career development component, influences the mobility perspective. In order to answer this question we first counted correlations (see Table 7.13.).

Table 7.13. *Pearson correlations between (components of) CSM-support and (aspects of) mobility perspective.*

CSM-support	1. Mobility scope (total)	1a. Horizontal scope	1b. Vertical scope	2. Pursuit of mobility (total)	2a. Org. internal	2b. Org. external	3. Mobility perspective
1. Networking	-.11*	-.05	-.13*	-.22**	-.15**	-.24**	-.21**
2. Monitoring	.08	.00	-.13*	-.22**	-.17**	-.22**	-.20**
3. Career planning	-.06	.00	-.09	-.18**	-.14**	-.19**	-.16**
4. Shaping	-.11*	-.05	-.13*	-.24**	-.22**	-.21**	-.22**
5. Combining	-.14*	-.11*	-.13*	-.21**	-.20**	-.18**	-.22**
Total	-.12*	-.05	-.15*	-.26**	-.21**	-.26**	-.25**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (1-tailed).

The Table shows that the level of CSM-support as a whole is negatively related to all aspects of the mobility perspective and in particular to pursuit of mobility. This finding is in contrast with our expectation; hypothesis III.b. is not supported.

Since we expected the relation between support and pursuit of mobility to be a direct one, we tested this by hierarchical regression analysis. It appeared that CSM-support indeed directly negatively influences the pursuit of mobility. The relation is not mediated by HRD-pattern.

Univariate regression analysis

From linear regression analysis it seems that CSM-support as a whole negatively influences the mobility perspective as a whole ($F=15.56$; $p<.01$; $R^2=.06$).

As Table 7.14. illustrates, we included the five support-components as independent variables in a multiple linear univariate regression analyses with the mobility perspective as a whole as the dependent variable.

Table 7.14. *Multiple linear regression analysis with components of CSM-support as predictor variables and mobility perspective as a whole as the criterion variable (method stepwise).*

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	ΔR^2	F	ΔF	Df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	Combining	.22	.05	.04	.05	12.08**	12.08**	1, 240	-3.48	-.22**
2	Combining Shaping	.25	.06	.06	.02	8.07**	3.91*	2, 239	-1.99 -1.98	-.15* -.14*

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05-level.

As shown in Table 7.14., support for combining work and non-work and support for shaping learning opportunities negatively influence the mobility perspective as a whole.

Multivariate regression analysis

In case to examine the influence of CSM-support on aspects of the mobility perspective, we performed simple multivariate regression analysis.

Table 7.15. *Simple multivariate regression analysis with CSM-support as predictor variable and four aspects of mobility perspective as criterion variables.*

Independent Variable	Dependent variables	Wilks' λ	Multivariate			Univariate		B
			F	df	Eta ²	F	Eta ²	
CSM-Support	1. Horizontal scope	.92	4.85**	4, 237	.08	.59	.00	-.04
	2. Vertical scope					5.38*	.02	-.20
	3. Org. int. pursuit					11.55**	.05	-.27
	4. Org. ext. pursuit					16.89**	.07	-.34

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level.

Support appears to influence all aspects of mobility perspective except horizontal scope. Support has the strongest negative effect on organisation-external pursuit. This means that managers who perceive to be highly supported to self-manage their careers, will be inclined to stay with the organisation. This finding is in conflict with hypothesis III.b.

It was further explored whether support for career development components influenced aspects of the mobility perspective. We carried out multiple multivariate regression analysis with the five support-components as predictor variables and the four variables regarding mobility scope and pursuit of mobility as criterion variables (see appendix 7.5.). No multivariate effects were found at all. To conclude, although the total score of support for career self-management negatively influences the mobility perspective of managers (except for horizontal mobility scope), no effects were found with regard to support for career development components specifically.

7.3.3. The influence of CSM-commitment and -support on mobility perspective

The third question to be answered is to what extent the combination of commitment and support (and their interaction) influences managers' mobility perspectives. We performed multiple linear regression analysis with CSM-commitment as a whole and CSM-support as a whole as the independent variables and mobility perspective as the dependent variable. First without interaction-effect, later on including the interaction-effect in a hierarchical multiple linear (univariate) regression analysis. See Figure 7.3. for a schematic representation of the analysis.

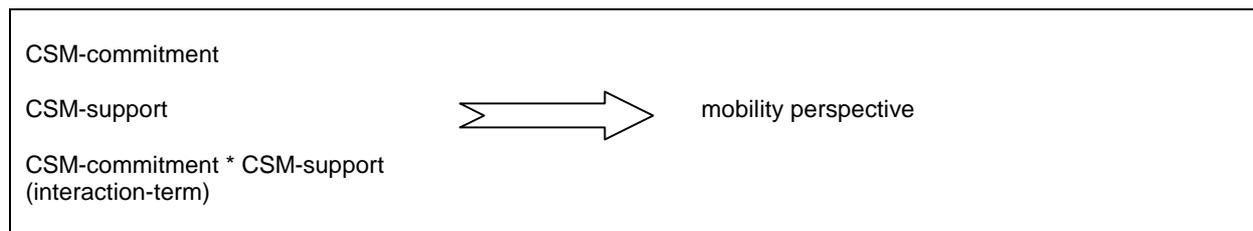


Figure 7.3. Multiple hierarchical regression analysis with CSM-commitment and -support (and their interaction) as predictor variables and mobility perspective as a whole as the criterion variable.

In the next Table the result of the regression analysis is given.

Table 7.16. Multiple hierarchical linear regression analysis with CSM-commitment and CSM-support, and their interaction, as predictor variables and mobility perspective as a whole as the dependent variable.

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Δ R ²	F	Δ F	df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	CSM-support	.25	.06	.06	.06	15.56**	15.56**	1, 240	-3.94	-.25**
	CSM-support CSM-commitment	.31	.09	.09	.03	12.28**	8.51**	2, 239	-4.64 2.92	-.30** .19**
2	CSM-support CSM-commitment Interaction-term	.31	.10	.09	.01	8.61**	1.25	3, 238	.44 1.88 -1.12	.19 .43 -.61

** significant at the .01 level.

In the first step of the hierarchical procedure we entered the CSM-commitment and CSM-support according to the stepwise method. Table 7.16. shows that both CSM-support as a whole and CSM-commitment as a whole have an effect on mobility perspective, explaining 9% of the variance of

mobility perspective. The relative (negative!) influence of CSM-support is stronger ($\beta=-.30$) than the (positive!) influence of CSM-commitment ($\beta=.19$).

In the second step of the hierarchical procedure we entered the interaction-term. No interaction-effect was found of CSM-commitment and CSM-support on HRD-pattern. The added variance (ΔR^2) explained by the interaction-term is only 1% and is not significant. Moreover, after adding the interaction-term, the influence of CSM-support and CSM-commitment are not significant anymore.

7.3.4. The influence of the psychological career contract (from a modernity perspective and a balance approach) on mobility perspective

Here we focus on the influence of modernity of the psychological career contract (7.3.4.1.) and the level of unbalance of the psychological career contract (7.3.4.2.) on the mobility perspectives of managers. In 7.3.4.3. we discuss an alternative hypothesis regarding the relation between unbalance of the psychological career contract and the mobility perspective. We focus on the four types of psychological career contract in relation to the mobility perspective in subsection 7.3.4.4.

7.3.4.1. Modernity of the psychological career contract and mobility perspective

We expect that the level of modernity positively relates to the mobility perspective as a whole. In addition, the relation between modernity and pursuit of mobility is expected to be a direct one.

Table 7.17. Pearson correlations between modernity of (components of) of the psychological career contract and (aspects of) mobility perspective.

<u>Modernity</u>	1. Mobility scope (total)	1a. Horizontal scope	1b. Vertical scope	2. Pursuit of mobility (total)	2a. Org. internal	2b. Org. external	3. Mobility perspective
1. Networking	.01	.03	-.01	-.11*	-.03	-.17**	-.07
2. Monitoring	-.06	-.03	-.09	-.12*	-.04	-.17**	-.12*
3. Career planning	.00	.01	.00	-.05	.01	-.11	-.04
4. Shaping	.01	.02	-.01	-.18**	-.14*	-.18**	-.12*
5. Combining	-.08	-.01	-.11*	-.15**	-.10	-.17**	-.15*
Total	-.03	.01	-.05	-.16**	-.07	-.21**	-.12*

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (1-tailed).

From Table 7.17. we conclude that only few significant relations exists between level of modernity of the contract and (aspects of the) mobility perspective. A negative relation exists between modernity and the total score on pursuit of mobility and with organisation-external pursuit of mobility particularly. The more modern the nature of the entire psychological career contract, the less managers strive for organisation-external mobility. Furthermore we see that modernity relates negatively to mobility perspective as a whole. This is largely the consequence of the negative relation with organisation-external pursuit mobility.

Univariate regression analysis

Simple univariate regression analysis of modernity of the contract on mobility perspective as a whole does not show a significant influence ($F=3.74$; $p=.054$). The explained variance is 2%. Multiple univariate linear regression analysis of modernity of components of the psychological career contract on mobility perspective as a whole demonstrates that the level of modernity of combining work and non-work ($F=5.38$; $p<.05$) has a significant negative influence on the mobility perspective as a whole. Explained variance is 2%.

Multivariate regression analysis

In case to examine the influence of the modernity of the psychological career contract as a whole on aspects of mobility perspective, we performed simple multivariate regression analysis.

Table 7.18. *Simple multivariate regression analysis with level of modernity as predictor variable and four aspects of mobility perspective as criterion variables.*

Independent Variable	Dependent variables	Multivariate				Univariate		B
		Wilks' λ	F	df	Eta ²	F	Eta ²	
Modernity of the psychological career contract	1. Horizontal scope	.95	2.91*	4, 237	.05	.01	.00	.01
	2. Vertical scope					.71	.00	-.11
	3. Org. int. pursuit					1.22	.01	-.13
	4. Org. ext. pursuit					10.55**	.04	-.39

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level.

We expected a positive and direct influence of modernity of the contract on pursuit of mobility. From the Table it appears however that modernity of the contract as a whole negatively influences the organisation-external pursuit of mobility. This means that the more modern the contract is, the less managers strive for organisation-external mobility. Hypothesis III.c. is not supported.

Modernity and pursuit of mobility: a direct relationship?

In order to test whether our expectation that the relation between modernity and (organisation-external) pursuit of mobility is a direct one (and not mediated by HRD-pattern) is true, we performed hierarchical regression analysis. We followed the procedure as proposed by Baron & Kenny (1986) as already described in section 7.2. The relation with organisation-external pursuit of mobility is not mediated by the HRD-pattern (see next Table), appearing from the fact that the β -value is still significant in the second step, it even increases after adding HRD-pattern.

Table 7.19. *Multiple hierarchical linear regression analysis with modernity of the psychological career contract and HRD-pattern as predictor variables and organisation-external pursuit of mobility as the dependent variable.*

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	ΔR^2	F	ΔF	df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	Modernity	.21	.04	.04	.04	10.55**	10.55**	1, 240	-3.25	-.21**
2	Modernity HRD-pattern	.30	.09	.08	.05	12.08**	13.08**	2, 239	-4.35 3.62	-.29** .24**

** significant at the .01 level.

Since the relation of modernity of the contract and pursuit as a whole was significant as well, we conducted a similar analysis (see appendix 7.6) from which it appeared that the relation between modernity of the contract and pursuit of mobility as a whole is a direct one and is not mediated by HRD-pattern (the β -value increases from -.16 ($p < .05$) to -.24 ($p < .01$) after adding HRD-pattern to the equation.

In order to study the influence of modernity of the psychological career contract per career development component on aspects of mobility perspective, multiple multivariate regression analysis was carried out (see appendix 7.7.). No multivariate effects were found. Although the total score of modernity seems to negatively influence the organisation-external pursuit of mobility, no effect was found with regard to the career development components separately.

7.3.4.2. Unbalance of the psychological career contract and mobility perspective

The level of unbalance of the contract is expected to directly positively influence the pursuit of mobility.

Table 7.20. *Pearson correlations between unbalance of (components of) of the psychological career contract and (aspects of) mobility perspective.*

Unbalance	1. Mobility scope (total)	1a. Horizontal scope	1b. Vertical scope	2. Pursuit of mobility (total)	2a. Org. internal	2b. Org. external	3. Mobility perspective
1. Networking	.21**	.13*	.22**	.27**	.23**	.25**	.30**
2. Monitoring	.12**	-.00	.17**	.29**	.29**	.23**	.26**
3. Career planning	.11*	.05	.14*	.32**	.31**	.26**	.28**
4. Shaping	.24**	.15*	.25**	.25**	.25**	.20**	.30**
5. Combining	.14*	.16**	.10	.19**	.22**	.13*	.21**
Total	.21**	.12*	.23**	.33**	.33**	.25**	.34**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (1-tailed).

The Table shows that unbalance of the psychological career contract relates positively to mobility scope, pursuit of mobility and the mobility perspective as a whole. The correlation with pursuit of mobility is stronger than with mobility scope.

Univariate regression analysis

Simple univariate regression analysis of unbalance as a whole on mobility perspective demonstrates a significant result ($F=31.11$; $p=.00$). The explained variance is 12% ($\beta=.34$).

Furthermore we performed multiple univariate linear regression analysis with unbalance with regard to the five career development components as predictor variables and mobility perspective as a whole as the criterion variable. As shown in Table 7.21., the level of unbalance with regard to shaping learning opportunities and career networking positively influence the mobility perspective as a whole.

Table 7.21. *Multiple linear regression analysis with unbalance of components of the psychological career contract as predictor variables and mobility perspective as a whole as the dependent variable (method stepwise).*

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Δ R ²	F	Δ F	df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	Shaping	.30	.09	.09	.09	24.33**	24.33**	1, 240	4.93**	.30
2	Shaping Networking	.34	.12	.11	.03	15.98**	7.03**	2, 239	2.88** 2.65**	.21 .19

** significant at the .01 level.

Multivariate regression analysis

It remains the question with which aspects of the mobility perspective the unbalance of the psychological career contract is related, we therefore conducted simple and multiple multivariate regression analyses.

Table 7.22. *Simple multivariate regression analysis with level of unbalance as predictor variable and four aspects of mobility perspective as criterion variables.*

Independent Variable	Dependent variables	Multivariate				Univariate		B
		Wilks' λ	F	df	Eta ²	F	Eta ²	
Unbalance of the psychological career contract	1. Horizontal scope	.87	8.72**	4, 237	.13	3.39	.01	.10
	2. Vertical scope					13.52**	.05	.31
	3. Org. int. pursuit					29.98**	.11	.42
	4. Org. ext. pursuit					16.26**	.06	.33

** significant at the .01 level.

Unbalance as a whole positively influences all aspects of the mobility perspective, except horizontal scope. In addition, we tested whether there is an influence of perceived unbalance regarding facilities for career development on the pursuit of mobility as well. It appears that indeed both organisation-internal and –external pursuit of mobility rise when a larger discrepancy with regarding to facilities is perceived. Hypothesis III.d. about the influence of unbalance on pursuit of mobility is supported. The more unbalanced the contract is, the more managers will strive for organisation-internal and –external mobility.

We conducted further analysis to confirm whether this indeed concerns a direct relationship, which is not mediated by the HRD-pattern.

Table 7.23. *Multiple hierarchical linear regression analysis with unbalance of the psychological career contract and HRD-pattern as predictor variables and pursuit of mobility as the dependent variable.*

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	ΔR^2	F	ΔF	df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	Unbalance	.33	.11	.10	.11	28.48**	28.48**	1, 240	5.34	.33**
2	Unbalance HRD-pattern	.38	.14	.14	.04	20.09**	10.55**	2, 239	5.59 3.25	.34** .20**

** significant at the .01 level.

As expected the relation between unbalance of the psychological career contract and the pursuit of mobility is not mediated by the HRD-pattern. This becomes clear from the fact that the β -value after adding HRD-pattern to the equation does not decrease. The influence of unbalance of the psychological career contract on pursuit of mobility remains significant also when the HRD-pattern is taken into account⁹. The same conclusion is drawn from the analysis on the broader HRD-pattern (see appendix 7.8.). Hypothesis III.d. is fully supported.

Unbalance and mobility scope: an indirect relationship?

For exploratory purposes we might further elaborate on the relation between unbalance of the contract and the mobility perspective as a whole. So far it is not clear how the interplay between pursuit of mobility and mobility scope can be characterised. We saw that they correlate positively (see Table 7.3.). The question remains whether they influence each other mutually, or whether the direction of the influence is one-sided. We have seen (in section 7.2.) that the HRD-pattern influences the pursuit of mobility via the mobility scope. The question remains whether the positive influence of unbalance on pursuit of mobility also impacts the mobility scope. In other words, does pursuit of mobility mediate the relation between unbalance and mobility scope?

⁹ A similar conclusion is drawn for the relation between unbalance of the psychological career contract in terms of facilities and pursuit of mobility.

Table 7.24. *Multiple hierarchical linear regression analysis with unbalance of the psychological career contract and pursuit of mobility as predictor variables and mobility scope as the dependent variable.*

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Δ R ²	F	Δ F	df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	Unbalance	.21	.05	.04	.05	11.49**	11.49**	1, 240	3.39	.21**
2	Unbalance Pursuit	.33	.11	.10	.06	14.54**	16.83**	2, 239	1.97 4.10	.13* .27**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level.

The influence of unbalance of the psychological career contract on mobility scope decreases when pursuit of mobility is added to the equation. In fact, the p-value of the standard coefficient β of unbalance of the psychological career contract in the second step is exactly .05, and thus precisely meets the upper bound of significance. We may conclude that the relation between unbalance and scope is mediated by the pursuit of mobility.

Because unbalance is especially related to the vertical mobility scope (see Table 7.20.), we conducted the same analysis to find out whether the relation between unbalance of the psychological career contract is mediated by pursuit of mobility as well. It appears that the influence of unbalance on the vertical mobility scope indeed decreases after adding pursuit of mobility. However this concerns a partial mediation by pursuit of mobility, since the standard coefficient β is still significant in the second step ($p=.04$) (see appendix 7.9.).

In order to study the influence of unbalance of the psychological career contract per career development component on aspects of mobility perspective, we carried out multiple multivariate regression analysis (see appendix 7.10.). Multivariate effects were found of unbalance of monitoring career opportunities and combining work and non-work. The univariate test shows that unbalance of monitoring career opportunities negatively influences the horizontal mobility scope. Furthermore, the univariate effects of unbalance of combining work and non-work are not significant. The influence of this component almost significantly influences the horizontal mobility scope.

7.3.4.3. *Alternative hypothesis on relation unbalance and mobility perspective*

It is our primary expectation is that perceived unbalance of the psychological career contract results in dissatisfaction with one's job and organisation. As a consequence, managers will *directly* develop a higher pursuit of mobility in case to find a new balance elsewhere. This is what we call the flight hypothesis. We found support for this hypothesis in the data (see 7.3.4.2.).

As an alternative for this direct relationship between level of unbalance of the psychological career contract and mobility perspective, we propose a new hypothesis based on the literature about balancing of contracts. An important assumption in the balance approach is that when an unbalanced situation exists, actions will be undertaken to (re-)gain a balanced situation (Blau, 1964).

The alternative line of reasoning is that when managers perceive unbalance of the contract they will not only *directly* express their mobility wishes, but they will actively broaden their mobility scope by using generic HRD-activities, thus enlarging their chances on future job-mobility. This line of argumentation reveals an alternative hypothesis that proposes an *indirect* relation between level of unbalance of the psychological career contract and mobility scope, mediated by the HRD-pattern. We tested this hypothesis by hierarchical regression analysis (see appendix 7.11.). We have to conclude that HRD-pattern does *not* mediate the relation between the level of unbalance of the psychological career contract and mobility scope. The same conclusion is drawn for the broader HRD-pattern. The fact that no mediation was found is mainly the result of a statistically non-significant relation between unbalance and HRD-pattern. In sum, the alternative hypothesis is rejected. We conclude that unbalance of the contract has a direct influence on pursuit of mobility only, which in turn influences the mobility scope.

7.3.4.4. Types of contract

Beside the regression analyses that we performed to study the relation between the psychological career contract and the mobility perspective, we will also use the types that we distinguished based on cluster analysis (see chapter six) as point of departure to test the hypotheses. The overall question is whether there are any differences between the clusters of psychological career contracts with regard to (aspects of the) mobility perspective.

Based on a modernity perspective, we expect that managers with a modern contract have better (or more favourable) mobility perspectives than managers with traditional contracts. Here we focus on the *direct* hypothesised effect of the modernity of the contract on pursuit of mobility. See Figure 7.4. for a schematic representation of this hypothesis (note that this test on differences between types is an alternative way to test hypothesis III.c).

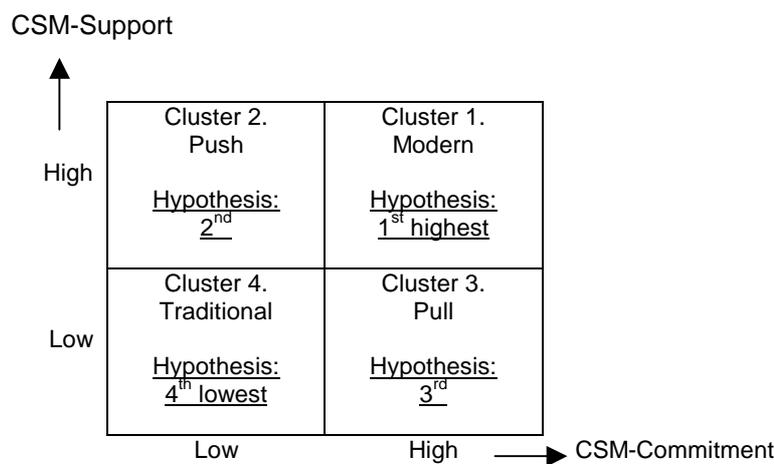


Figure 7.4. Hypothesis regarding order of pursuit of mobility according to the modernity approach (1st = highest pursuit, 4th = lowest pursuit).

From the balance approach, we expect that managers with balanced psychological career contracts have a lower pursuit of mobility than managers with unbalanced psychological career contracts. See Figure 7.5. for a schematic representation of this hypothesis (note that this rank order of expectations is parallel to hypothesis III.d.).

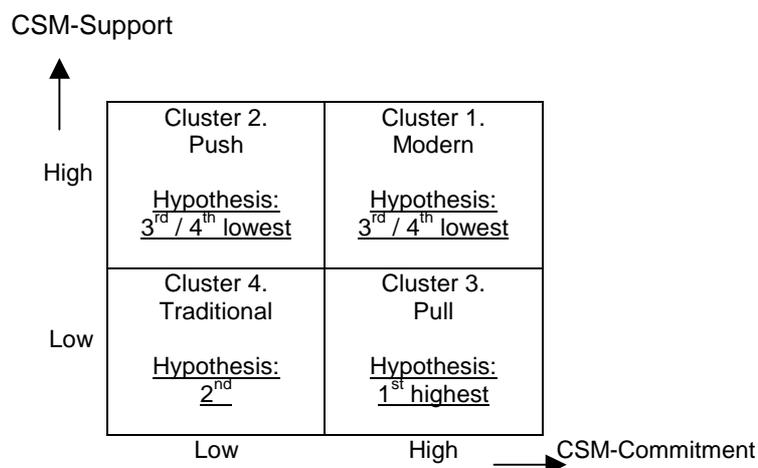


Figure 7.5. Hypothesis regarding order of level of pursuit of mobility according to the balance approach (1st = highest pursuit of mobility; 4th = lowest pursuit of mobility).

In the next Table the results of one-way analysis of variance is presented with mobility perspective as the dependent variable and types of contracts (based on cluster analysis; see chapter 6, section 6.3.4.3.) as the independent variable.

Table 7.25. *One-way analysis of variance on (aspects of) mobility perspective as the dependent variable and types of contracts (based on cluster analysis) as the independent variable.*

Dependent variable	Type of contract	N	Mean	sd	df	F	Differences between clusters (post-hoc)
1. Mobility scope	1. Modern	53	4.10	.75	3	3.66*	Tukey 2 < 3
	2. Push	95	3.94	.59	238		
	3. Pull	50	4.33	.70	241		
	4. Traditional	44	4.09	.74			
a. Horizontal	1. Modern	53	4.54	.61	3	1.09	-
	2. Push	95	4.42	.58	238		
	3. Pull	50	4.60	.63	241		
	4. Traditional	44	4.51	.64			
b. Vertical	1. Modern	53	3.67	1.03	3	4.22**	Tukey 2 < 3
	2. Push	95	3.47	.89	238		
	3. Pull	50	4.05	.90	241		
	4. Traditional	44	3.66	.93			
2. Pursuit of mobility	1. Modern	53	2.62	.63	3	5.13**	Tukey 1, 2 < 3
	2. Push	95	2.76	.83	238		
	3. Pull	50	3.17	.80	241		
	4. Traditional	44	2.98	.86			
a. Organisation-internal	1. Modern	53	3.10	.85	3	5.97**	Tukey 1, 2, 4 < 3
	2. Push	95	3.09	.85	238		
	3. Pull	50	3.69	.83	241		
	4. Traditional	44	3.23	.88			
b. Organisation-external	1. Modern	53	2.14	.66	3	4.32**	Tamhane 1 < 3, 4
	2. Push	95	2.41	.93	238		
	3. Pull	50	2.66	1.00	241		
	4. Traditional	44	2.73	1.03			
3. Mobility perspective	1. Modern	53	3.36	.57	3	5.92**	Tukey 1, 2 < 3
	2. Push	95	3.35	.57	238		
	3. Pull	50	3.75	.57	241		
	4. Traditional	44	3.53	.67			

** significant at the .01 level.

The results from the analysis of variance show that types differ significantly on the mobility perspective as a whole and on all aspects except for the horizontal mobility scope. We performed post-hoc analyses (Tukey in case of equal variance between the clusters; Tamhane's in case of unequal variances) to see between which clusters differences exist.

In general it is remarkable that the push-related type (type 2) scores lower on all aspects of mobility perspective in comparison with the pull-related type (type 3), although not significantly with regard to the horizontal mobility scope and organisation-external pursuit of mobility.

When we compare our expectations of rank order of the different types along the (aspects of) mobility perspective, according to the modernity and balance approach, we see the following.

Based on the modernity scores of the clusters, we expected the modern cluster to have the highest pursuit of mobility and the traditional cluster to have the lowest pursuit of mobility. The push- and pull-related clusters were expected to take mid-positions (see Figure 7.4.).

In the rank order of scores on pursuit of mobility we do not recognise our expectations. Instead, we found exactly the opposite as what we initially expected. For all kinds of pursuit of mobility it counts that the modern and push-related types score lowest. Simultaneously, the pull-related and traditional type show the highest scores on pursuit of mobility. Hypothesis III.c. is not supported.

From the balance approach we expect that managers in the balanced clusters (modern and push-related cluster) have lower levels of pursuit of mobility than managers in the unbalanced cluster (especially the pull-related cluster) (see Figure 7.5.). The findings largely support these expectations. We see that for all kinds of pursuit of mobility the most balanced contract-types (modern and push-related) have the lowest scores. Managers with pull-related and traditional contract-types appear to pursue mobility to the highest extent. Appearing from the rank order of the pursuit scores we may conclude that hypothesis III.d. is supported, although we see that the mean scores between the contract-types do not in all instances differ significantly.

In short, the modernity approach does not contribute to the explanation of the nature of the mobility perspective. The balance approach has proven to be more valuable in this respect.

Finally, from the last row of Table 7.25. it can be deducted that managers with a pull-related type of contract, have the most favourable mobility perspective as a whole. This means that managers whose commitment perception is high and their support perception lower, are most likely to become mobile in the (near) future. It must be noted, however, that this result does not have to be interpreted as something positive; the level of pursuit is directly influenced by the unbalance of the pull-related type. Apparently, as we already explicated in the combination hypothesis (see section 4.3.3.2.), it is the combination of high unbalance and high commitment that is most likely to result in an intention to leave.

7.3.5. Summary of support for hypotheses

The next Table provides an overview of support for hypotheses with regard to the relation between the psychological career contract and the mobility perspective.

Table 7.26. *Overview of support for hypotheses regarding the relation between the psychological career contract and mobility perspective.*

Hypotheses psychological career contract and pursuit of mobility	Support*
III.a.CSM-commitment as a whole has a positive effect on pursuit of mobility;	+/- (org. internal)
III.b.CSM-support as a whole has a positive effect on pursuit of mobility.	-
III.c.Level of modernity of the psychological career contract positively influences pursuit of mobility.	-
III.d.Level of unbalance of the psychological career contract positively influences pursuit of mobility.	+

* + fully supported; +/- partly supported (between brackets it is written for which aspects the hypothesis is supported); - not supported

The overview shows that most of the hypotheses could not be (fully) supported by the data. Level of unbalance appears to be the most valuable predictor for the extent to which job-mobility is strived for. We tested whether this counts too for perceived unbalance at the level of facilities. This indeed seems the case. It thus appears that not only perception of unbalance of the mental psychological career contract, but also a perceived lack of facilities for career development may lead to a higher pursuit of

mobility. The modernity approach fails to explain the extent to which managers strive for job-mobility. In contrast to our expectation we found that the more modern the nature of the psychological career contract, the less managers strive for mobility.

7.4. HRD-pattern as mediator between the psychological career contract and (aspects of the) mobility perspective

The aim of this section is to shed light on the role that HRD-patterns fulfil with respect to the relation between the psychological career contract and the mobility perspective. The issue here is whether the psychological career contract is primarily *directly* or *indirectly* (via HRD-pattern) related to mobility perspective. We formulated hypotheses on this issue. We expect that the relation between on the one hand commitment, support and modernity of the contract and on the other hand mobility scope is mediated by HRD-pattern¹⁰.

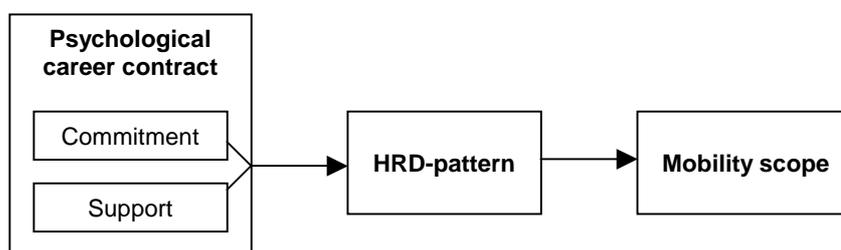


Figure 7.6. Research model: HRD-pattern as mediator between psychological career contract and mobility scope.

Analyses that we performed to test the hypotheses will be presented in the following order: a. commitment (hypothesis III.e.); b. support (hypothesis III.f.); c. modernity of the contract (hypothesis III.g.).

Ad a. HRD-pattern as a mediator of the relation between CSM-commitment and mobility scope.

One of the requirements for testing this hypothesis is that commitment influences the mobility scope. This condition is not met when we use a 5% significance-level ($F=2.91$; $p=.09$). Because of the importance to get insight into this relation we decided to take a lower significance-level ($p=.10$), so we can perform this analysis. We need to be more cautious however.

Table 7.27. Multiple hierarchical linear regression analysis with commitment and HRD-pattern as predictor variables and mobility scope as the dependent variable.

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	ΔR^2	F	ΔF	df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	Commitment	.11	.01	.01	.01	2.91*	2.91*	1, 240	1.71	.11*
2	Commitment	.26	.07	.06	.06	8.58**	14.10**	2, 239	.51	.03
	HRD-pattern								3.75	.25**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .10-level.

¹⁰ Note that in this section we do not address the relation between the unbalance of the contract and mobility scope. Based on theory we expected that unbalance of the contract is directly related to pursuit of mobility (hypothesis III.d.). We already tested this hypothesis in section 7.3. (see Table 7.23.), which was confirmed by the data.

Table 7.27. demonstrates that HRD-pattern mediates the relation between commitment and the mobility scope. In the first step the influence of commitment is significant, while in the second step the influence is not significant anymore. The β -value has decreased. With some extra caution, we may conclude that hypothesis III.e. is supported. In addition we considered whether the broader HRD-pattern plays a mediator role as well. This appears to be the case (see appendix 7.12.a.).

Ad b. HRD-pattern as a mediator of the relation between CSM-support and mobility scope.

The relation between CSM-support and mobility scope is expected to be mediated by the HRD-pattern (hypothesis III.f.). Like in the former analysis concerning commitment, the requirement that support must influence scope itself is not met on a .05 significance-level ($F=3.76$; $p=.054$). Also here we will use a significance-level of .10, so we can perform this analysis. Again extra caution is needed when interpreting the results.

Table 7.28. *Multiple hierarchical linear regression analysis with support and HRD-pattern as predictor variables and mobility scope as the dependent variable.*

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	ΔR^2	F	ΔF	df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	Support	.12	.02	.01	.02	3.76*	3.76*	1, 240	-1.94	-.12*
2	Support HRD-pattern	.32	.10	.10	.09	13.70**	23.30**	2, 239	-3.14 4.83	-.20** .31**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .10 level.

According to Table 7.28. HRD-pattern does not mediate the relation between support and mobility scope. The β -value even increases after adding HRD-pattern to the regression-equation. The same conclusion can be drawn for the broader HRD-pattern (see appendix 7.12.b.). Hypothesis III.f. is not supported by the data.

Ad c. HRD-pattern as a mediator of the relation between modernity of the contract and mobility scope.

HRD-pattern is expected to mediate the relation between the modernity of the contract and mobility scope (hypothesis III.g.). However, because modernity does not influence the mobility scope ($F=27$; $p=.60$), this analysis cannot be conducted. Consequently, hypothesis III.g. cannot be supported.

Table 7.29. *Overview of support for hypotheses regarding the mediator function of the HRD-pattern between the psychological career contract and the mobility perspective.*

Hypotheses: HRD-pattern as mediator	Support*
III.e. The relation between CSM-commitment as a whole and mobility scope is mediated by HRD-pattern.	+
III.f. The relation between CSM-support as a whole and mobility scope is mediated by HRD-pattern.	-
III.g. The relation between level of modernity of the psychological career contract and mobility scope is mediated by HRD-pattern.	-

* + fully supported; +/- partly supported; - not supported

As can be seen in Table 7.29., the relation between commitment and mobility scope is mediated by HRD-pattern. This does not count for support for career self-management and for the modernity of the contract as a whole. Apparently, the perceived commitment to career self-management does not directly lead to a better mobility perspective. HRD-activities are necessary, in particular HRD-activities with generic value, in order for the mobility scope to broaden.

7.5. Results of path-analysis

So far, we performed analyses on distinct parts of the research-model. In this section we will test the research model as a whole by path-analysis. We used LISREL (8.30) to conduct this analysis.

The psychological career contract will be approached first for commitment and support as separate dimensions (a). Then the analysis will be repeated with modernity of the contract (b) and unbalance of the contract (c) as measures of the psychological career contract. Furthermore we will use the narrower definition of the HRD-pattern (generic value) and the two aspects of mobility perspective: mobility scope and pursuit of mobility. As described in section 4.1.5.1. we aim to test the relation between mobility scope and pursuit of mobility. In the literature there is more reason to assume an influence of mobility scope on pursuit of mobility than the other way around. However, we exploratory tested this assumption by including both the influence of scope on pursuit, as well as the influence of pursuit on scope in the model. The path-analyses, then, provide support for one of both directions of this relationship. Several background characteristics that are expected to influence one or more of the main constructs are included in the model as well.

a. Path-analysis with commitment and support separately

We started the analysis with a saturated model, which per definition reveals a perfect fit (goodness of fit: $\chi^2=0$; $p=1.00$) with no background variables. Next we included age, educational level and the number of mobility opportunities in the path-analysis. Age and educational level were expected to relate to all main constructs; mobility opportunities were linked to mobility scope and pursuit of mobility.

We took into consideration the significance of the regression-coefficients. T-values need to be higher than 1.96 in order for the regression-coefficient to be significant. Step by step we set non-significant relations free, which finally resulted in a model that fits the data (goodness of fit: $\chi^2=9.78$ ($p=.28$); GFI=.99; AGFI=.95; $df=8$). It must be noted that the relation between age and commitment was negative and statistically significant ($t=2.38$); we excluded this relation since it leads to a better fit of the model.

Figure 7.7. shows the path-model labelled with the values of the estimated coefficients ($N=233$). All these values (except of the dashed line) are statistically significant. The percentages of explained variances of the constructs HRD-pattern, mobility scope and pursuit of mobility are not high; they are respectively 16%, 10% and 24%. We therefore have to take these results with some extra caution.

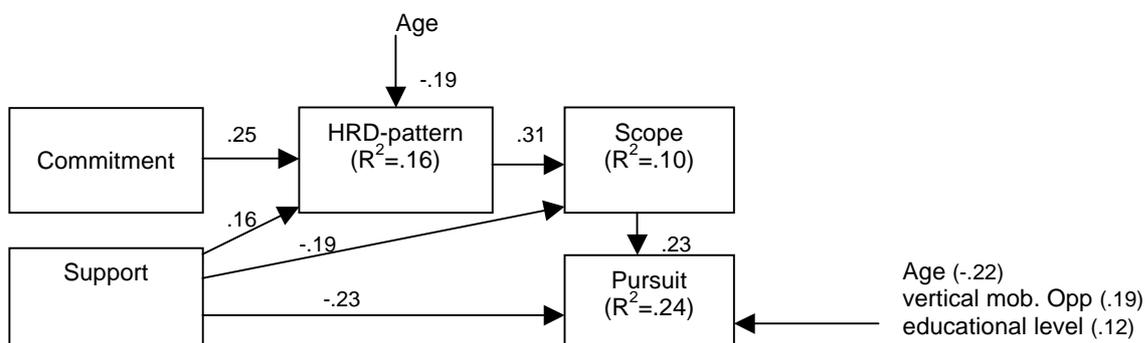


Figure 7.7. Path-model including CSM-commitment and –support as separate dimensions.

Apparently, commitment to career self-management has a positive influence on the generic value of HRD-activities, but does not directly influence managers' mobility scope and pursuit of mobility. Support also directly positively influences the generic value of HRD-activities of managers, but has a negative influence on the mobility scope and the pursuit of mobility of managers.

The strongest relations are between HRD-pattern and mobility scope, and between commitment and HRD-pattern. The more managers are committed to self-manage their careers, the more they will use HRD-activities with generic value, which results in a broader mobility scope. The negative relation between support and pursuit of mobility is also relatively strong. It means that when managers perceive to be highly supported by their direct supervisors to self-manage their careers, they are less inclined to strive for mobility. Moreover, high support results in a smaller mobility scope.

The weakest relation is between support for career self-management and generic value of HRD-activities.

With regard to background characteristics we conclude that age has a negative influence on HRD-pattern and on pursuit of mobility. Additionally, the number of vertical mobility opportunities and educational level positively influence pursuit of mobility.

Ad b. Path-analysis based on modernity of the psychological career contract

Figure 7.8. shows the results of the path-analysis with the psychological career contract from a modernity perspective. Goodness of fit: $\chi^2=5.83$ ($p=.44$); GFI=.99; AGFI=.97; $df=6$).

Compared to the results of the analysis above (ad a.) we see that the direct relation between the psychological career contract and mobility scope disappeared. There is a positive influence of the modernity of the psychological career contract on mobility scope, which runs via the HRD-pattern. A direct negatively influence of the psychological career contract exists on pursuit mobility, which in turn positively influences the mobility scope. This in contrast with the findings in the former path-model in which pursuit was influenced by mobility scope.

If the aim of organisation is to have broadly employable employees at their disposal, the recommendation is to put effort so that employees have modern psychological career contracts. That is, make sure that organisational members take responsibility over their careers and to provide an appropriate level of support. Taking into account the results of chapter 6, this does not necessarily mean a high level of support for career self-management. In case managers are highly committed, the richest HRD-pattern can be reached by an intermediate level of support. And consequently, broader mobility scopes will be the result.

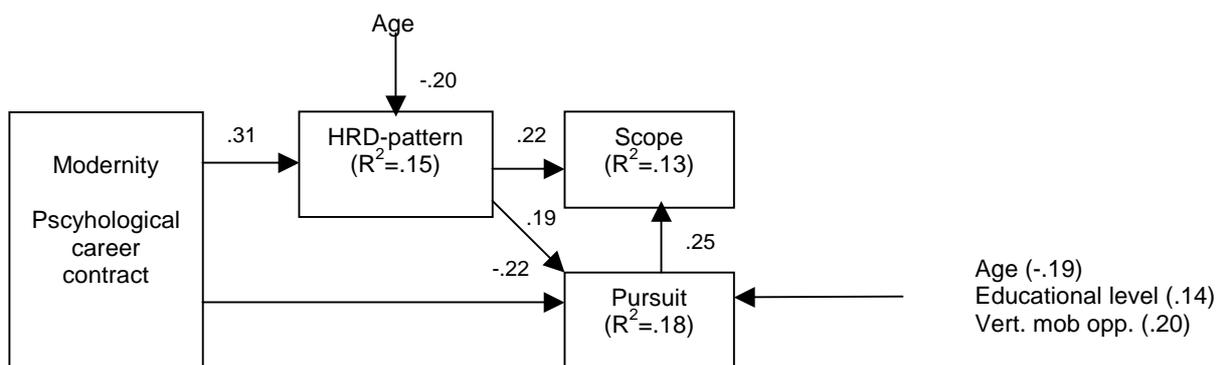


Figure 7.8. Path-model including psychological career contract from a modernity perspective.

Figure 7.9. shows the model that (perfectly) fits when we approach the psychological career contract from a balance perspective (Goodness of fit: $\chi^2=4.52$ ($p=.72$); GFI=.99; AGFI=.98; $df=7$). We followed the same procedure as described above.

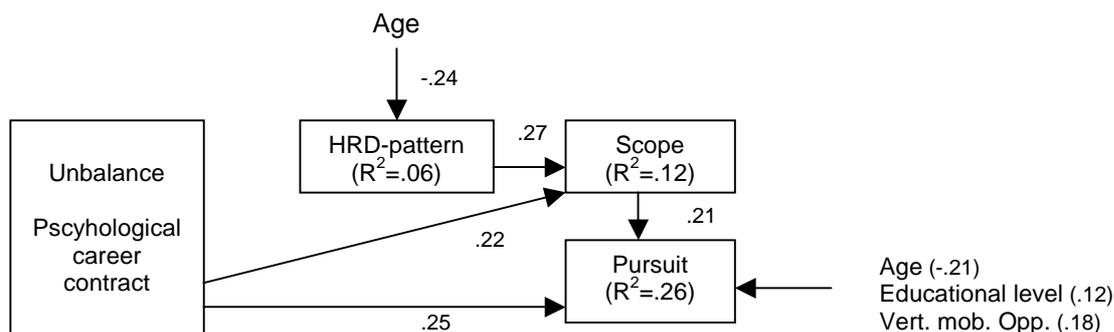


Figure 7.9. Path-model including psychological career contract from a balance perspective.

It is remarkable to see that the unbalance of the psychological career contract directly positively influences the pursuit of mobility. Unbalance does not relate to the richness of HRD-patterns of managers, nor positively nor negatively. It is surprising that a direct relation is found between unbalance and mobility scope, which in turn positively influences the pursuit of mobility.

7.6. Conclusions and discussion

This section summarises the findings of this chapter according to the four main research questions.

Ad 1. How can managers' mobility perspectives be described? (see section 7.1.)

Managers in general have a broad mobility scope. Their perceived horizontal scope is broader than their vertical scope, which is logical since in order to be able to fulfil a job at a higher hierarchical level more competences are required.

Managers' pursuit of mobility is intermediately high and is primarily directed at organisation-internal mobility at the same hierarchical level. The relation between mobility scope and pursuit of mobility is positive.

The analyses of the relation between background characteristics and mobility perspective uncover that age is negatively related to pursuit of mobility. As expected, the desire to fulfil another job becomes less with age. A positive relation with mobility scope was not found. Furthermore, it appears that the higher the level of education is, the higher the pursuit of mobility is. Another finding is that people who expect their job to end within three years are already open to new jobs by showing a higher level of pursuit of mobility.

Moreover, we did not find a negative relation between the number of internal mobility opportunities and external pursuit of mobility (instead we found a positive relation). An explanation for this finding could be that for managers who are highly motivated to become mobile, the location of the new job is not an issue of relevance. Organisational boundaries do not play a role when mobility is striven for. It is likely that managers who focus on the advancement of their career like to become familiar with multiple business settings. Managers' desire to fulfil a job within another company does not necessarily relate to the level of satisfaction with their current bosses or organisations.

Ad 2. To what extent do managers' HRD-patterns influence their mobility perspectives? (see section 7.2.)

From this study it appears that richness of managers' HRD-pattern contributes to a better mobility perspective. The strongest relation is with the vertical mobility scope. Apparently, managers'

perception of ability to fulfil other jobs at both the same and higher hierarchical levels increases when they devote energy to HRD-activities that are broad in nature.

More specifically, it appears that when managers use HRD-activities with a high generic value this directly leads to a broader mobility scope, which in turn leads to a higher pursuit of mobility.

Frequency of HRD-activities does not seem to play a significant role in the light of the mobility perspectives of managers. Planning of HRD-activities influences the vertical mobility scope.

These findings indicate that particularly managers who learn in a broad way and who plan their HRD-activities to a high extent perceive themselves to be employable in a broad range of jobs on hierarchically higher management jobs. When this perception of vertical mobility scope is actually transformed into a pursuit of mobility, it is likely that generic and planned learning behaviour gives managers the best perspective on mobility.

Ad 3. To what extent do managers' psychological career contracts influence their mobility perspectives? (see section 7.3.)

The relation between commitment to career self-management and mobility perspective is weak. There is a positive influence of commitment on organisation-internal pursuit of mobility. Only negligible evidence was found with regard to the influence of commitment components in particular. Commitment to monitoring career opportunities and to shaping learning opportunities has positive effects on the horizontal and vertical mobility scope, consecutively. Hence, managers who are inclined to constantly reflect on their career situation and who show the habit of transforming work situations into learning situations, are likely to develop the broadest mobility scopes.

Support for career self-management is negatively related to all aspects of the mobility perspective, which is against our expectations. We assumed that when managers would be stimulated by their organisation to take control of their own career development, this would benefit their mobility perspective. However, the opposite seems to be the case. It is support for combining work and non-work and support for shaping learning opportunities that negatively influence the mobility perspective as a whole. No effects were found of the career development components specifically on aspects of the mobility perspective.

An explanation that seems plausible for the fact that more support leads to less beneficial mobility perspectives is the fact that support, in any form, will lead to higher job satisfaction. Since CSM-support seems to have the strongest negative effect on organisation-external pursuit, this seems to be the case. The support managers receive from their direct supervisors makes them stay with their current section. Why change a satisfactory situation for a new (and sometimes threatening) situation outside?

Even though the support we studied is especially focused on career self-management, it seems that support for career self-management is viewed as "getting attention" from one's supervisor. This will almost always lead to better relations at work and a higher satisfaction. To conclude, attention in the form of support for career self-management to employees does not encourage mobility, or at least the chance on mobility does not seem to be enlarged by it.

An important finding is that the negative effect of CSM-support on mobility perspective is stronger than the positive effect of CSM-commitment on mobility perspective. When mobility is desired, it is recommended to put effort in transforming the negative effect of support into a positive effect. This, however, is no uncomplicated task. To stimulate organisation-internal mobility, it is necessary that an organisational culture exists in which it is normal for people to regularly change positions. This requires e.g. a good inter-departmental communication. Organisation-external mobility is more difficult to stimulate since it is (more or less covertly) asking people to leave. This is easier said than done.

There is a danger that employees who are stimulated to find a job outside the boundaries of the organisation may develop feelings of betrayal, especially when the impression prevails that one has contributed much to the organisation. Such events may well affect the organisational climate in a negative way.

In sum, it seems a paradox for an organisation to stimulate (which has a positive connotation) employees to take control of their career and to find a job outside the boundaries of the company (which has a negative connotation). This paradox becomes even more clear when organisations have to encourage *excellent and highly qualified* people to self-manage their careers and actually see the turnover rate of talented people rise. Such processes, however, seem to be part of the “new deal” in which mobility is viewed as a common reality. The disadvantage of one company that has to let go of a good employee means an advantage for another organisation that hires this new employee at the same time. As long as organisations find themselves in such advantageous and disadvantageous positions to an equal extent, no real problem exists.

In studying the relation between the psychological career contract as a whole and the mobility perspective, we compared the strength of two approaches: the modernity approach and the balance approach. It appears that the balance approach is more valuable in this respect. As expected, unbalance is directly positively related to pursuit of mobility. This relation is not mediated by the HRD-pattern. Moreover, unbalance relates positively to mobility scope and the mobility perspective as a whole.

In contrast to our initial expectation (of a positive relation), modernity of the psychological career contract is negatively related to pursuit of mobility, in particular the organisation-external pursuit of mobility. Evidently, the total amount of perceived self-management commitment and mental support for this self-management attitude (modernity) does not explain the extent to which managers want to become mobile. Apparently, when organisations provide a “modern career climate” in which managers can be both self-managing and in which support is being provided for this attitude, managers will be inclined to stay. The question remains whether an equal secure and comfortable situation would be found within another organisation.

On the basis of literature with regard to balancing expectations and contracts (Blau, 1964), we formulated an alternative hypothesis about the relation between unbalance of the psychological career contract and the mobility perspective. Instead of expecting a higher intention to leave one's current position as a result of unbalance and according dissatisfaction, we hypothesised that HRD-pattern would fulfil an intermediary role between the unbalance of the psychological career contract and the mobility perspective. To explain, in order to regain balance, additional effort would be put into HRD-activities to improve one's competences and thus enhance the range of jobs one would be able to fulfil. This alternative hypothesis, however, was not supported by the data. HRD-pattern does *not* mediate the relation between the level of unbalance of the psychological career contract and mobility scope. Unbalance of the contract has a direct influence on pursuit of mobility only, which in turn influences the mobility scope.

Ad 4. Does HRD-pattern fulfil an intermediary role between managers' psychological career contracts and their mobility perspectives? (see section 7.4. and 7.5.)

The relation between commitment and mobility scope is mediated by HRD-pattern. This does not count for support for career self-management and for the modernity of the contract as a whole. Apparently, the commitment perception of career self-management does not directly lead to a better mobility perspective. HRD-activities are necessary, in particular HRD-activities with generic value, in order for the mobility scope to broaden. This result emphasises the significance of generic HRD-activities. Employability does not come all by itself; it needs investment in broadly applicable knowledge and skills for employability to develop.

On the basis of path analyses we conclude that the relation between psychological career contract and mobility perspective is mediated by the HRD-pattern when the psychological career contract is approached from a modernity perspective. When we focus on unbalance of the contract a direct relation exists with pursuit of mobility.

The HRD-path between the psychological career contract to mobility perspective symbolises a positive trajectory. The mobility perspective is enhanced as a result of a modern attitude towards careers, in which career self-management is the norm. HRD-activities are being used to broaden one's mobility scope. The range of jobs managers are able to fulfil becomes larger as a consequence of competence improvement. This increased perception of competence in turn leads to the drive to actually utilise this increased level of competence. The mobility perspective as the combination of both the ability and the willingness to become mobile thus becomes more favourable.

An alternative path for the development of one's mobility perspective is via the "flight path". This path originates from a negative starting point in which career self-management commitment and support do not match. This unbalance of the psychological career contract appears to be a reason for managers to strive for mobility. This mobility intention is thus based on a dissatisfactory situation.

In sum, employees' mobility perspectives can be enlarged in two ways: as a result of modern career notions and as a result of an unbalanced psychological career contract.

The better mobility perspective that develops according to the HRD-path is primarily the result of a broader mobility scope. Because of the efforts put into generic HRD-activities, the range of jobs that managers are able to fulfil is enlarged. This path will most likely lead to a flexible and motivated work force that intends to use increased flexibility to the benefit of their current organisation or department and for their own (psychological) success. The mobility perspective that develops as a result of unbalance of the contracts is primarily based on a higher intention to leave the current organisation or department. According to this flight path employees will rather use their flexibility elsewhere; in another department within their current organisation or outside the current organisation.

In chapter 4 we argued that the chance of mobility actually taking place is based on the combination of the ability and the willingness to become mobile. It depends on which of both paths prevails whether a better mobility perspective is achieved as a primary result of a broader mobility scope or by increased pursuit of mobility. In the end both paths lead to an increase of mobility perspective, since scope and pursuit are mutually related as well. However, these paths do not seem equally satisfactory and desirable.

Chapter 8

Conclusions, discussion and recommendations

In this last chapter we will discuss the general research question of this thesis, which is about the significance of learning in a manager's career. The conceptual research model on the basis of which we conducted our main study can be found in section 8.4.

The study was conducted in three phases. The first research phase (an exploratory study) approached the general research question in a descriptive way. The aim was to characterise managers' HRD-activities. The second and third phase of the study (pilot and main study) approached the general research question in an evaluative sense by linking managers' HRD-activities to perceptions of certain career outcomes.

Participants of the studies were in all cases managers at various management levels in different organisations. Managers are organisational members who direct at least two subordinates and who are at least half of their time engaged in performing all kinds of management tasks.

The general research question, "what is the significance of learning in a manager's career", is split up in several main research questions. This chapter has been structured according to these main research questions. For each of them we will report the main outcomes and discuss them.

Since each empirical chapter (3, 6 and 7) includes a final section in which results have already been discussed, we will restrict ourselves here to a consideration of the most interesting findings. Moreover, methodological issues will be discussed.

The first questions are aimed at characterising managers' HRD-patterns (8.1.), psychological career contracts (8.2.) and mobility perspectives (8.3.). This information is required in order to answer the question about the relationship between these three central concepts in this research. In 8.4. the general conclusions with regard to the research model as a whole will be presented. In particular, we will focus on the issue whether managers' HRD-patterns mediate the relation between career self-management perceptions and the perspective that managers have on mobility. In other words, is it justified to attach so much value to the role of learning in a manager's career, or are other matters of more significance, such as the extent to which managers are committed to take control of their own career and the balance that exists between career self-management perceptions of managers and their organisations?

We will give recommendations for future research in 8.5. The practical implications of this study for the HRD-field will be reported on in the conclusive section (8.6.).

8.1. Characterisation of managers' HRD-patterns

One of the aims of this study was to shed light on the nature of managers' HRD-activities. Throughout the entire project the focus was on HRD-activities (or learning activities) managers use either in order to master their current job or for the development of their careers. In the first phase of this study emphasis was laid on the outcomes managers' HRD-activities have on the short term. In the second and third research phase, the approach changed towards more emphasis on the career as the context in which managers use HRD-activities. With the appearance of so-called *modern* careers, the meaning of learning changed too. Transferable skills, in contrast with job and organisation-specific skills, are increasingly valued (Sullivan, 1999). Generic learning activities are of particular importance for future employment. They generate broadly applicable knowledge and skills that can be used independently to deal with new problems in a wide range of tasks, jobs and organisations (Thijssen, 1997a; De Wolf,

2000). Since employability is positively affected by such generic learning activities, this dimension has been chosen as the core dimension of managers' HRD-patterns, beside other meaningful HRD-dimensions such as frequency and planning of HRD-activities (e.g. Noe, 1996; Megginson, 1996).

We chose to characterise managers' learning behaviour according to the richness of their HRD-patterns, which is a summarising characterisation of a variety of HRD-activities used by a manager. The richness of the HRD-pattern refers to the value learning has for one's mobility perspective. A rich pattern is assumed to benefit the mobility perspective, while a poor pattern is not likely to contribute to the improvement of career opportunities.

We distinguish between the narrower and the broader HRD-pattern. The narrower HRD-pattern, then, refers to the extent to which the various HRD-activities have generic value. The broader HRD-pattern is a summary of the three HRD-dimensions generic value, frequency and planning. HRD-patterns that comprise infrequent, unplanned and specific HRD-activities are regarded to be poor in contrast to rich HRD-patterns that comprise frequent, planned and generic HRD-activities. Analyses were done primarily on the narrower HRD-pattern.

In sum, in the main study managers' HRD-patterns have been studied in the broader context of career development, which we defined as the continuous process of active engagement in self-managed career development activities aimed at optimising one's career mobility perspective (see section 4.1.). As such, HRD-activities form just one element within the range of possible actions that managers may employ for the furtherance of their careers. Other career development activities we distinguish are career networking, career monitoring, career planning and combining work and non-work. It appears that managers spend most of their efforts on using HRD-activities and on combining their work and private life. They devote significantly less energy to optimising their career situation (networking) and on career planning activities.

We will now draw some general conclusions about the richness of managers' HRD-patterns and discuss the findings.

8.1.1. Types of HRD-activities

Managers use a large variety of activities for their development as managers. Qualitative analysis indicates that these activities vary from formal training activities off the job to informal learning-by-doing activities on the job. The fact that the HRD-activities managers refer to are certainly not only restricted to formal HRD-activities demonstrates managers' awareness of the learning potential of the work place. To conclude, managers do not merely approach learning in the traditional sense of the word (courses, education, training, etc.) (see chapter 3).

On the basis of a comparison between the qualitative data and our initial literature based categorisation of HRD-activities, we conclude that a categorisation of three types of HRD-activities with varying extents of formalisation (formal, non-formal and informal) forms a useful starting point to examine managers' learning behaviour by self-report. The activities that managers identify as being valuable for their development can well be positioned on this formalisation continuum.

Management task-relatedness of HRD-activities

Of particular interest of the first research phase was the question whether HRD-activities are management-task-related. In other words, do managers direct different types of HRD-activities equally to different management tasks?

Our study provides evidence that management learning happens task-independently (see chapter 3). The rank order of use of types of HRD-activities is valid for all clusters of management tasks as distinguished by Luthans *et al.* (1984; 1985; 1988; 1993). For all clusters of management tasks most

informal HRD-activities are used, followed by non-formal and formal HRD-activities. Apparently, it is not the type of task that determines the type of HRD-activity; it rather is the preference of managers to use certain types of HRD-activities regardless of the management task involved. We can thus talk of a task-generic pattern of HRD-activities applying to all clusters of management tasks. In sum, managers learn different management tasks in similar ways. The implication of this finding for the continuation of our study was to further measure HRD-activities task-independently.

A finding with regard to the relation between HRD-activities and management tasks is that managers' HRD-activities are not, as we expected, primarily directed at HRM-tasks. This expectation was based on the relative new character of these tasks for line managers and the value these tasks have for managerial effectiveness (Luthans *et al.*, 1984; 1985; 1993; Luthans, 1988). Moreover, we found that frequency of learning by doing correlates most strongly to frequency of management tasks and to formal training least strongly. Since learning by doing is fully integrated into task performance, it is a logical consequence that a management task first needs to be done in order for learning to take place.

So far, we have regarded the types of HRD-activities managers use. The question remains how these HRD-activities vary along the dimensions generic value, frequency and planning, which constitute the HRD-pattern.

8.1.2. Richness of HRD-patterns

The richness of HRD-patterns will be described according to the HRD-dimensions. First, we will address the generic value of HRD-activities, which is similar to the narrower HRD-pattern. Then, frequency and planning of HRD-activities will be addressed, which together with the generic value dimension constitute the broader HRD-pattern.

Generic value of HRD-activities / the narrower HRD-pattern

On average, managers' HRD-patterns are moderately rich in nature. In other words, managers' HRD-activities have intermediate value for the development of their mobility perspectives. It seems that 46% of the managers have a rich HRD-pattern, 40% have an intermediately rich HRD-pattern, and a minority of 14% have an HRD-pattern which is expected to have least beneficial effects on their mobility perspective (see chapter 6).

According to managers, the different types of HRD-activities have equally generic values and are positively correlated. This finding suggests that managers' learning behaviour is determined by an underlying career interest or orientation (Isaacson & Brown, 1997). Managers whose focus is mainly on long-term career development will choose HRD-activities that contribute to transferable knowledge and skills for future jobs, regardless of whether it concerns a formal or an informal type of HRD-activity. Choices for HRD-activities will consequently be considered at their value for improving career prospects. Of course, the opposite can happen as well. Short-term career-oriented managers will be inclined to choose specific HRD-activities with relatively low value for future jobs.

It must be stressed at this point that in our study we implicitly assume that generic HRD-activities are to be preferred to specific HRD-activities. Since our study is focused on managers, who can mainly be viewed as generalists (as apposed to specialists) this assumption will regularly be underlined. A different line of argumentation would apply if, for instance, technical or medical specialists would have participated in our study. Then, specific HRD-activities would most likely lead to better chances on mobility. It is a misconception that generic HRD-activities would have the power to compensate for specific HRD-activities. With this study we thus do not mean to deny the value of specific HRD-activities. We rather advocate a combination of both and stress the generic value of HRD-activities when effects on career outcomes are concerned.

In sum, the finding that only a small percentage of managers use HRD-activities with generic value to a low extent suggests that these managers can generally be viewed as broadeners of their own employability rather than consumers (Thijssen & Lankhuijzen, 2000). A consuming strategy would have appeared from a low score on this narrower HRD-pattern.

Frequency (as part of the broader HRD-pattern)

Overall, managers are moderately engaged in using HRD-activities. Between the types of HRD-activities, the score on "extent of use" varies from intermediate to high. In the exploratory study the scores on extent of use of HRD-activities are higher than in the main study. This may partly be due to the fact that in the main study HRD-activities were studied task-independently. Yet, the most important result is that a corresponding conclusion can be drawn from both the exploratory and the main study: managers merely engage in informal HRD-activities.

This finding is largely in support of other studies in which, too, informal learning experiences have been identified as most essential to and valuable for becoming a manager (e.g. Hill, 1994; McCall *et al.*, 1988, Davies & Easterby-Smith, 1984). Some interesting details are that managers rely more on discussions with others than on books, magazines, or reports, which is in accordance with the findings of Kotter (1989), who stresses the preference of managers for processing verbal rather than written information. Moreover, Kwakman (1992) found that the score on discovery learning (which is largely parallel to what we call learning by doing) was highest and on external learning lowest (=formal learning off the job).

To conclude, from the fact that managers primarily use informal (learning by doing) activities, managers can be characterised as pragmatic learners (Lankhuijzen, 1999). They largely utilise their daily work environment as a learning environment. Explanations for this learning behaviour can be sought in the fact that managers usually have little time for other things than their primary tasks. Their work has more often been described as fragmentary and hasty (Mintzberg, 1973; 1989; Kotter, 1982; 1989). Of course, learning while executing daily work is most efficient. Evidently, it is wise for organisations to create conditions for informal developmental opportunities in the work place, for example based on the aspects that constitute the learning potential of the work place (e.g. Onstenk, 1994; 1995; 1997; Van Onna, 1985).

The relation between the use of formal and informal HRD-activities was addressed in both the exploratory and the main study by testing the compensation hypothesis. The suggestion is that employees who participate in formal HRD-activities to a low extent will probably compensate this with using a lot of informal HRD-activities on the job (e.g. Cross, 1981), e.g. by asking advice from colleagues on the job. So far, this compensation hypothesis was not supported by empirical studies (Thijssen, 1997a, p. 14). Our study could not find support for compensation of formal and informal HRD-activities, either. Instead, the data provide more support for interdependence based on several positive correlations between the use of types of HRD-activities. This finding suggests that managers who intensively use informal HRD-activities will also use non-formal HRD-activities to a large extent. Such learning behaviour points towards an accumulation of learning through the use of different types of HRD-activities. The internal motivation to learn continuously is the decisive factor with respect to the use of all kinds of HRD-activities. There seems to be more support for and/or decisions than for or/or options pertaining to choices of learning activities.

Planning (as part of the broader HRD-pattern)

We analysed planning of HRD-activities, which was not measured activity-specific as frequency and generic value of HRD-activities were. This dimension concerns a general indication of the extent to which managers are consciously preparing their HRD-activities. The average score is medium and means that managers do not plan their HRD-activities to a high extent. Neither can we say that their learning behaviour is incidental; they do not leave their HRD-activities to chance.

It appears that all HRD-dimensions mentioned above are positively correlated, which was a pre-condition for the development of the measure of the broader HRD-pattern. The broader HRD-pattern of managers is moderately to highly beneficial for the creation of mobility chances in the future. Overall, it consists of frequent, moderately generic and moderately planned HRD-activities. To illustrate, 46% of the managers have a rich HRD-pattern. Only 5% have a poor HRD-pattern. The rest (49%) of the managers have an intermediately rich HRD-pattern. The general conclusion is that, overall, this is a positive image of managers' learning behaviour in a modern career context.

One final remark has to be put forward with regard to the characterisation of HRD-activities. The use of formal HRD-activities seems to be of another kind in comparison to the other types of HRD-activities. This appears from the fact that frequency and generic value of formal HRD-activities do not correlate significantly with the frequency and generic value of non-formal and informal HRD-activities. Moreover, from factor analysis it appears that formal HRD-activities form a distinct factor.

This finding could be explained by the fact that in contrast to non-formal and informal HRD-activities, these formal HRD-activities can only to a limited extent be self-directed by the manager. Although the choice for training participation may be self-directed, the organisation of the course is usually not in the hands of the participants. Moreover, the duration of a course is most of the time pre-determined by a training institute or another pedagogical authority. In this way it could have affected the scores on frequency of HRD-activities. Furthermore, formal HRD-activities usually have a more generic character than HRD-activities taking place at the work place, because most of the time participants from various business settings and different organisations take part in one and the same formal course off the job, which necessitates a certain general character of course contents. Likewise, the generic value of HRD-activities is thus not totally in the hand of the learner and thus may have influenced the scores on generic value of formal HRD-activities.

8.1.3. Methodological issues: The HRD-pattern

Some remarks have to be made about the reliability of the (sub)scales of the HRD-pattern. It appeared to be rather problematic to find a reliable measure of frequency of HRD-activities. Other authors also met difficulties in their attempts to construct a measure of time investment in HRD-activities. For instance, Maurer and Tarulli (1994) found a low reliability of their scale comparable to our findings.

With regard to the reliability of generic value of HRD-activities no difficulties appeared. Beside reasons with regard to content, the fact that reliability of generic value of HRD-activities was good, this scale seemed a better starting point for a total measure of the HRD-pattern than a measure including the frequency of HRD-activities scale. Moreover, the range of frequency scores is smaller than the range of scores on generic value. Only few managers have low frequency scores. The generic value of HRD-activities seems to have a more discriminating value; managers' HRD-activities vary more along this HRD-dimension. Since we do value the extent to which HRD-activities are carried out, in addition to the generic value of HRD-activities and the level of planning of HRD-activities, we analysed both the narrower and the broader HRD-pattern.

The validity of the frequency scale was considered by comparing our findings to results of other studies and by comparing the relative measure to other measures: an absolute measure of time

investment in HRD-activities (such as formal training in number of days) and a rank order measure. In favour of the validity of the frequency scale we found statistically significant correlations.

A point of discussion relating to the measurement of the extent to which HRD-activities are used is that informal HRD-activities, because of their unstructured and unorganised nature, may sometimes be hard to recognise as being learning activities. Since controlling for this complexity would lead to even higher scores on time investment in informal HRD-activities, this would not have influenced our initial conclusion that most time is spent on informal HRD-activities. Furthermore, it is assumed that a lot of unconscious or implicit learning is going on. To make implicit learning explicit is particularly complicated and only happens when people reflect on their implicit learning experiences. This, too, is an argument in favour of even more investment of energy in typically informal HRD-activities than found in our study. Moreover, it can be mentioned that in order to report on learning, meta-learning is required. This means that it is necessary to reflect on HRD-activities before one is able to explicitly describe one's learning experiences.

In sum, such processes take place at a highly abstract level (which we tried to concretise by formulating HRD *activities*). To adequately report on their learning behaviour, a high level of reflective skills of managers is required. Since in our study mainly highly educated managers are involved, who are assumed to possess such competences, these points have been taken into account.

8.2. Characterisation of managers' psychological career contracts

The characterisation of managers' psychological career contract is one of the objectives of our study. The reason to involve theory on the psychological contract in our study was because we did not get sufficient insight into the relation between initiative and learning behaviour in the exploratory study. We found that managers merely take initiative to learn themselves, that is to self-direct their learning. Our initial expectation was that managers who in general are perceived to self-initiate their HRD-activities, will also learn to a higher extent than managers who leave the initiative in the hands of others. However, no support was found for this relation. Apparently, the general perception of who principally takes the initiative is not decisive for the amount of investment in HRD-activities. We therefore decided to go one step deeper into perceptions underlying learning behaviour and to involve other HRD-dimensions in addition to the amount of time spent on HRD-activities only.

It is the assumption in literature on modern careers that employees have to self-manage their careers to an increasing extent (Hall & Moss, 1998; Sullivan, 1999). Pertaining to this study, it was considered relevant to gain more insight into these career self-management perceptions. The question, then, becomes to what extent responsibility for one's career influences learning behaviour and mobility perspectives. We could use the theory on the psychological contract (e.g. Rousseau, 1995; Herriot, 1995, Barksdale & Shore, 1997). However, we needed a more specific focus on *career* perceptions, for which we could use Hall's (1996) ideas on the "protean career". Although Guest (1998) stresses to be cautious in focusing on career issues as content of the psychological contract, we decided that further exploration of this theme is desirable, especially when learning behaviour in modern careers is concerned. To make our personal interpretation of the "psychological career contract" we took the career competences by Ball (1997) as a starting point to develop our own instrument.

To characterise the psychological career contract, we draw some general conclusions with regard to the distinct perspectives that constitute the psychological career contract: the level of individual career self-management commitment and organisational career self-management support. Moreover, the contract as a whole can be characterised, in terms of modernity and unbalance. Modernity is the sum

of individual commitment to and organisational support for career self-management, while unbalance is the difference between these two career self-management dimensions (see chapter 6).

8.2.1. Commitment and support

Career self-management has become a “hot topic” in the post-modern era of today. The meaning of work has changed and implies that work not only has to be useful, but meaningful and challenging as well. People are more open to changes in general and to career changes in particular. The increase of flexible work and personnel mobility gives people more opportunities to learn and to grow. Moreover, under the new career contract, psychological success rather than external success is the criterion (Mirvis & Hall, 1994). In this modern career context, self-management is a desired personal quality. The assumption is that to an increasing extent people want to take control of their own career development.

The popularity of this topic is reflected in the fact that an increasing amount of books and articles are now being published about this theme, both within and outside the academic world, to help people to take such a modern career attitude and to find inspiration and vitality in one’s career (e.g Hoogendijk, 2000; Van Tiem & West, 1997). In other words, labour is seen as a means to reach self-determination and personal growth. According to Hoogendijk (2000, p. 9) it is however not an easy pursuit, it takes courage to self-direct one’s career, partly because one has to be able to identify career ambitions, which to begin with is not uncomplicated and effortless.

But, fortunately, it is not up to the individual alone to be involved in a self-managed career, it is expected from organisations to give support to the individual on this terrain as well. The implication is that leaders and managers need to take a new approach to the development of their subordinates. They need to motivate them to work for the organisation by offering favourable conditions for self-management of career development and by doing so to become an attractive employer to work for. They furthermore have to give people the autonomy to make self-directed career decisions. Of course, it takes a while for people to get used to this “new deal” (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995). In sum, it is both individual commitment to and organisational support for career self-management that is required in order for a modern career to develop.

From our study it seems that managers in general feel highly committed to self-manage their careers, which is a feature of the so-called protean employee (Hall, 1996). It is especially the combination of their working life and their private life for which they feel highly responsible (see section 6.2.). Responsibility for this component is in particular part of a modern career (Meijers, 1995; Defillippi & Arthur, 1994).

The level of support managers perceive to get for career self-management is of an intermediate extent. On the average, least support is perceived with regard to career networking. Apparently, managers do not feel stimulated by their superiors to establish and maintain personal contacts with “important others” in order to optimise one’s career situation.

The career development activity for which managers perceive most support is “shaping of learning opportunities”. In comparison with all other career development activities involved in this study, this component is beside future-oriented also focused on the increase of performance in the current job. The dominant instrumental management attitude (Van Assen, 1990), could partly explain the fact that this aspect is mostly supported. Managers will primarily pay attention to the present performance of their employees and will be mainly focused on short-term performance improvement. On the contrary, top managers are generally not only interested in the organisation’s results in the short term, but they are also concerned about the long-term profitability of the organisation for which a highly flexible work force is required. This entails line managers to stimulate employees’ long-term development as well.

This is also referred to as the ambivalence hypothesis (Thijssen, 1997b) or management paradox (Leenders & Van Esch, 1995).

We are led to the conclusion that managers' sense of responsibility for their career development concerns a general attitude. This means that for a manager who feels committed to take control of his own career, this goes for all career development activities to which self-management applies. This stems from the fact that commitment perceptions with regard to all career development components are positively related. A higher commitment to one component goes together with a higher commitment to another career development component as well. The fact that correlations of other career development components with commitment to combining work and non-work is lowest points at a distinct character of this activity.

Evidently, a so-called protean employee self-manages all career development components and not only a selection of them.

8.2.2. Modernity and balance

Considering the psychological career contract as a whole, we found that the level of modernity (of all components) of the psychological career contract is intermediate. The modernity score of combining work and non-work is higher than all other career development components. This means that the total of the commitment perception and the support perception best matches modern career notions.

The study shows that with regard to all career development components, the score on commitment is significantly higher than the level of perceived support for career self-management (on average one point higher on a five-point Likert-scale) (see section 6.2.).

Remarkably, the highest level of unbalance exists for the same career development component on which the most modern score was found as well: combining work and non-work demands. Evidently, the largest discrepancy is perceived with regard to self-management of activities directed at integrating life at home and life at the office. It must be noted, though, that the score on commitment is very high and the support score is also high. The question still remains, then, what effect the level of unbalance with regard to this component will have on HRD-patterns and mobility perspectives of managers (see section 8.4.).

Another way of approaching the psychological career contract as a whole is by a distinction between different types of contracts based on the commitment dimension and the support dimension. As in several other studies (Barksdale & Shore, 1997; Tsui *et al.*, 1997), based on cluster analysis, we developed our own typology into four types which we consecutively named: 1) the modern (high commitment / high support), 2) push-related (low commitment / high support), 3) pull-related (high commitment / low support) and 4) traditional (low commitment / low support) psychological career contract. We found that the managers were fairly equally distributed among the four types.

A fair extent of support was found for Barksdale and Shore's (1997) expectation that most contracts are balanced as a consequence of the innate drive of people to strive for balance in their lives in general (Blau, 1969), and in their career in particular. The two most balanced contracts (modern and push-related types) were represented by the largest part of the managers (61%). Almost 21% of the managers had a pull-related psychological career contract in which the level of unbalance was perceived to be highest. Apparently, managers whose commitment perception (largely) exceeds the support perception have least favourable psychological career contract in terms of balance.

Beside the regression analyses we performed on the research sample as a whole, analyses of variance were done on the basis of this typology of psychological career contracts. These analyses served as additional tests for our hypotheses and provided supplementary support for our findings.

Furthermore, the issue of the psychological career contract in terms of facilities and its relation with the psychological career contract at the mental level was of interest in this study.

The average level of both desired and perceived facilities was found to be high. Still, managers demonstrate their wishes with regard to facilities for career development not to be entirely met. The level of expectation is higher than the extent to which these facilities are actually offered by the organisation. This result is not surprising; it is rather common to overrate wishes in comparison to reality.

An interesting finding is that the mental and the “facility” psychological career contract are positively correlated. This finding suggests that the more managers feel responsible for controlling their own career, the more they expect from their organisation in terms of facilities. The level of unbalance of the mental and the facility psychological career contract are positively correlated as well. This means that the more unbalanced one contract is, the more unbalanced the other contract. Later we will address our expectation that a discrepancy on facility level affects the richness of HRD-patterns and mobility perspectives in a negative sense.

8.2.3. Methodological issues: The psychological career contract

Several problems have to be overcome when engaging in research on the psychological contract. The article by Rousseau and Tijoriwala (1998) is particularly relevant in this respect; it provides an overview of many aspects that have to be taken into account when engaging in psychological contract research. Moreover, Guest (1998) has reported on methodological issues related to the psychological contract.

In chapter 4 (4.2.3.) we summarised several problems related to the measurement of the psychological contract. These are the issue of mutuality, the representation of the organisation, the focus on idiosyncratic or generalisable aspects, the time aspect, the implicit nature, and the form of assessment. In section 4.2.7. we reported on the choices we made to contend with these problems.

The choices we made can be critically discussed. Some remarks can be made about the choice for the etic approach towards the psychological career contract. The etic approach assesses general constructs meaningful for individuals across a variety of settings (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998); this approach aims to provide generalisable results. Our research goal of studying the psychological career contract in multiple organisations was best achieved from this etic perspective. When using this approach the environment has to be at least relatively stable, which we tried to secure by selecting organisations not involved in innovations and reorganisations. This indeed is only “relatively” stable since organisations of today operate in increasingly complex and changing environments. The relatively low response rate in one of our organisations was likely the result of a relatively unstable environment and could have influenced the results of the study. Moreover, while the quantitative approach is advantageous in the light of generalisable results, at the same time it limits the depth of our study. It may be recommended to check the study results with qualitative data in future research. Moreover, we chose for direct superiors of managers as the representatives of the organisation. For this choice we followed McFarlane Shore and Tetrick (1994). They maintain that “since individuals will have to depend on their immediate supervisors to carry out many of the contract terms, the employee is likely to view the supervisor as the chief agent for establishing and maintaining the psychological contract” (p. 101). We did not take into account the length of time managers and their superiors have been working together, which usually influences the relationship and thus their psychological contract. Since this may have influenced the results, the tenure of the managers – subordinate relation could be taken into account as an additional variable in future studies as well.

Furthermore, our assumption was that career self-management perceptions that constitute the psychological career contract are relatively constant over time. Our assumption is in contrast with the recognition of the dynamic nature of the contract (e.g. Rousseau, 1995; Schein, 1980) and with the

results of the study by Robinson *et al.* (1994). This study suggests that mutual obligations change over time and especially during the initial years in an organisation. Radical events in a manager's life may change a manager's attitude to self-management of the career. For example, the birth of a child may shift one's priorities and an announcement of a re-organisation with limiting job security may lead to demotivation. On the basis of the fact that in our study we focus on managers' learning behaviour during a relatively short period of time (one year), we justify this approach. Moreover, in future research such variables may be taken into account. Robinson *et al.*'s (1994) study was not particularly focused on perceptions regarding self-management of the career, either. These latter perceptions that we include in our study are almost certainly more stable in nature than obligations with regard to contract terms.

8.3. Characterisation of managers' mobility perspectives

In a modern career it is not so much the short-term learning outcomes that count, but in times in which employability is regarded as the new career goal (Altman & Post, 1996), concepts such as mobility and flexibility deserve attention. We therefore included the perspective on career mobility as a criterion variable in our study.

The mobility perspective has been defined as the possibility that a transition towards another job will take place, that is, towards another job at the same or another level, either within or outside the current department (business unit) or organisation. In a modern career, it is not only vertical mobility that counts, horizontal mobility is just as important.

The chance that mobility actually occurs depends on an ability component and a motivational component: mobility scope and pursuit of mobility. The mobility scope is the possibility that a job transition will take place, on the basis of the employee's *ability* to fulfil another job with his/her current qualifications. Pursuit of mobility is the possibility that a job transition will take place, on the basis of the employee's *willingness* to fulfil another job.

8.3.1. Mobility scope and pursuit of mobility

From our study (see chapter 7) we conclude that managers in general score high on mobility scope, which indicates that they perceive themselves to be competent to fulfil a broad range of jobs. Their perceived horizontal scope is broader than their vertical scope, which is logical since in order to be able to fulfil a job at a higher hierarchical level more competences are required.

Managers pursue mobility to an intermediate extent. This pursuit is primarily directed at organisation-internal mobility at horizontal level. The average score on organisation-external mobility is low. This results points at a rather cautious attitude towards mobility. It is least radical to make career moves within a known organisational context and to stay at the same hierarchical level. At the same time this could point towards satisfaction with the organisation. To further comment on this issue, we need to stress that it is an implicit notion of this study that mobility is something employees in a modern society generally desire. It goes without saying that this assumption is not underlined to an equal extent by different people. Career mobility involves giving up a safe work environment, (financial) security, colleagues and people have always had the need for certainties in life.

In accordance with the results of the study by Wit *et al.* (1993) we found different kinds of mobility pursuit to be positively correlated. This finding suggests that managers' strive for mobility is a general attitude rather than a specific issue as Boom and Metselaar (1993) supposed. As expected the relation between mobility scope and pursuit of mobility is positive, which means that perceptions of broader mobility scopes goes together with higher levels of mobility pursuit.

When we take a closer look at the mobility perspective as a whole, we conclude that managers on average have intermediately favourable mobility perspectives, consisting of broad mobility scope and intermediately high pursuits of mobility, primarily directed at organisation-internal mobility. The nature of the mobility perspective of this group of managers in total seems to be favourable for both the participating individual and for organisations. Broadly employable employees, who are also prepared to change jobs organisation-internally, provide the needed organisational flexibility.

8.3.2. Methodological issues: The mobility perspective

As all other concepts in this study, we measured the mobility perspective by self-perception. Because the mobility scope refers to a certain ability, which is here estimated by the managers themselves results have to be treated with caution. There is a danger that people overestimate their own ability. To use a self-perception measure as an indication of mobility pursuit is not problematic, since this concerns a motivational component, for which there are no alternative methods to gain insight into this concept.

One of the reasons to use self-perception measures to gain insight into the mobility perspectives of managers is to reach a congruent set of measures for the research as a whole. The fact that in this study the theory on the psychological contract is used, which per definition is done on the level of perceptions, makes the choice for a similar measure of mobility perspective coherent and plausible.

8.4. Research model as a whole: The mediating role of the HRD-pattern

The basic research model is given in Figure 8.1.

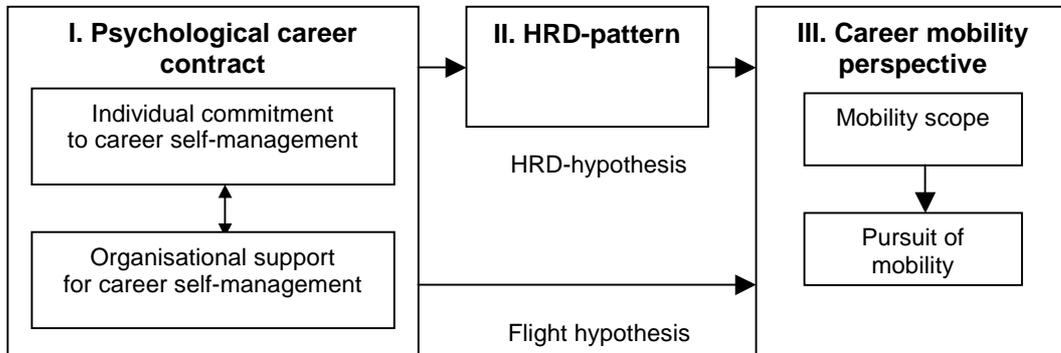


Figure 8.1. Conceptual research model.

The dependent variable in this model is the mobility perspectives of managers, which can be influenced via two paths, the so-called HRD-path and the flight path. The main issue is whether the (upper) HRD-path and the (lower) flight path have been recognised in the data, and if so, which of these paths are dominant in the model. Furthermore, it remains the question to what extent the modernity approach and the balance approach of the psychological career contract contribute to the explanation of managers' mobility perspectives.

To explain, the HRD-path is assumed to emerge from modern individual career perceptions and organisational support for this modern career attitude. Modern psychological career contracts are assumed to lead to rich HRD-patterns, which in turn are supposed to directly influence the range of jobs managers perceive to be capable of fulfilling. In other words, the HRD-pattern is supposed to

influence the mobility perspective via the broadening of the mobility scope based on modernity notions. In this respect the HRD-pattern fulfils an intermediary role.

An alternative line of reasoning applies to the flight path, in which the role of the HRD-pattern is limited. A direct relation is supposed to exist in case of a perceived state of unbalance between individual commitment to and organisational support for career self-management. Unbalanced expectations, and according dissatisfaction, are supposed to directly lead to a pursuit of mobility. In this case, the mobility perspective as a whole is affected by the increase of the intention to leave one's department or organisation. The HRD-pattern, then, does not fulfil an intermediary function.

In sum, applying two different approaches of the psychological career contract, *viz.* the modernity approach and the balance approach, generates two alternative expectations with regard to the influence on managers' mobility perspectives.

We will now address the model per sub-relation of the research model. First the relation between the psychological career contract and the HRD-pattern will be addressed (8.4.1.); this also includes some remarks about the manager-subordinate relation. Secondly, the relation between HRD-patterns and mobility perspective will be described (8.4.2.). Thirdly, the influence of the psychological career contract on the mobility perspective will be reported (8.4.3.). This section will end with a final conclusion about the role of the HRD-pattern in the research model.

8.4.1. The influence of the psychological career contract on the HRD-pattern

A conclusion that can be drawn from our study is that both the individual's and the organisation's attitude towards self-management of employees' career development matter, pertaining to the development of HRD-patterns (see section 6.3.). The level of commitment to and support for career self-management both have a unique main positive effect on the HRD-pattern of managers. Interestingly, the nature of HRD-patterns depends more on the responsibility individual managers take in order to further their career development than the support they get from their organisation.

These results suggest that it is especially the manager's own attitude towards career development that matters most, although the influence of support provided by their superiors must not be underestimated. In sum, managers who feel highly committed to self-manage their careers and who are mentally supported for this self-management attitude by their organisation are using a lot of HRD-activities not only valuable for their current jobs, but essentially for job security in the future. They keep their destiny in their own hands, taking ownership of their career development.

We compared two alternative approaches on the combined effect of commitment and support on HRD-pattern: the modernity approach and the balance approach. The results of regression analyses and analysis of variance reveals that the level of modernity matters more than the level of unbalance in explaining the richness of managers' HRD-patterns. This finding puts forward that it is the total of a manager's self-management attitude and the support received from the organisation, which positively affects the HRD-pattern. The level of discrepancy between these perspectives is not a factor of relevance in explaining the richness of managers' HRD-patterns.

The influence of the modernity of the contract on the HRD-pattern is more complex than it appears to be at first sight. We found an interaction effect of commitment and support on HRD-pattern for a specific part of the research sample. This puts a restriction on the application of the rule "the more support, the better".

The results point out that an abundance of support of highly committed managers has a counteracting result; that is, it leads to a poorer HRD-pattern. For optimally rich HRD-patterns to be achieved, highly committed managers can do with moderate support for career self-management. This finding has

extensively been discussed in chapter 6. There we reported on a parallel with the motivation literature (Lens, 1993; Deci & Ryan, 1985), which describes a parallel mechanism with regard to the fact that extrinsic rewards may undermine people's naturally existing intrinsic motivation. In our study, this may be compared to the fact that excessive support for career self-management may undermine the (naturally existing) commitment to career self-management. Hence, managers' HRD-patterns may be poorer than initially expected on the basis of their high career self-management commitment. An explanation for the fact that when managers are being pushed to self-manage their careers this will lead to poorer HRD-patterns, may be found in Deci's cognitive evaluation theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985). This theory suggests that the perception of self-determination gradually diminishes, which in the end will result in less self-directed career efforts and learning activities.

It was an expectation in this study that facilities for career development could moderate the relation between the psychological career contract and the HRD-pattern. The assumption here was that facilities are a pre-condition for learning to actually take place. Without facilities, e.g. money, time and an appropriate learning environment, managers are not able to use HRD-activities to the extent they would like. However, for this expectation no support was found in the data. The fact that the level of perceived facilities for career development is rather high may explain this result. It seems likely that in case a lack of facilities was perceived, this would have negatively influenced the HRD-pattern.

Manager – subordinate relation

With regard to the question about managers' psychological career contracts and HRD-patterns in relation to subordinate support and subordinates' HRD-pattern, we conclude that the extent to which managers support their subordinates' career self-management attitude relates positively to the richness of subordinates' HRD-patterns (see section 6.4.).

Managers consider themselves to be highly supportive towards the career self-management of their subordinates. Most interestingly, managers themselves perceive to get less support from their direct supervisors than they give themselves to their subordinates.

A conclusion we draw from our study is that the way a manager thinks about self-management of his own career is reflected in the way he stimulates subordinates' career development as well. The more the psychological career contract of managers is characterised by modern features, the more managers will provide support for their subordinates' career self-management. As such, managers fulfil a key role in the stimulation of subordinates' career development. The fulfilments of HRM-tasks that are part of the development-oriented HR-role seem especially relevant in this respect.

Furthermore, we found that commitment to career self-management is higher than the support they give to their subordinates. This indicates that managers hold themselves more responsible for and capable of self-managing their career than they expect from their subordinates. By and large, Miles' (1965) expectation that managers apply two different models of participation is supported. On the one hand they apply the human resources model with regard to the room they expect to get for self-management from their superiors. On the other hand, they apply the human relations model in relation to subordinates, giving them support for career self-management to a lesser extent than they expect to be given themselves.

We must stress at this point that the conclusions drawn here need to be approached with caution, especially since subordinates' HRD-patterns have been measured from the point of view of the manager. It is recommended for future studies aimed at studying the congruence between managers' and subordinates' learning behaviour to measure subordinates' HRD-activities in a more direct and objective way. Moreover, more attention can then be paid to subordinates' informal HRD-activities. Since this was a side objective in this study we used this restricted measure of subordinates' learning behaviour.

8.4.2. The influence of the HRD-pattern on the mobility perspective

From this study it appears that richness of managers' HRD-pattern contributes to a better mobility perspective (see section 7.2.). Essential in this respect is that it is in particular the generic value of HRD-activities that leads to more favourable mobility perspectives. More precisely, when they devote energy to HRD-activities that are broad in nature, managers' perception of ability to fulfil other jobs at both the same and higher hierarchical levels increases.

The positive effect that managers' HRD-patterns have on their perceived ability to fulfil other jobs indirectly leads to a higher pursuit of mobility. In sum, the perspective managers have on mobility is improved by generic HRD-activities in particular. This underlines our initial expectation that generic HRD-activities make the difference in a modern career context.

In addition to the former findings it appeared that planning of HRD-activities influences the vertical mobility scope. Frequency of HRD-activities does not seem to play a significant role in relation to mobility perspectives of managers.

These findings indicate that particularly managers who learn in a broad way and who plan their HRD-activities to a high extent perceive themselves to be employable in a broad range of jobs on hierarchically higher management levels. When this perception of vertical mobility scope is also accompanied by a pursuit of mobility, the chance of mobility has become rather large. In sum, generic and planned learning behaviour gives managers the best perspective on mobility. To conclude, it is not of decisive importance to what extent HRD-activities occur; it rather is the nature of the HRD-activities in terms of the value they have for future jobs and the extent to which they are planned, which is essential.

8.4.3. The influence of the psychological career contract on the mobility perspective

Commitment and support

A first conclusion is that the relation between commitment to career self-management and mobility perspective is weak. There is a positive influence of commitment on organisation-internal pursuit of mobility (see section 7.3.).

Secondly, we unexpectedly found support for career self-management to be negatively related to all aspects of the mobility perspective. It was our initial hypothesis that if managers were stimulated by their organisation to take control of their own career development, this would benefit their mobility perspective. However, the opposite seems to be the case.

An explanation that seems plausible for the fact that more support leads to a lower extent of mobility pursuit is the fact that support, in any form, generally leads to increased job satisfaction. Since particularly organisation-*external* pursuit is negatively affected by high levels of support, this explanation seems to be valid. The support managers receive from their direct supervisors raises their intention to stay with their current section. Why change a satisfactory situation for a new (and sometimes threatening) situation outside?

Even though the support we studied is especially focused on career self-management, and is not meant as "general supervisory support", it might be true that participants have interpreted support as "getting attention" from one's supervisor.

Interesting to report is that the negative effect of support on mobility perspective is stronger than the positive effect of commitment on mobility perspective. When mobility is desired, it is recommended to put effort in transforming the negative effect of support into a positive effect. This is, however, not a simple task. To stimulate organisation-internal mobility, it is necessary that an organisational culture exists in which it is normal for people to regularly change positions. This requires for instance trust and

good communication between departments, but also sound career paths and a good supply of information (DiPrete, 1987). Organisation-external mobility is more difficult to stimulate since it is (more or less covertly) asking people to leave. This is easier said than done. There is a danger that employees who are stimulated to find a job outside the boundaries of the organisation may develop feelings of betrayal, especially when the impression prevails that they have contributed much to the organisation. Such events may well affect the organisational climate in a negative way.

In sum, it seems a paradox for an organisation to encourage *excellent and highly qualified* people to self-manage their careers and to actually see the turnover rate of talented people rise, which may be counter-effective for the organisation. Such processes seem, however, to be part of the “new deal” in which mobility is viewed as a common reality. The disadvantage of one company that has to let go of a good employee means an advantage for another organisation that hires this new employee. As long as organisations find themselves in such advantageous and disadvantageous positions to an equal extent, then no real problem exists.

Modernity and balance

The general conclusion we can draw with regard to the relation between the psychological career contract as a whole and the mobility perspective is that a direct relation exists when the level of unbalance of the contract is considered. As expected, unbalance directly positively influences the pursuit of mobility. This relation is not mediated by the HRD-pattern (see section 7.3.).

The modernity of the psychological career contract influences the mobility perspective in two ways. First, the modernity positively influences the mobility scope. This relation is indirect and is mediated by the HRD-pattern. Secondly, in contrast with our initial expectation (of a positive relation), modernity of the psychological career contract directly negatively influences the pursuit of mobility, in particular the organisation-*external* pursuit of mobility. Apparently, when organisations provide a “modern career climate” in which managers can be both self-managing and in which support is being provided for this attitude, managers will be inclined to stay.

In sum, when the psychological career contract is approached from a modernity perspective there is a positive influence on the mobility perspective which goes via the use of HRD-activities. Moreover, the level of organisation-external support is negatively influenced by the modernity of the contract.

When the psychological career contract is approached from a balance perspective, it appears that the pursuit of (external) mobility is *directly* affected; more unbalance leads to a higher pursuit of (external) mobility.

The relations between the psychological career contract and the mobility perspective were also tested on the basis of the four types of psychological career contracts, which are the modern, traditional, push-related and pull-related types. In accordance with the findings of Shore and Barksdale (1998) and of Tsui *et al.* (1997) we found that managers with modern psychological career contracts have significantly lowest turnover intentions (see section 7.3.4.4.).

Finally, in addition to the analysis of the mental psychological career contract we examined the influence of unbalance of the psychological career contract in terms of facilities on mobility perspective. It appears that pursuit of mobility increases as a result of perceived unbalance on the level of facilities for career development, too. To conclude, both unbalance in mental terms and with regard to facilities motivate managers to pursue mobility.

On the basis of literature with regard to balancing expectations and contracts (Blau, 1964), we formulated an alternative hypothesis about the relation between unbalance of the psychological career contract and the mobility perspective. Instead of expecting a higher intention to leave one’s current position as a result of unbalance and according dissatisfaction, we hypothesised that the HRD-pattern

would fulfil an intermediary role between the unbalance of the psychological career contract and the mobility perspective. To explain, in order to regain balance, additional effort would be put into HRD-activities to improve one's competences and thus enhance the range of jobs one would be able to fulfil. This alternative hypothesis, however, was not supported by the data. HRD-pattern does *not* mediate the relation between the level of unbalance of the psychological career contract and mobility scope, which is mainly the result of a statistically non-significant relation between unbalance and HRD-pattern. To conclude, unbalance of the contract has a direct influence on pursuit of mobility only, which in turn influences the mobility scope.

8.4.4. The mediating role of the HRD-pattern

Having considered all sub-relations of the model separately, we will now draw general conclusions about the research model as a *whole*. These conclusions are based on regression analyses and path analyses (see section 7.4. and 7.5.).

First, a major outcome of the study is that managers' HRD-patterns fulfil a key role in a self-managed career. Generic value appears to be the most important HRD-dimension in this respect, compared to the other HRD-dimensions frequency and planning of HRD-activities.

The relation between individual commitment to career self-management and mobility scope is mediated by the HRD-pattern. In other words, modern career perceptions of individuals and organisations lead to higher investments in generic learning activities, which in turn contribute to a broader mobility scope. Based on the wish to utilise one's improved ability, the pursuit of mobility is raised as well. The mobility perspective as the combination of the ability and the willingness to become mobile thus becomes more favourable.

Of major importance in this respect is that the commitment perception of career self-management does not *directly* lead to a better mobility perspective. HRD-activities, especially HRD-activities with generic value, are indispensable in order for the mobility scope to broaden. Investment in broadly applicable knowledge and skills is necessary for employability to develop.

Secondly, we can draw the conclusion that the HRD-path and the flight path are not equally desirable. Following the HRD-path, it is the mobility scope that is improved as a result of a modern career contract in which especially the individual commitment perception of career self-management is of significance. An alternative path for the development of one's mobility perspective is via the "flight path". This path originates from a negative starting point in which career self-management commitment and support do not match. This unbalance of the psychological career contract appears to be a reason for managers to strive for mobility. This mobility intention is *directly* influenced by the unbalance of the contract and is based on a dissatisfactory situation. This second path obviously has a negative connotation and is therefore a less desirable way for the mobility perspective to develop.

To conclude, the HRD-path is to be preferred over the flight path. The HRD-path leads to better mobility perspectives on the basis of employees' ability to fulfil a broader range of jobs. Via the flight path, employees' mobility perspectives are increased as well. However, in this case because of the incongruence of expectations concerning career self-management, it concerns a direct increase of employees' intention to leave their current job¹. Since the motivation to look for another job is not based on a higher level of competence, this path does not seem desirable for either of the parties. The flight path does not give organisations the kind of flexibility they wish.

¹ From regression analysis it appeared that through the increase of the mobility the mobility scope may be broadened as well. However, this analysis was done in an explorative way. Moreover, the path-analysis does not seem to support this finding. Additional study is required to further study the direction of the relation between mobility scope and pursuit of mobility.

A third general conclusion we can draw from the study is that for different career development components the impact on HRD-patterns and mobility perspectives differ.

Self-management with regard to monitoring one's career opportunities is especially important for the richness of HRD-patterns. Both commitment to and support for this activity positively affect managers' HRD-patterns both in the narrower and the broader sense.

This career development component concerns a reflective approach to career planning. It involves activities such as reviewing one's current job position and determining whether it is a good place to stay some time longer or not. Apparently, it is not only the active observable actions by which one's career may progress; it is especially the time and effort managers are prepared to spend on career reflection, or monitoring, and who are supported to do so, which makes their learning more valuable for their future career.

Beside this monitoring activity, the study reveals that commitment to career networking and to shaping learning opportunities are also important in relation to HRD-dimensions. Planning of HRD-activities is primarily influenced by the commitment to career planning.

Only limited evidence was found for an influence on the mobility perspectives of managers on the level of the specific career development components. Managers who are inclined to constantly reflect on their career situation and who have the habit of transforming work situations into learning situations are likely to develop the broadest mobility scopes (both horizontally and vertically). Moreover, support for combining work and non-work and support for shaping learning opportunities seem to negatively influence the mobility perspective as a whole.

The career development component "combining work and non-work" seems to have a rather different character in comparison to all other career development components. First, it is both the most modern and the most unbalanced career development component. The modernity is the result of a high commitment score; in other words, managers feel highly responsible for integrating their "life at the office" and their "life at home". At the same time the support score is relatively lowest in comparison to all other career development activities. Secondly, it relates differently to the HRD-pattern and the mobility perspective than the other three domains. The relation of both modernity and unbalance with regard to this component has the weakest relation with the HRD-pattern.

It might be argued that even though this activity does not (directly) contribute to better career prospects, it is an activity of major importance since it concerns a necessary *condition* in order for the career to develop. Furthermore, for all other career development activities it is rather clear that they concern a shared responsibility between employer and employee. On the contrary, for an activity that is so closely linked to private matters, the division of responsibilities seems more complicated. Probably, people do not even regard it as a major responsibility for their superiors to be involved in supporting the self-management of combining work and non-work demands. This is supported by the fact that unbalance with regard to these components is least positively related to pursuit of mobility.

Additionally, it will largely depend on the style of a leader how this responsibility will be handled. It is likely that in hectic business environments, this activity will not be a number one priority and does not get the attention it deserves, especially when the span of control is large and managerial attention has to be divided over a large number of subordinates.

Fourthly, two background characteristics seem to play a role in the research model as a whole: age and educational level. We will address the relation of these background characteristics in relation to the research model below².

Age in relation to concepts in the research model

It appears that with age the HRD-pattern of managers grows poorer; this goes for both the narrower and the broader HRD-pattern. The implication of this finding is that the way in which older managers learn is less beneficial for the development of future career prospects than the learning behaviour of their younger colleagues. As a result of the rapidly ageing work force, nowadays it generally is an important element of organisational policies (mostly under the header of “elderly worker policies”) to retain older employees within the organisation and to invest in the employability of elderly employees to an increasing extent. Apparently, organisations do not (yet) succeed in achieving the same level of flexibility for younger and older employees. Actions organisations may undertake to overcome this gap will have to be especially focused on the encouragement of participation of older employees in HRD-activities, in particular in HRD-activities generating generic knowledge and skills.

It is not so much the level of planning of HRD-activities that has to be stimulated, or the level of initiative; these dimensions are not negatively related to age.

Beside the fact that the amount of HRD-activities decreases with age, the extent to which older managers engage in career planning activities declines with age, too. This finding can be explained by the fact that older managers have relatively less time at their disposal in which they are still active on the labour market. In comparison with junior managers, it might be less motivating for older managers to plan successive career steps and to plan their HRD-activities accordingly.

With regard to the relation between age and the psychological career contract, the level of commitment to career self-management seems to diminish with age. Apparently, older managers feel less responsible to take control of their own career than their younger colleagues. This is in particular true for the career planning component. The rationale for this probably is the fact that older managers in general have already taken multiple career steps. Their career has progressed and the time to take new career steps is shorter, which leads to a lower level of career planning commitment. The negative relation with age goes for the modernity of the contract as a whole, too.

The analyses of the relation between background characteristics and mobility perspective uncover that age is negatively related to pursuit of mobility. As expected, the desire to fulfil another job becomes less with age. A positive relation with mobility scope was not found.

Educational level in relation to concepts in the research model

Interestingly, the level of education of managers is not related to the frequency and the generic value of HRD-activities, but it does relate positively to planning of HRD-activities and to the frequency of career planning activities. Apparently, higher educated managers are more inclined to plan both HRD-activities and their career development as a whole. This points at a certain concentration on longer-term objectives for which planning is required. It seems, then, that career outcomes are less left to chance by higher educated managers.

Unexpectedly, the level of education does not seem to be a determining factor in relation to the nature of the psychological contract.

² From the path analysis the number of vertical mobility opportunities seemed to have a positive effect on pursuit of mobility; this was, however, not found in other analyses. We recommend this point to be included in further study.

Furthermore, it appears that the higher the level of education is, the higher the level of pursuit of mobility (particularly internal) is. Another finding is that people who expect their job to end within three years are already open to new jobs by indicating a higher level of pursuit of mobility.

Final considerations with regard to underlying assumptions of the model

At the end of this section, some final remarks must be made pertaining to some underlying assumptions of the model. First, it is implicitly assumed that it is desirable for all employees in this post-modern era to have a modern career, implying regular career moves and high levels of self-management. It is doubtful whether this goal is desirable and within reach of everyone. It depends on many factors, such as home situation, financial position, etc. whether it is a good choice to strive for a modern career or not. Furthermore, it is our opinion that such modern career notions are not applicable to society as a whole, but only to distinct groups. Especially younger, higher educated and single people without ties will be prepared to and will find themselves in the position to strive for a modern career. Finally, we would like to put the notion of modern careers into perspective by stressing that it is certainly not only a modern career in which psychological success and self-determination can be reached. Many people will use other ways to reach this goal in life, e.g. by doing volunteer work or by indulging in an artistic hobby. For people with the ambition to both have a modern career and who intend to engage in such other leisure activities, the competence of combining work and non-work demands is especially important.

Another assumption underlying the research model is that mobility perspective leads to actual job moves. At this point it must be stressed that it will depend on various other factors, beside the size of the mobility perspective, whether career mobility will actually take place, for example the availability of other jobs and the history of the relationship and the according level of trust between employer and employee (Rousseau, 1995).

Finally, in chapter 4 we argued that the chance of mobility actually taking place is based on the combination of the ability and the willingness to become mobile. It depends on which of both paths prevails whether a better mobility perspective is accomplished by a broader mobility scope or by an increased pursuit of mobility³. These paths, however, do not seem equally satisfactory and desirable. Assuming a preference of both individuals and organisations to follow the HRD-path rather than the flight path in their strive for mobility, we may draw two conclusions. First, the modernity of the psychological career contract matters. Secondly, learning, in particular generic learning, plays a significant role in a self-managed management career.

8.4.5. Methodological issues: Research model as a whole

At this point we will make some remarks about methodological issues relevant for the study of the research model as a whole. These remarks are primarily related to the use of self-report measures throughout the entire study, the matter of assumed directions of relationships in the model, and finally, the relatively low percentages of explained variance.

The study is based on self-report by managers, which concerns subjective measures. In various sections of this thesis we have already addressed the issue of self-report. The measurement of all critical variables by the same self-report method introduces some potential for common method bias (Robinson, Kraatz & Rousseau, 1994, p. 150). However, we would like to stress that criticism at the use of self-report does not apply to the measurement of all research concept to an equal extent.

³ Since scope and pursuit are mutually related, too, in the end both paths lead to an increase of mobility perspective.

For the measurement of frequency of HRD-activities, such a measure implies that each individual manager uses his or her own norms and interpretations of what is “to a low extent” and what is “to a high extent”; each manager thus constructs a relative scale for his or her own learning behaviour. The outcomes of the validity check⁴, however, gave us sufficient support for the use of the relative self-report measure. In our opinion, the relative frequency measure at least constitutes an indication for the relative time investment on different HRD-activities in the eyes of the user.

Vinkenburg (1997) states that self-report may lead to self-enhancement by managers. This could have been the case with respect to the breadth of managers’ mobility scopes. Since this concept concerns an ability component, social desirability may have played a role in this (managers generally view a broad employability as desired) (Hoeksema, 1995). The method of a written anonymous questionnaire, however, does not give reason to expect an influence of social desirability. To use a self-perception measure as an indication of mobility pursuit seems to be less problematic, since this concerns a motivational component, for which there are no alternative methods to gain insight into this concept.

The criticism generally levelled at the use of self-report does not seem to apply to the measurement of the psychological career contract, since perceptions constitute the core of the psychological career contract. As Rousseau (1995) states, it is the perception of reality, not reality *per se*, that matters. Evidently, studies on the psychological contract should therefore include measures of perceptions. Furthermore, it is the employee’s individual perception of reality that directs employee behaviour and, as we assume, this applies to learning behaviour and mobility behaviour as well, since the study of the psychological contract is per definition done on the level of perceptions, which makes the choice for a similar measure of HRD-activities and mobility perspective coherent and plausible.

Overall it can be concluded that although conclusions from research findings based on self-report must be drawn tentatively, especially in the absence of more direct observations (O’Driscoll, Humphries & Larsen, 1991), both advantages and disadvantages of such measures exist. Advantages are, for instance, that it provides information that from observation cannot be gained. And it reveals more insight into the “how” and “why” of certain behaviours, in contrast with e.g. observation (Vinkenburg, 1997, p. 149). Finally, self-report has been used more often to measure participation in different types of career-related learning and development activities (e.g. Maurer & Tarulli, 1994; Kwakman, 1999; Noe, 1996).

In the research model we propose several relationships between the central concepts, which have been formulated at different levels of human (mental) activity. The directions of these relations are all presented uni-directionally. The assumption is that the attitudes the psychological career contract comprises will influence managers’ career development *behaviour*, and in particular managers’ HRD-patterns. Both these perceptions constituting the psychological career contract and the behaviour constituting learning behaviour lead to a certain future orientation with regard to one’s mobility.

The assumptions underlying the research model have been derived from the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen & Madden, 1986), which state that behaviour can be predicted from people’s intentions. These assumptions have recently been challenged by authors who suggest that self-reported intentions are in fact post-hoc rationalisations of spontaneous behaviour (Crombag, 2001). According to us, this alternative approach of the relation between intentions and behaviours will particularly apply to fairly short-term and instinctive actions. For such impulsive actions it may be expected that behaviour will be justified after the action already took place. It is unlikely that mobility behaviour will be used as a justification for past mobility intentions. Since career mobility behaviour is spread across a fairly longer period of time, this behaviour is likely to be preceded by intentions and to be planned.

⁴ We compared a relative, absolute and rank order measure.

In sum, although we do not suggest the relations in our model between intentions, behaviour and future intentions to be altered, we recommend the issue of the direction of relations to be examined in further empirical studies. This, however, calls for alternative research methods; self-perception measures on one single moment in time are not sufficient, then. In the next section we will further address the recommendations for future research.

One final remark has to be made with regard to the relation between mobility scope and pursuit of mobility. In literature there was more reason to expect an influence of ability on willingness (e.g. Boom & Metselaar, 2001) than the other way around. In our study this relation was largely supported. However, the results from path analyses we carried out according to an explorative procedure suggest that it could well be the case that the pursuit of mobility influences the mobility scope as well.

The percentages of explained variance that we found in our study are in general not high. For significant relations the percentages of explained variance vary between 2% and 24%. Several reasons can be given to explain this. The main reason is that in this study we focused on a very detailed set of expectations. We did not study career expectations *in general*, but we focused on the expectation of career self-management perceptions *in specific*.

Furthermore, we refer to Rousseau and Tijoriwala (1998) who describe that the violation of broader expectations, as in our study, will result in less strong reactions than the violation of contract-based obligations (p. 681). In sum, because of the restriction to broader career self-management perceptions, expectations with regard to the amount of explained variance have not be set too high.

A limited number of background characteristics were included in this study. In literature, several other factors have been described that are supposed to relate to career mobility, for instance, home situation (Steenbakkers, 1996), geographical location, and health. To illustrate, a study by Lans-Snijders (2002) on factors influencing employees' internal mobility revealed that, beside taking responsibility for and consciously engaging in career development, it is positive to have a mentor and to have the ambition for a next job with managerial responsibilities.

In sum, considering the restricted domain of our study, it must be stressed as a major outcome that part of managers' mobility perspective is explained by the nature of the psychological career contract and the richness of their HRD-pattern.

8.5. Recommendations for future research

The present study has shed light on the complex relation between managers' career self-management perceptions, their HRD-patterns and mobility perspectives.

By giving insight into mutual career self-management perceptions we have contributed to an extension of the theory on the psychological contract. The conclusion that both the modernity approach and the balance approach towards the psychological career contract are valuable for the explanation of managers' mobility perspectives is an important outcome of the study. Especially the fact that these two approaches lead to different paths to mobility is an interesting result.

We contributed to this theory to the extent that we have provided evidence for the usefulness of the different approaches (a modernity approach and a balance approach) with regard to their relation with HRD-activities and mobility perspective. We thus provided insight into new aspects for which the psychological contract approach seems worthwhile.

It has become clear that the use of the psychological contract theory is a valuable approach to the explanation of managers' learning behaviour. Insight was gained into the motives a person may have to actually invest in HRD-activities. These underlying perceptions enhance our understanding of the nature of management learning.

Taken together, in our opinion the results of our study have contributed to several areas of future research on the psychological contract as described by Anderson and Schalk (1998, p. 644), being conceptualisation, measurement and assessment of the added value of the construct.

Even though the study has provided fruitful insights, several challenges remain for future study. Below we present several recommendations for further research.

Generalisation of the results

The results of the present study cannot be simply generalised to other contexts. To illustrate, managers participating in this research are highly educated and full-time employed in knowledge-intensive organisations in which continuous learning is necessary to keep up with the competition. We assume those business environments to represent modern career environments and new psychological career contracts to prevail. These choices put constraints on the generalisability of the results of this study. The question remains how the outcomes of the study would be if lower educated employees, in non-managerial positions, with part-time contracts and employed in smaller companies or companies in the middle of reorganisation processes and in other (less knowledge-intensive) sectors were included. It is recommended to conduct further study including these alternative contexts. Supposedly, both the nature of the psychological career contract and the effects on learning activities and mobility perspectives will be quite different.

Above, we have extensively discussed our choice for the use of self-perception measures. Beside the advantages that this approach offers, reasons were also given for studying the research model with alternative measures. A point that has to be addressed here is our choice for a quantitative approach, which has put constraints on the depth of our study. To overcome the shortcomings of both self-perception measures and the quantitative method, we propose to use additional qualitative methods and to take into account perspectives of multiple parties to the labour relationship.

Use of additional qualitative data

Many of the issues involved in this study are complex, such as the perceptions of managers with regard to self-management of their careers. Qualitative research (e.g. by conducting open interviews) could offer a richness and depth of understanding, which cannot be achieved with a quantitative approach.

Qualitative research focuses on people's experiences and the meaning they place on the events, processes and structures of their normal social setting. Such research may provide a holistic view, through the participants' own words and perceptions of how they understand, account for and act within these situations (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Qualitative data are useful to supplement and reinterpret quantitative data gathered in the same setting. A qualitative study may especially contribute to a better understanding of the contents of the different career development components. After such a step in the study, managers' career self-management perceptions could be described more precisely. Furthermore, it could serve as a check for the five career development components that we found on the basis of factor analysis.

Moreover, the present study is carried out on the group as a whole; differences between organisations and influences of these various contexts were not taken into account. However, on the basis of variation in, among other things, HRD-policies and size and organisational culture across companies, differences may be expected with regard to views on career self-management development, nature of employees' learning activities and career mobility. Research on the relationship between organisational characteristics and the central concepts of our research model is recommended. (Qualitative) Case studies can contribute to the achievement of this objective.

Involving multiple perspectives in psychological contract research

Managers' beliefs with regard to career self-management expectations were measured independent of their employers' point of view. The mutuality of the contract was thus approached by involving only one party to the contract. This focus is consistent with the psychological contract and social exchange literature in which this research is embedded (Rousseau, 1989 in Robinson, Kraatz & Rousseau, 1994, p. 150). This is not to say, however, that this research domain would not benefit from an examination of employers' perceptions of employment obligations.

The results of the study by Robinson and Rousseau (1994) point to a compelling need to involve more than one party to the contract in studies on the psychological (career) contract. This recommendation was derived from the finding that some individuals report that the contract had been violated although the organisation had lived up to their obligations. The opposite occurred as well: the individual reported no violation of the contract, although the organisation did not fulfil their obligations. To conclude, it would be a promising line of research to inquire into the perceptions of all parties involved in the labour relation. A comparison can thus be made between the relation of the psychological contract, as measured from one perspective only and from multiple perspectives simultaneously, with other concepts such as the ones included in our research model.

Research into ways to encourage (generic) learning by older employees

Related to the negative relation found between age and HRD-dimensions, it is a significant question how to stimulate elderly employees' participation in (generic) learning activities. From a recent study by Thijssen and Van der Heijden (2002) who studied whether organisation-related factors influence the training participation of older employees, it was concluded that it is especially managerial impact, as opposed to contextual pressure (Hendry & Pettigrew, 1990), that correlates with the training participation of older employees. Raising the training budget appeared to be beneficial for the group of older employees. This is in contrast to the pessimistic view that older employees are always 'forgotten' (Thijssen & Van der Heijden, 2002). Clearly, this conclusion is restricted to the participation in *formal* HRD-activities by older employees. The question remains by which managerial conditions older employees can be encouraged to more frequently engage in *informal* HRD-activities. Further study into this topic is needed.

Additional variables

Another proposal we would like to put forward for future research steps is to include additional variables in the study. For instance, Noe (1996, p. 122) hypothesised a negative relation between distance from career goals and willingness to participate in development activities and frequency of developmental behaviour. Although this hypothesis was not supported by his study, it seems recommendable to include "distance from career goal" in the research model and to test how this relates to career self-management perceptions and to HRD-activities. The questions, then, are whether managers with a greater distance to their career goal are more committed to self-managing their careers than managers with only a small distance to their career goal, and whether they put more effort in (generic) HRD-activities?

Other factors that could be included in further studies because they might be important to explain variance in managers' HRD-patterns and mobility perspectives are the learning value of the function (Van der Heijden, 1998), career ambitions, home situation, health, availability of a mentor. Furthermore, we recommend including factual data about organisation-internal job vacancies, instead of, as we did, merely including the number of mobility opportunities as the *formally* existing management positions at higher and at the same level within the organisation. We did not collect information about the actual availability of these positions.

Moreover, with regard to the manager - subordinate relationship, we have argued that a positive relation might be the result of the support managers supply to their subordinates. Of course, there are many other factors that influence the manager-subordinate relationship, such as functional and physical proximity and the level to which the manager likes the subordinate (Lindholm, 1990). These factors and the tenure of the relationship could contribute to further the understanding of the relation between managers' and subordinates' psychological career contracts and HRD-patterns.

Longitudinal

A point that has to be stressed here is that the pursuit of mobility has been measured not as "concrete" career mobility plans, but as a drive to find another job that is unspecified. In other words, our study does not measure actual mobility. We focus on the chance that mobility will take place, which is assumed to be a function of the underlying ability and willingness. A longitudinal approach is recommended to study whether the nature of the psychological career contract, the richness of the HRD-pattern and the favourableness of the mobility perspective influence the extent to which managers *actually* make career moves. A longitudinal approach would benefit the academic field, since "there have been few longitudinal analyses of promotions and demotions within occupations or organizational hierarchies" (Rosenbaum, 1984, p. 38). Moreover, we believe that it is a valuable outcome of the study how managers themselves view their chances of mobility. On the basis of their own beliefs, managers will undertake new actions. Psychological success is based on people's own perceptions of chances of career mobility rather than of mobility in fact. Finally, it is not only the mobility that can be studied with a longitudinal approach; when the interest lies in the assessment of the dynamic nature of the psychological career contract, a longitudinal approach may be beneficial. An example of a longitudinal study on the psychological contract is the one by Robinson, Kraatz and Rousseau (1994).

Even though the support we studied is especially focused on career self-management, it seems that this support is viewed as "getting attention" from one's supervisor. This will almost always lead to better relations at work and to a higher satisfaction. To conclude, attention for employees in the form of support for career self-management does not encourage mobility, or at least the chance of mobility does not seem to be enlarged by it. In order to find out whether this negative effect of support on mobility perspective occurs because of the good relation with one's direct boss it is recommended for future study to examine whether support for career self-management *by persons outside the current department and organisation* does lead to a higher pursuit of mobility. It remains to be seen whether such external consultants can motivate people to develop a higher willingness to become mobile by supporting their career self-management. This issue deserves further empirical study.

8.6. Implications for the HRD-field

The aim of this final section is to identify practical implications for the HRD-field. The findings of this study have generated knowledge to be used in the day-to-day reality of organisations. HRD-practitioners and policy makers may benefit from the gained knowledge about the link between employees' perceptions with regard to career self-management, their learning behaviour and career mobility.

Steenbakkers (1996) concludes that in general the measures and activities that organisations have at their disposal to encourage professional flexibility are still hardly used (p. 130). Below we will describe several important implications and recommendations for practitioners in the field of HRD resulting from our study.

Encouragement of generic (and planned) learning

Efforts put into generic HRD-activities enlarge the range of jobs managers perceive to be able to fulfil. Via this HRD-path the mobility perspective is increased. The HRD-path represents a positive trajectory based on modern career notions. This will most likely lead to a flexible and motivated work force that intends to use increased flexibility to the benefit of their current organisation or department and for their own (psychological) success.

From the study it appeared that especially the generic HRD-activities lead to better mobility perspectives; planning and frequency of HRD-activities seem to be less relevant in this respect. The implication for organisations is thus not only to create conditions in which learning is stimulated, it is especially the encouragement of generic HRD-activities that needs attention, for example by organising learning circles, creating moments for explicit reflection and by offering opportunities for social interaction. The introduction of coaching and mentoring systems may also be of help in this respect (Davies & Easterby-Smith, 1984).

A complication that comes into play when the encouragement of generic HRD-activities is concerned, is the generally prevailing short-term focus of managers (Thijssen, 1990). The question has often been asked why organisations should provide individuals with transferable skills, which will enhance their marketability to others (Walton, 1999, p. 68). In other words, managers do not benefit by preparing their employees for other jobs in another company or with another department manager (Leenders & Van Esch, 1995). The implication is that managers have to be made aware of the drawbacks of this instrumental management attitude (Van Assen, 1990 in Steenbakkers, 1996). A shift in attitude of course is not easy and requires a culture change as well.

Equip the work place as a learning environment

Since managers largely depend on the work place for their development as a manager and for their career to develop, it is to be recommended that organisations furnish work places in a rich way. The theory on the learning potential of the work place provides valuable starting points for creating such a rich learning environment (see section 2.2.5.). It is recommended that the work offers opportunities for personal development, task alternation, contacts with colleagues, favourable work circumstances and labour conditions.

Special attention for the older employee

With regard to the negative relation found between age and both the generic value and frequency of HRD-activities, it seems necessary to incite older employees to keep investing in broadly applicable knowledge and skills. It is a threat to the flexibility of organisations to be confronted with experience concentration of the work force (Thijssen, 1992c). Especially in this time of a quickly ageing work force, it is of the utmost importance to ensure that people remain valuable human resources, at later stages in their careers as well. In order to keep up with the competition, individual employees, including older ones, have to be able to change jobs whenever necessary. Of course, this has consequences for the desired HRD-activities by employees. They need to constantly enlarge their employability to an equal extent as their younger colleagues, which cannot be accomplished by merely engaging in coincidentally occurring learning opportunities on the job. It requires more planned efforts to invest in transferable skills and knowledge. These new requirements need attention from HRD-specialists within organisations. They bear the responsibility for encouraging employees of all ages to broaden their employability. This responsibility comprises for instance the supply of certain information (e.g. course information, etc.) and the development of employability skills. In this respect the assistance of a mental coach or a personal mentor among others could be of help. As we have already described, it is an issue for future study to find out which factors stimulate the participation in HRD-activities of older employees.

Stimulate modern (mobility) attitude

From the comparison of the modernity and the balance approach it was concluded that when organisations strive for a flexible work force based on broad competences and, as a consequence, organisational flexibility, it is to be recommended they take care of modern psychological career contracts.

The implication is that both individual managers and their superiors have to be encouraged to take a modern career attitude. More precisely, employees at all levels of the organisation have to become familiar with the ideas of modern career self-management. What's more, they have to be prepared to actually take control of their own career. Organisations must explicitly pay attention to this matter and may provide e.g. workshops on career planning and on how to establish a good network for the furtherance of one's career. A special role is reserved for the superiors in this case. They have to engage in career coaching efforts directed at helping their employees to identify career opportunities and to actually prepare them for these careers. However, superiors in their turn have to be prepared or coached in order to fulfil their side of the new deal. Especially the "new" career development activities must be given attention. To support employees to find a balance between their working life and their private life, for example, certain social and emotional competences are needed.

It is recommended for organisations to especially stimulate self-management for the reflective activity monitoring career opportunities, since self-management towards this component leads to rich HRD-patterns.

Furthermore, our study suggests that it is wise for an organisation not to count on the stimulation of employees' career self-management by direct superiors only, since this might lead to a rigid attitude towards mobility. It is recommended that external consultants, mentors, or people from other departments are involved in coaching employees for career self-management and thus to work on a modern mobility attitude.

Adjustment and clarification of mutual expectations

We found that an abundance of support for highly committed managers can be counter-effective for the richness of managers' HRD-patterns. It is evident that this result has some practical implications for the field of HRD. The level of support for career self-management has to be carefully adjusted to the person concerned. The level to which managers (and all employees) have an internal self-management attitude towards career development has to be taken as the starting point for support policies and decisions. A first task is to gain insight into employees' self-management attitudes, for instance by discussing this subject explicitly during annual performance reviews or evaluation moments. When a person's self-management attitude appears to be rather low, a high level of support may have the desired effect on career outcomes. When the initial level of self-management is rather high, abundant support may have the opposite effect. In such instances, it is better to count on a manager's self-management capacity than to even more stimulate a person to take career initiatives.

Furthermore, it seems necessary to pay extra attention to managers holding a pull-related contract. They are highly committed to self-manage their career, and at the same time they perceive the highest level of unbalance as a result of low organisational support. In case an organisation wants to bind this group of highly committed managers to the organisation, they need to put effort in keeping them inside the organisation by regaining balance with regard to these contracts.

The study has shown two alternative paths employees can follow to become mobile. Moreover, we concluded that the HRD-path and the flight path are not equally desirable. For the development of organisational policies and practices, it is very important to know why people have a need for mobility, and, how this mobility need has developed over time. It makes a big difference whether people leave

the organisation because of dissatisfaction with the current organisation, for example as a result of unmet expectations with regard to self-management, or because of their high level of ambition or over-qualification, in combination with a high extent of pull-related factors in the labour market with scarcely available talented labour supply.

In the first case the intervention must be sought in actions directed at adjusting career-related expectations, obligations and desires, in such a way that a higher level of balance between the mutual perspectives is achieved. The clarification and adjustments of mutual expectations may be one of the objectives of formal evaluation moments. Furthermore, during exit conversations, organisations may find out what an employee's motivation is to become mobile. Both the mutuality of mental expectations and expectations with regard to facilities for career development can then be subject to discussion. The value of this study partly resides in the development of the instrument of the psychological career contract. Organisations can use this instrument as a starting point for the clarification of mutual expectations.

In the second case that people leave the organisation based on high ambitions or overqualification for one's current job, organisations may intervene by formulating and executing HRD-policies, for instance, by securing the variety in employees' work or by establishing new challenging positions. Especially since being overqualified for a job may also be a source of unhappiness for workers (Isaacson & Brown, 1997, p. 333).

There are some other activities that organisations can undertake to manage employee perceptions (Paul *et al.*, 2000, p. 479). An example to prevent unbalanced contracts to exist, is by managing the contract formation process by presenting new employees with an accurate preview of the job and of the employer. Explicitly discussing mutual expectations with regard to career self-management is surely crucial. Attention should be paid to mutual wishes, obligations and facilities with regard to career development as soon as the moment of personnel selection; later misunderstandings can thus be prevented. A job start based on sound and realistic mutual expectations is likely to grow into a successful and satisfying labour relationship. A key role in maintaining balance between the needs of the organisation and of the individual can be played by a development adviser (Delf & Smith, 1978, p. 500).

Other personnel instruments to be used for the purpose of establishing and maintaining sound mutual expectations are, for example, self-assessment instruments, workshops on career planning, counselling, conducting periodic employee opinion surveys, establishing focus or discussion groups, and responding to dissatisfaction. These activities seem necessary in order to prevent a situation in which employers may not be able to satisfy its employees (Robinson *et al.*, 1994). This undesirable situation can evolve because it is human cognitive tendency when self-evaluation is used, that individuals overestimate their contributions and underestimate other's contributions. In other words, an employee tends to believe that he/she has fulfilled his/her side of the bargain to a greater degree than the employer (Paul *et al.*, 2000, p. 478). It of course partly depends on the situation on the labour market whether employers are willing to fulfil employees' expectations.

It would however be too optimistic to think that there is always a solution in the sense of an opportunity to change and/or to keep the deal. When one or both parties are unwilling and/or unable to make adjustments to their expectations, it is very well possible that employees will become mobile towards another unit or another organisation. This can then be a voluntary choice of the individual or a forced choice by the organisation when the employee is fired. Of course, it is highly recommendable for organisations that meet unbalanced contracts, to exert efforts on finding a balance between their own perspective and their employees' perspective.

To conclude, career mobility is part of modern careers of today. The motivation underlying career mobility behaviour is of crucial importance. Organisations that see talented employees leave the organisation based on dissatisfaction find themselves in an uncomfortable situation. The reputation of organisations can thus be damaged, which will result in a low attraction to new employees. As such, the discrepancy between mutual expectations may negatively impact an organisation's results and market position.

When organisations stimulate employees to take control of their careers and to continuously develop themselves, it is likely that employees will choose the path to mobility via using all kinds of (generic) HRD-activities and other career development activities. The consequence of such modern HRD-policies is that employees will not only be attractive to the current organisation, but also for competitors at the labour market. This must not be regarded problematic; instead it is part of new careers. Particularly in times of shortage on the labour market, it is crucial for organisations to be as attractive as possible. Developmental opportunities may serve as an appealing employment condition, which will attract highly qualified people at the external labour market. In this way an organisation will be able to constantly renew itself and to become a learning organisation.

In sum, the strategic choice of employers to support employees' career development, together with the recognition of the value of (management) learning, will in the end benefit both the organisation and the broader labour market.

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Appendixes

The appendixes are numbered according to the chapters. For example appendix 6.1. refers to the first appendix belonging to chapter 6. There are no appendixes for the 1st, 4th and 8th chapter.

Chapter 2

- 2.1. Taxonomies of the management job
- 2.1.a. Yukl's managerial practices
- 2.1.b. Quinn's managerial roles and key competencies (or core skills)
- 2.1.c. Boyatzis' managerial competencies
- 2.1.d. Luthans' managerial activities
- 2.2. Hand-out HRD-activities in Dutch

Chapter 3

- 3.1. Factor analysis exploratory study
- 3.2. Questionnaire post-inquiry study
- 3.3. Correlations between management tasks and use of HRD-activities

Chapter 5

- 5.1. Planning of HRD-activities
- 5.2. Dutch items: psychological career contract
- 5.3. Dutch items: facilities for career development
- 5.4. Dutch items: mobility perspective
- 5.5. Background characteristics pilot-study
- 5.6. Correlations between HRD-dimensions (pilot-study)
- 5.7. Reliability (sub-) scales psychological career contract (pilot-study)
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- 5.9. Correlations between HRD-dimensions (main study)
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Chapter 6

- 6.1. Facilities for career development
- 6.2. Correlations between background characteristics and the psychological career contract
- 6.3. HRD-dimensions and CSM-commitment
- 6.4. HRD-dimensions and CSM-support
- 6.5. Commitment, support and its interaction in relation to HRD-dimensions
- 6.6. HRD-dimensions and modernity of the psychological career contract
- 6.7. HRD-dimensions and unbalance of the psychological career contract
- 6.8. Analysis of variance of HRD-dimensions by types of psychological career contracts
- 6.9. HR-tasks

Chapter 7

- 7.1. Correlations between HRD-pattern and mobility perspective.
- 7.2. Regression analysis on relation between HRD-pattern and mobility perspective.
- 7.3. Regression analysis with HRD-pattern and mobility scope as predictor variables and pursuit of mobility as the dependent variable.
- 7.4. Regression analysis of mobility perspective on commitment-components.
- 7.5. Regression analysis of mobility perspective on support-components.
- 7.6. Regression analysis of mobility perspective on modernity of the contract and HRD-pattern
- 7.7. Regression analysis of mobility perspective on modernity of career development components.
- 7.8. Relation between unbalance and pursuit of mobility: a direct one?
- 7.9. Relation between unbalance and vertical mobility scope
- 7.10. Regression analysis of mobility perspective on unbalance of career development components.
- 7.11. Mediator role HRD-pattern of relation between unbalance and mobility scope?
- 7.12. Mediator-role broader HRD-pattern of relation between commitment / support and mobility scope.

Appendixes chapter 2

2.1. Taxonomies of the management job

2.1.a. Yukl's managerial practices

(Yukl et al, 1990; Yukl, 1994).

Managerial practices			
1. Informing	5. Clarifying roles and objectives	9. Supporting and mentoring	
2. Consulting and delegating	6. Monitoring operations and environment	10. Managing conflict and team building	
3. Planning and organizing	7. Motivating	11. Networking	
4. Problem solving	8. Recognizing and rewarding		

2.1.b. Quinn's managerial roles and key competencies (or core skills)

(Quinn, Faerman, Thompson & McGrath, 1990, p.21)

<i>Managerial roles</i>	<i>Managerial key competencies</i>	<i>Managerial roles</i>	<i>Managerial key competencies</i>
1. Innovator	1. living with change 2. creative thinking 3. managing change	5. Coordinator	13. planning 14. organizing and designing 15. controlling
2. Broker	4. building and maintaining a power base 5. negotiating agreement and commitment 6. presenting ideas	6. Monitor	16. reducing information overload 17. analysing information with critical thinking 18. presenting information, writing effectively
3. Producer	7. personal productivity and motivation 8. motivating others 9. time and stress management	7. Facilitator	19. team building 20. participative decision making 21. conflict management
4. Director	10. taking initiative 11. goal setting 12. delegating effectively	8. Mentor	22. understanding yourself and others 23. interpersonal communication 24. developing subordinates

2.1.c. Boyatzis' managerial competencies

(Boyatzis, 1982 ; 1992)

Clusters of functions	Competencies	Clusters of functions	Competencies
I. Goals and action management cluster	1. Efficiency orientation 2. Pro-activity 3. Diagnostic use of concepts 4. Concern with impact	IV. Directing subordinates cluster	10. Developing others Threshold competencies: spontaneity and use of unilateral power
II. Leadership cluster	5. Self-confidence 6. Use of oral presentations 7. Conceptualisation Threshold competency: logical thought	V. Focus on others cluster	11. Perceptual objectivity 12. Self-control 13. Stamina and adaptability
III. Human Resources Management cluster	8. Use of socialized power 9. Managing group process Threshold competencies: accurate self-assessment and positive regard	Specialized knowledge	An integral part of the model and a threshold competency

2.1.d. Luthans' managerial activities

(Luthans & Lockwood, 1984; Luthans, Rosenkrantz & Hennessey, 1985; Luthans, 1988)

12 managerial activities (4 clusters)	Behavioural descriptors
	<i>I. Communication</i>
1. Exchanging routine information	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Answering routine procedural questions b. Receiving and disseminating requested information c. Conveying the results of meetings d. Giving or receiving routine information over the phone e. Attending staff meetings of an informational nature (e.g. status updates, new company policies)
2. Processing paper work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Processing mail b. Reading reports, emptying the in box c. Writing reports, memos, letters, etc. d. Routine financial reporting and bookkeeping e. General desk work
	<i>II. Traditional management</i>
3. Planning / coordinating	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Setting goals and objectives b. Defining tasks needed to accomplish goals c. Scheduling employees, timetables d. Assigning tasks and providing routine instructions e. Coordinating activities of different substitutes to keep work running smoothly f. Organizing the work
4. Decision making / problem solving	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Defining problems b. Choosing between two or more alternatives or strategies c. Handling day-to-day operational crises as they arise d. Weighing trade offs, making cost/benefit analyses e. Deciding what to do f. Developing new procedures to increase efficiency
5. Monitoring / controlling performance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Inspecting work b. Walking around and checking things out, touring c. Monitoring performance data (e.g. computer printouts, production, financial reports) d. Preventive maintenance
	<i>III. Networking</i>
6. Interacting with outsiders	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Public relations b. Contacting customers c. Contact with suppliers, vendors d. External meetings e. Community service activities
7. Socializing / politicking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Nonwork-related chit chat (e.g. family or personal matters) b. Informal "joking around", "B.S" c. Discussing rumours, hearsay, grapevine d. Complaining, griping, putting others down e. Politicking, gamesmanship

Continued at next page

Continued from former page (appendix 2.1.d.)

IV. Human Resource Management

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| 8. Motivating /reinforcing | <ul style="list-style-type: none">a. Allocating formal organizational rewardsb. Asking for input, participationc. Conveying appreciation, complimentsd. Giving credit when duee. Listening to suggestionsf. Giving feedback on positive performanceg. Increasing job challengesh. Delegating responsibility and authorityi. Letting subordinates determine how to do their own workj. Sticking up for the group to superiors and others, backing a subordinate |
| 9. Disciplining / punishing | <ul style="list-style-type: none">a. Enforcing rules and policiesb. Nonverbal glaring, harassmentc. Demotions, firing, layoffd. Any formal organizational reprimand or noticee. "Chewing out" a subordinate, criticizing a subordinatef. Giving feedback on negative performance |
| 10. Managing conflict | <ul style="list-style-type: none">a. Managing interpersonal conflicts between subordinates or othersb. Appealing to higher authority to resolve a disputec. Appealing to third-party negotiatorsd. Trying to get cooperation or consensus between conflicting partiese. Attempting to resolve conflicts between a subordinate and oneself |
| 11 Staffing | <ul style="list-style-type: none">a. Developing job descriptions for position openingsb. Reviewing applicationsc. Interviewing applicantsd. Hiringe. Contacting applicants to inform them as to whether or not they have been hiredf. "Filling in" when needed |
| 12. Training / developing | <ul style="list-style-type: none">a. Orienting employees, arranging for training seminars, and the likeb. Clarifying roles, duties, job descriptionsc. Coaching, acting as a mentor, "walking" subordinates through tasksd. Helping subordinates with personal development plans |
-

2.2. Hand-out HRD-activiteiten in Dutch

In Dutch

I. Trainingen, workshops, cursussen

Trainingen etc. op een andere locatie (dus buiten de deur); trainingen etc. binnen uw organisatie (dus binnen de deur); opleidingen; workshops; etc.

II. Informatie opzoeken

Boeken raadplegen; internet raadplegen; job-aids raadplegen; (computer)instructies raadplegen; etc.

III. Advies vragen (leren met/van anderen)

Hulp en advies vragen aan collega's/chef (leidinggevende); werkervaringen uitwisselen met collega's; kijken hoe collega's/chef het werk doen; het nadoen van anderen; werkzaamheden doorspreken met begeleider / coach; uitleg/instructie krijgen van chef/deskundige op het werk; moeilijke opdrachten doen onder begeleiding; etc.

IV. Leren door te doen / al doende leren¹

Oefenen, uitproberen van nieuwe procedures of machines, het zelfstandig problemen oplossen op het werk, beter worden (competenter) door ervaring, etc.

Anders, namelijk ...

Excursies; beurzen; instructie bij de leverancier; kijken bij de concurrent; het werk bediscussiëren met vrienden, kennissen; etc

¹ Zie appendix 3.2. voor een verfijning van deze categorie.

Appendixes chapter 3

3.1. Factor analysis exploratory study

This factor analysis was done on the items concerning extent of use of HRD-activities per cluster of management-task. The Table presents the four-factor solution (4 factors extracted) explaining 60.9% of the variance.

Four-factor solution of frequency of type of HRD-activity spent on management-tasks.*

	1	2	3	4
Formal communication	.76	-.10	.09	.17
Formal traditional management	.72	.04	-.10	.33
Formal networking	.55	.00	-.09	.39
Formal HRMa	.88	-.08	.10	.15
Formal HRMb	.81	.00	.19	.15
Formal HRMc	.84	.07	.16	.05
Formal HRMd	.75	.13	.12	.25
Formal HRMe	.65	.24	.20	.13
Seeking information communication	.31	.10	-.11	.65
Seeking information traditional management	.31	.13	.17	.68
Seeking information networking	.37	.13	-.08	.70
Seeking information HRMa	.29	-.02	.24	.73
Seeking information HRMb	.16	-.05	.35	.71
Seeking information HRMc	.22	.05	.51	.56
Seeking information HRMd	.26	.13	.39	.43
Seeking information HRMe	.08	.14	.46	.50
Asking advice communication	.28	.20	.52	-.01
Asking advice traditional management	-.08	.30	.67	.15
Asking advice networking	-.09	.23	.29	.45
Asking advice HRMa	.06	.09	.75	.21
Asking advice HRMb	-.06	.11	.74	.32
Asking advice HRMc	.14	.26	.79	.21
Asking advice HRMd	.17	.13	.66	-.04
Asking advice HRMe	.09	.02	.84	-.00
Learning-by-doing communication	.12	.76	.23	-.01
Learning-by-doing traditional management	-.06	.82	.13	.05
Learning-by-doing networking	.05	.55	-.13	.23
Learning-by-doing HRMa	.07	.77	.15	.11
Learning-by-doing HRMb	-.04	.81	.12	.24
Learning-by-doing HRMc	-.11	.83	.19	.17
Learning-by-doing HRMd	.37	.68	.18	-.19
Learning-by-doing HRMe	.07	.72	.26	-.10

* The tasks HRMa till HRMe represent the five HRM-tasks as presented in appendix 2.1.d.

3.2. Questionnaire post-inquiry study

(in English and Dutch)

<i>English</i>	<i>Dutch</i>
<p>A. Learning-by-doing (Five-point Likert-scale: -- fully disagree to ++ =fully agree)</p> <p>With learning-by-doing I especially mean ...</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. ... <i>coincidentally learning by trial and error</i> (By being confronted with problems at work, coincidentally coming to better insights and/or solutions) 2. ... <i>gradually increasing routine</i> (Gradually mastering one's job by performing tasks and/or using methods of working) 3. ... <i>gradually increasing level of difficulty</i> (Learning to perform similar tasks or working methods with increased level of difficulty) 4. ... <i>consciously experimenting</i> (Trying out new tasks and/or working methods in order to master them) 	<p>A. Leren door te doen (Vijfpunt Likert-schaal: -- geheel mee oneens ++ geheel mee eens)</p> <p>Bij leren door te doen denk ik vooral aan ...</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. ... <i>toevallig leren door vallen en opstaan</i> (Door het onverwacht geconfronteerd worden met problemen in het werk, toevallig tot betere inzichten en/of oplossingen komen) 2. ... <i>geleidelijk toenemen van de routine</i> (Al doende bepaalde taken en/of werkwijzen steeds beter leren beheersen) 3. ... <i>geleidelijk toenemen van de moeilijkheidsgraad</i> (Een reeks soortgelijke taken en/of werkwijzen leren uitvoeren in volgorde van toenemende moeilijkheidsgraad) 4. ... <i>bewust experimenteren</i> (Geheel nieuwe taken en/of werkwijzen uitproberen om die te leren beheersen)
<p>B. Initiative and responsibility (Five-point Likert-scale: -- fully disagree to ++ =fully agree)</p> <p>1. Do you believe that your subordinates themselves should</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. take all <i>initiative</i> for their own (extra) <i>training</i>? b. take all <i>initiative</i> for their own <i>career development</i>? c. take full <i>responsibility</i> for their own (extra) <i>training</i>? d. take full <i>responsibility</i> for their own <i>career development</i>? <p>2. Do you believe that you, yourself, should</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. take all <i>initiative</i> for your own (extra) <i>training</i>? b. take all <i>initiative</i> for your own <i>career development</i>? c. take full <i>responsibility</i> for your own (extra) <i>training</i>? d. take full <i>responsibility</i> for your own <i>career development</i>? 	<p>B. Initiatief en verantwoordelijkheid (Vijfpunt Likert-schaal: -- geheel mee oneens ++ geheel mee eens)</p> <p>1. Vindt u dat uw medewerkers zelf</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. alle <i>initiatief</i> voor hun eigen <i>bijscholing</i> moeten nemen? b. alle <i>initiatief</i> voor hun eigen <i>loopbaanontwikkeling</i> moeten nemen? c. alle <i>verantwoordelijkheid</i> voor hun eigen <i>bijscholing</i> moeten dragen? d. alle <i>verantwoordelijkheid</i> voor hun eigen <i>loopbaanontwikkeling</i> moeten dragen? <p>2. Vindt u dat uzelf</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. alle <i>initiatief</i> voor uw eigen <i>bijscholing</i> moet nemen? b. alle <i>initiatief</i> voor uw eigen <i>loopbaanontwikkeling</i> moet nemen? c. alle <i>verantwoordelijkheid</i> voor uw eigen <i>bijscholing</i> moet dragen? d. alle <i>verantwoordelijkheid</i> voor uw eigen <i>loopbaanontwikkeling</i> moet dragen?

3.3. Correlations between management tasks and HRD-activities

3.3.a. Frequency of management tasks

Correlations between frequency of HRD-activities (independent of type) and frequency of management tasks.

	Frequency of management tasks per cluster				
	1 Communication	2 Trad. Man.	3 Networking	4 HRM	Total
<i>HRD-activities directed at cluster</i>					
1 Communication	.06	.40**	.32**	.51**	.54**
2 Trad. Management	.13	.51**	.16	.53**	.57**
3 Networking	.04	.12	.25*	.27*	.28*
4 Human Resource Management	.09	.42**	.16	.60**	.55**
Total	.06	.47**	.23*	.56**	.56**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (1-tailed)

Correlations between frequency of types of HRD-activities and frequency of management tasks.

	Frequency of management tasks per cluster				
	1 Communication	2 Trad. Man.	3 Networking	4 HRM	Total
<i>Types of HRD-activities (per cluster)</i>					
1 Training: total	-.09	.14	.09	.29**	.22*
Cluster 1: communication	-.12	.07	.05	.18	.12
Cluster 2: trad. management	-.03	.18	-.03	.22*	.19
Cluster 3: networking	-.14	-.06	.15	.18	.09
Cluster 4: HRM	-.02	.23	.18	.39**	.35**
2 Seeking information: total	.02	.31**	.22*	.38**	.41**
Cluster 1: communication	-.02	.19	.22*	.26*	.28*
Cluster 2: trad. management	.02	.35**	.18	.38**	.41**
Cluster 3: networking	.08	.13	.20*	.20	.24*
Cluster 4: HRM	.10	.23*	.16	.38**	.37**
3 Asking advise: total	-.08	.41**	.06	.47**	.40**
Cluster 1: communication	.00	.40**	.19	.39**	.41**
Cluster 2: trad. management	.01	.30**	.01	.40**	.33**
Cluster 3: networking	-.04	.13	.11	.17	.17
Cluster 4: HRM	-.05	.36**	-.03	.48**	.38**
4 Learning-by-doing: total	.28**	.47**	.35**	.54**	.63**
Cluster 1: communication	.33**	.39**	.38**	.49**	.60**
Cluster 2: trad. management	.39**	.53**	.32**	.43**	.62**
Cluster 3: networking	.16	.14	.26*	.21*	.28*
Cluster 4: HRM	.21*	.42**	.24*	.57**	.58**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (1-tailed)

3.3.b. Importance of management tasks

Correlations between frequency of HRD-activities (independent of type) and importance of management tasks.

	<i>Importance of management tasks per cluster</i>				
	1 Communication	2 Trad. Man.	3 Networking	4 HRM	Total
<i>HRD-activities directed at cluster</i>					
1 Communication	.32**	.23*	.17	.29**	.38**
2 Trad. Management	.27*	.31**	.21*	.21*	.37**
3 Networking	.22*	-.02	.30**	.18	.29*
4 Human Resource Management	.40**	.25*	.07	.44**	.44**
Total	.34**	.26*	.23*	.34**	.46**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (1-tailed)

Correlations between frequency of types of HRD-activities and importance of management tasks.

	<i>Importance of management tasks per cluster</i>				
	1 Communication	2 Trad. Man.	3 Networking	4 HRM	Total
<i>Types of HRD-activities (per cluster)</i>					
1 Training: total	.23*	.08	.01	.17	.25*
Cluster 1: communication	.18	-.04	-.15	.14	.08
Cluster 2: trad. management	.16	.09	-.02	.07	.17
Cluster 3: networking	-.01	-.03	.19	.14	.19
Cluster 4: HRM	.29**	.15	-.05	.27*	.32**
2 Seeking information: total	.35**	.09	.21*	.21	.33**
Cluster 1: communication	.18	.02	.17	.09	.21*
Cluster 2: trad. management	.24*	.16	.14	.13	.26*
Cluster 3: networking	.27*	-.04	.21*	.15	.21*
Cluster 4: HRM	.45**	.05	.13	.31**	.33**
3 Asking advise: total	.10	.20	.03	.22*	.16
Cluster 1: communication	.08	.27*	.11	.13	.17
Cluster 2: trad. management	.09	.13	.02	.08	.05
Cluster 3: networking	.11	.01	.16	.16	.18
Cluster 4: HRM	.19	.17	-.08	.31**	.17
4 Learning-by-doing: total	.27*	.37**	.43**	.42**	.58**
Cluster 1: communication	.35**	.34**	.35**	.40**	.54**
Cluster 2: trad. management	.20*	.45**	.46**	.29*	.51**
Cluster 3: networking	.23*	.04	.34**	.17	.31**
Cluster 4: HRM	.24*	.38**	.29**	.44**	.50**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (1-tailed)

Appendixes chapter 5

5.1. Planning of HRD-activities

Learning Strategies Questionnaire (Megginson, 1995)

In Megginson's original questionnaire seven-points scales were used:
1 = never true / you never agree; to 7 = always true / you totally agree.

(p = planned learning item; e = emergent learning item)

1. Writing down appraisals of my work performance is an important basis for my development (p);
2. For me learning is a planned process of setting goals, achieving them and setting new goals (p);
3. In conversation with others I often come to new understandings of what I have learned (e);
4. I regularly prepare a learning contract, development agreement or continuous professional development statement outlining my plans (p);
5. It is important for me to add to / change my learning plans frequently in the light of new information (e);
6. I set goals for my own learning (p);
7. In order to learn from experience I reflect frequently upon what happens to me (e);
8. I set targets for my development (p);
9. It is important to be open to experience; then learning will come (e);
10. I use a learning contract, development agreement or continuous professional development statement regularly to focus on my progress in developing (p);
11. Most of my new learning emerges unexpectedly from things that happen (e);
12. You can't plan significant learning (e).

Dutch items: planning of HRD-activities

Below we describe the items that we used in Dutch, measured on five-point scales reflecting the manager's agreement with the statement (1 = fully disagree; to 5 = fully agree).

Geef u een reactie op de volgende stellingen en denk hierbij aan uw leeractiviteiten gedurende de laatste 12 maanden:

(1=helemaal mee oneens; 5 = helemaal mee eens)

(p = gepland leren; e = toevallig leren)

1. Ik plan leeractiviteiten bewust om voortdurend in ontwikkeling te zijn (p);
2. Ik leer dikwijls door toevallige contacten met mensen (*recode*) (e);
3. Ik stel mijn eigen leerdoelen (p);
4. Als ik leer, is dat doorgaans bij toeval (*recode*) (e);
5. Ik beschik over een persoonlijk leercontract (of ontwikkelingsplan) waarin ik doelen heb geformuleerd voor mijn ontwikkeling (p);
6. De meeste van mijn leerervaringen vinden onverwachts plaats als gevolg van gebeurtenissen die zich toevallig voordoen (*recode*) (e);
7. Ik zie evaluaties van mijn werk als aanknopingspunt om nieuwe leerdoelen te kunnen stellen (p).
8. Je kunt betekenisvol leren niet plannen (*recode*) (e).

Note that items 2 and 5 were excluded based on the pilot-study; items 7 and 8 were excluded based on the main study.

5.2. Dutch items: psychological career contract

Psychologisch loopbaan contract

Drie perspectieven binnen het psychologisch loopbaan contract zijn als volgt gemeten:

Commitment:	ik vind dat ik dit dien te doen ² ;
Support:	mijn directe leidinggevende moedigt me hiertoe aan;
Medewerker-support:	ik moedig mijn medewerkers hiertoe aan:

Vijf-puntschaal: 1= helemaal mee oneens; 5 = helemaal mee eens (aangeduid als dubbel min (- -) tot dubbel plus (+ +)).

Optimaliseren van de situatie (items 2 en 4 verwijderd op basis van pilot-studie).

1. Constant veranderingen in de organisatie in de gaten houden die van belang zijn voor het verdere verloop van de loopbaan;
2. Alert zijn op wijzigingen in het loopbaanbeleid van de organisatie;
3. Loopbaaninteresses regelmatig duidelijk maken aan personen die van belang kunnen zijn voor de loopbaan;
4. Aangeven naar welke functies binnen de organisatie de interesse uitgaat;
5. Opbouwen van netwerken van personen op allerlei niveaus binnen en buiten de organisatie die de loopbaanontwikkeling kunnen bevorderen;
6. Zoveel mogelijk in contact komen en samenwerken met personen die van waarde kunnen zijn voor de verdere loopbaan.

Loopbaan planning (items 9 en 10 verwijderd op basis van pilot-studie).

7. Continu nagaan of de huidige plaats in de afdeling en de organisatie de juiste is;
8. Voortdurend nagaan of, wanneer en waar naartoe een eventuele volgende loopbaanstap gezet zou willen worden;
9. Voortdurend bekijken welke interessante vacatures binnen en buiten de organisatie bestaan;
10. Oriëntatie op loopbaanmogelijkheden door tijdens borrels of vergaderingen op collega's af te stappen die meer kunnen vertellen over hun functie of werkzaamheden;
11. Uitstippelen van een pad of maken van een plan om loopbaandoelen te bereiken;
12. Plannen van vervolgstappen in de loopbaan.

Persoonlijke ontwikkeling (items 13 en 18 verwijderd op basis van pilot-studie).

13. Voortdurend overdenken hoe het werk beter / efficiënter uitgevoerd kan worden en hieraan leeractiviteiten verbinden;
14. Aanhoudend nagaan van welke cursussen of andere leeractiviteiten nodig zijn om toekomstige loopbaandoelen te bereiken;
15. Bepalen van de manier waarop het beste en liefste geleerd wordt (bijv. door het volgen van cursussen, of juist tijdens en van het werk);
16. Zoveel mogelijk benutten van kansen om te leren van het werk;
17. Veelvuldig om zich heen vergaren van mensen die steun kunnen bieden bij het ondernemen van uitdagende leeractiviteiten;
18. Advies vragen aan experts op een bepaald gebied als daaraan behoefte is.

Balans zoeken tussen werk en privé (items 19 en 22 verwijderd op basis van pilot-studie).

19. Evalueren van het huidige werk en nagaan in welke mate hiermee tevredenheid bestaat;
20. Constant in de gaten houden van eisen die het bedrijf stelt en te kennen geven wanneer de balans met het privé-leven verstoord dreigt te raken;
21. Helder krijgen van wat belangrijk is in het leven;
22. Duidelijk op een rijtje zetten van de gewenste loopbaansituatie over vijf jaar;
23. Voortdurend verdelen van tijd en energie over arbeid en vrije tijd;
24. Vormgeven van de loopbaan zonder dat persoonlijke waarden daarbij in het gevaar komen.

² In de pilot studie was dit nog "dit dien ik te doen", maar deze tekst is voor de hoofdstudie aangepast. De onderstreepte woorden zijn toegevoegd in de hoofdstudie om de uitspraken sterker te maken.

5.3. Dutch items: facilities for career development

Psychologisch loopbaan contract: faciliteiten

Twee perspectieven binnen het psychologisch loopbaan contract zijn als volgt gemeten:

Gewenste faciliteiten: Ik vind dat de organisatie de volgende faciliteiten behoort te bieden;
Ervaren faciliteiten: Ik ervaar in werkelijkheid dat de organisatie de volgende faciliteiten biedt;

Vijf-puntschaal: 1 = in zeer lage mate; 5 = in zeer hoge mate (aangeduid als dubbel min (- -) tot dubbel plus (+ +)).

Optimaliseren van de situatie (item 2 verwijderd op basis van pilot-studie).

1. Informatie omtrent veranderingen die worden doorgevoerd of te verwachten zijn, die van belang kunnen zijn voor het verdere verloop van mijn loopbaan;
2. Gelegenheid om in sociale netwerken (zoals teams, projectgroepen, comités, werkgroepjes) binnen en buiten de organisatie te kunnen participeren;
3. Een systeem waarin loopbaaninteresses van medewerkers worden vastgelegd bijv. gekoppeld aan het voeren van functioneringsgesprekken.

Loopbaan planning

4. Loopbaancounseling en -advies (bijv. door extern bureau of door ervaren collega's, baas, mentor, etc.);
5. Een aanbod van cursussen, workshops, etc., maar ook van zelfstudiemateriaal (do-it-yourself boeken en software) waarin aandacht wordt besteed aan loopbaanplanning-vaardigheden;
6. Een overzicht van interne vacatures dat regelmatig verschijnt.

Persoonlijke ontwikkeling (item 7 verwijderd op basis van pilot-studie).

7. Een systeem van mentoren of andere functionarissen die het leerproces van werknemers op alle niveaus in de organisatie begeleidt;
8. De gelegenheid om functiegerichte (specifieke) scholingsactiviteiten en functieoverstijgende (algemene) leeractiviteiten te volgen;
9. Voldoende tijd (ook tijdens het werk) en geld om leeractiviteiten mogelijk te maken.

Balans zoeken tussen werk en privé (item 12 verwijderd op basis van pilot-studie).

10. Verschillende secundaire arbeidsvoorwaarden zoals kinderopvang, ouderschapsverlof, zorgverlof en mogelijkheden tot deeltijdwerk;
11. Een sfeer waarin niet alleen het werk belangrijk wordt gevonden, maar ook het leven daarbuiten aandacht krijgt;
12. Een expliciet beleid waarin de werknemer wordt gezien als meer dan alleen een productiefactor, namelijk ook als volwaardig mens in het midden van de samenleving.

5.4. Dutch items: mobility perspective

Mobiliteitsbereik

1. In hoeverre bent u met uw huidige bekwaamheden in staat om een andere functie te vervullen:
(1 = zeker niet; 5 = zeker wel)

- 1a. op een gelijk niveau binnen deze afdeling (c.q. onderdeel)?
- 1b. op een gelijk niveau binnen deze organisatie, maar binnen een andere afdeling (c.q. onderdeel)?
- 1c. op een gelijk niveau buiten deze organisatie?
- 1d. op een hoger niveau binnen deze afdeling (c.q. onderdeel)?
- 1e. op een hoger niveau binnen deze organisatie, maar binnen een andere afdeling (c.q. onderdeel)?
- 1f. op een hoger niveau buiten deze organisatie?

Mobiliteitsbehoefte

Geef uw reactie op onderstaande stellingen:

(1=helemaal mee oneens; 5 = helemaal mee eens)

Algemene mobiliteitsbehoefte (onafhankelijk van verticaliteit)

2. Ik wil mijn loopbaan uitdienen bij deze organisatie;
3. Ik wil zo lang mogelijk in deze functie op deze afdeling blijven werken;
4. Ik denk er vaak aan om ontslag te nemen bij deze organisatie;
5. Ik let goed op kansen die zich voordoen om een andere functie te gaan bekleden;
6. Als het aan mij ligt dan heb ik op korte termijn een baan bij een andere organisatie;
7. Wat mij betreft ga ik snel een andere functie vervullen.

Verticaliteit van mobiliteitsbehoefte

8. Mijn volgende functie hoeft niet per se op een hoger niveau te zijn;
9. Ik accepteer een nieuwe functie alleen als deze op een hoger niveau is;
10. Wanneer mijn volgende functie op eenzelfde niveau is als mijn huidige functie, dan vind ik dat geen probleem;
11. Het is voor mij van wezenlijk belang dat de volgende functie hoger is op de ladder;
12. Ik zou een andere functie op ditzelfde niveau wel zien zitten;
13. Ik probeer een nieuwe functie te vinden die op een hoger niveau ligt dan mijn huidige functie

Items 8 en 13 zijn verwijderd op basis van de pilot-studie.

Intentie tot verloop (intention to leave) (Freese)

Intentie tot verloop schaal, gemeten op 7 puntsschaal (door Freese) van totaal niet mee eens tot volledig mee eens.

1. Ik wil mijn loopbaan uitdienen bij deze organisatie (*recode*)
2. Ik denk er vaak aan om ontslag te nemen
3. Ik houd mijn ogen goed open om bij een andere organisatie ander werk te gaan doen
4. Als een andere organisatie mij een zelfde soort baan aanbood die ik nu ook heb, dan zou ik dit aanbod accepteren
5. Ik ben actief op zoek naar een andere baan
6. Als het aan mij ligt dan heb ik op korte termijn een baan bij een andere organisatie
7. Er hoeft nog maar weinig negatiefs te gebeuren of ik ga op zoek naar een andere baan
8. Als de kans zich voordoet, dan ga ik voor een andere (soort organisatie, bv bank, adviesbureau etc) werken

5.5. Background characteristics pilot-study

N=39

Background characteristic	M	sd	Range
Age	36.21	6.53	26 - 58
Working experience (in years)	13.7	7.2	1 - 37.6
Number of jobs	5	2.29	2 - 11
Number of management jobs	2.26	1.45	1 - 6
Managerial experience (in years)	5.90	4.20	1 - 20
Job-tenure (in months)	25.62	14.57	6 - 82
Organisational tenure (in months)	77.24	63.08	11 - 244

Background characteristic	%	Background characteristic	%
Gender		Contract	
Male	94.9	full-time	97.4
Female	5.1	Part-time ³	2.6
Educational level ⁴		Sector	
Low	2.6	Commerce	28.2
Intermediate	25.6	Industry	17.9
High	71.8	Financial institutions	7.7
		All other sectors ⁵	46.2
Management level ⁶		Vertical mobility opportunities	
Middle line management	47.4	(number of higher	1
Higher line management	34.2	management levels)	2
Staff management	15.8		3
			4
			5
			2.6
Size (number of personnel)		Horizontal mobility opportunities	
10 - 49	15.4	(Number of management	1 - 5
50 - 99	7.7	positions at the same	6 - 10
100 - 499	25.6	hierarchical level)	11 - 25
500 - 999	7.7		26 - 50
1000 - 4999	28.2		51 - 100
> 5000	15.4		> 100
			15.4
Number of subordinates			
1- 5	28.2		
6 - 10	20.5		
11 - 15	17.9		
16 - 20	10.3		
> 20	23.1		

³ This concerns 1 respondent with a contract of 24 hours per week (male).

⁴ Low = lower secondary vocational education and lower general secondary education. Intermediate = upper secondary vocational education and upper general secondary education and pre-university education. High = higher vocational education and university.

⁵ Almost half of the respondents (46.2%) were spread across a diversity of sectors, such as communication, construction, fishing, Public Services, trading and health-care. In all cases it concerns one or two respondents per sector and are therefore described as one category.

⁶ 1 respondent indicated to work in project management; this category will be added in the next research phase.

5.6. Correlations between HRD-dimensions (pilot-study)

Pearson correlations: frequency of HRD-activities (N=39).

	M	sd	1	2	2a	2b	3	3a	3b	3c	4
<i>Frequency</i>											
1. Formal learning	4.32	.83	1.00								
2. Non-formal total	3.65	.84	.45**	1.00							
2a. Non-formal info	3.54	1.07	.48**	.90**	1.00						
2b. Non-formal advice	3.76	.87	.29	.84**	.51**	1.00					
3. Informal total	3.83	.67	.16	.18	.14	.17	1.00				
3a. Trial & error	3.90	.94	.01	.18	.10	.23	.65**	1.00			
3b. Routinising	3.76	.78	.08	.17	.17	.11	.82**	.33*	1.00		
3c. Difficulty	3.84	.99	.25	.06	.06	.05	.76**	.10	.57**	1.00	
4. Total	3.93	.56	.78**	.79**	.74**	.63**	.56**	.35*	.45**	.46**	1.00

Pearson correlations: generic value of HRD-activities (N=39).

	M	sd	1	1a	1b	2	2a	2b	3	3a	3b	3c	4
<i>Generic value</i>													
1. Formal learning	3.25	.98	1.00										
1a. Formal org. intern.	3.79	1.05	.69**	1.00									
1b. Formal org. ext.	2.71	1.45	.85**	.21	1.00								
2. Non-formal total	3.45	1.09	.34*	.37*	.20	1.00							
2a. Non-formal info	3.38	1.29	.25	.27	.14	.89**	1.00						
2b. Non-formal advice	3.51	1.18	.36*	.39*	.20	.87**	.55**	1.00					
3. Informal total	3.32	.88	.27	.18	.24	.59**	.42**	.62**	1.00				
3a. Trial and error	3.37	1.18	.21	.07	.23	.42**	.27	.49**	.77**	1.00			
3b. Routinising	3.18	.97	.17	.17	.11	.55**	.47**	.49**	.79**	.40*	1.00		
3c. Difficulty	3.42	1.18	.26	.20	.21	.44**	.28	.49**	.82**	.38*	.53**	1.00	
4. Total	3.34	.76	.70**	.54**	.55**	.85**	.69**	.81**	.78**	.59**	.63**	.63**	1.00

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Pearson correlations: frequency, generic value and planning of HRD-activities (at level of total scores) (N=39).

	Generic value	1 formal	2 non-formal	3 informal	4 total	Planning
<i>Frequency</i>						
1. formal		.44**	.17	.08	.33*	.26
2. non-formal		.42**	.50**	.18	.53**	.19
3. informal		.37*	.36*	.60**	.60**	.02
4. total		.53**	.45**	.35*	.62**	.23
Planning (M=3.75; sd=.64)	.16		.18	.06	.18	1.00

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Pearson correlations planned and emergent learning items (p = planned; e = emergent).

Items	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. (p)	1.00					
3. (p)	.48**	1.00				
4. (e)	-.52**	-.44**	1.00			
6. (e)	-.26	-.44**	.35*	1.00		
7. (p)	.30	.38**	-.18	-.22	1.00	
8. (e)	-.17	-.24	.18	.54**	.04	1.00

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

5.7. Reliability (sub-) scales psychological career contract (pilot-study)

Scale	Items	Step 1			Step 2			
		α	$R^2 < .30$	α if item deleted $>$	α after deletion of items 4, 9, 18 en 19	$R^2 < .30$	α if item deleted $>$	α after deletion items 2, 10, 13 en 22
<i>Commitment</i>	B1a - 24a	.87	4, 18	4	.87	-	-	.86
Optimising	B1a - 6a	.66	4	4	.68	2	2	.69
Career planning	B7a - 12a	.76	-	-	.69	-	-	.68
Pers. development	B13a- 18a	.76	-	18	.76	-	-	.72
Balancing	B19a- 24a	.72	19	19, 22	.76	-	22	.78
<i>Support</i>	B1b - 24b	.94	19	13, 19, 23	.94	-	13, 23	.93
Optimising	B1b - 6b	.85	-	-	.83	-	-	.80
Career planning	B7b - 12b	.89	-	9	.91	-	10	.91
Pers. development	B13b- 18b	.82	13	13	.79	-	13	.82
Balancing	B19b- 24b	.76	19	19	.84	-	22, 23	.86
<i>Subordinate-support</i>	B1c - 24c	.92	9	9	.92	-	1, 24	.91
Optimising	B1c - 6c	.79	-	-	.75	-	-	.74
Career planning	B7c - 12c	.79	-	9	.80	-	10	.81
Pers. development	B13c- 18c	.83	18	18	.87	-	13	.87
Balancing	B19c- 24c	.82	-	19	.84	-	22	.84

5.8. Background characteristics main study

N=242

Background characteristic		M	sd	Range
Age		38.12	7.64	24 – 57
Working experience	(in years)	16.20	9.20	1 – 42.75
Number of jobs		6.11	2.71	1 – 20
Number of management jobs		2.83	2.01	1 – 15
Managerial experience	(in years)	7.59	6.73	0 – 31
Job-tenure	(in months)	27.02	31.83	6 – 265
Organisational tenure	(in months)	100.43	92.83	6 – 410

Background characteristic		%	Background characteristic		%
Gender	Male	68.5	Contract	full-time	93.8
	Female	31.5		Part-time ⁷	6.2
Educational level ⁸	1 low	0	Number of subordinates	1- 5	21.1
	2	4.5		6 - 10	38
	3 intermediate	29.8		11 – 15	19
	4	42.1		16 – 20	8.7
	5 high	23.6		> 20	13.2
Management level ⁹	lower line management	20.1	Vertical mobility opportunities (number of higher management levels)	1	20
	Middle line management	44.0		2	43.8
	Higher line management	23.5		3	22.5
	Staff management	10.3		4	10
	Project management	2.1		5	3.3
			6	.4	
Job expiration	Probably yes	19.6	Horizontal mobility opportunities (number of management positions at the same hierarchical level)	1 - 5	22.4
	Probably not	26.7		6 - 10	16.9
	Not	51.3		11 - 15	12.2
	Don't know	2.5		16 - 20	13.1
				21 – 25	4.6
			> 25	30.8	

5.9. Correlations between HRD-dimensions (main study)

Pearson correlations: frequency, generic value and planning of HRD-activities (N=242).

	M	sd	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
<i>Frequency</i>												
1. Formal learning	3.24	1.24	1.00									
2. Non-formal total	3.72	.77	.02	1.00								
3. Informal total	3.60	.67	-.09	.17**	1.00							
4. Total	3.52	.54	.74**	.56**	.42**	1.00						
<i>Generic value</i>												
5. Formal total	3.47	1.15	.56**	-.04	.07	.44**	1.00					
6. Non-formal total	3.31	.97	.12	.45**	.16*	.37**	.32**	1.00				
7. Informal total	3.29	.84	.03	.10	.55**	.30**	.30**	.52**	1.00			
8. Total	3.35	.75	.35**	.21**	.31**	.49**	.76**	.79**	.75**	1.00		
<i>Planning</i>												
9. Total	3.42	.72	.36**	.20**	-.00	.37**	.31**	.16*	.12	.27**	1.00	
<i>Broader HRD-pattern</i>												
10. Total	3.43	.51	.59**	.40**	.29**	.76**	.66**	.59**	.52**	.78**	.73**	1.00

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

⁷ This concerns 1 respondent, who has a contract of 24 hours per week (male).⁸ 1=primary education; 2=lbo/mavo = lower secondary vocational education and lower general secondary education; 3=mbo/havo/vwo = upper secondary vocational education and upper general secondary education and pre-university education; 4=hbo = higher vocational education; 5=wo = university.⁹ 1 respondent indicated to work in project management; this category will be added in the next research phase.

5.10. Additional factor analyses on psychological career contract

The next Tables contain information on: a. Support-items; b. Subordinate-support items; c. Perceived facilities; d. Desired facilities

5.10.a. Rotated factor matrix of support for career self-management

Support-items (+ original item-number ¹⁰)	1	2	3	Total
1 (1)	.38	.17	.57	
2 (3)	.46	.18	.61	
3 (5)	.15	.20	.84	
4 (6)	.26	.15	.77	
5 (7)	.61	.07	.39	
6 (8)	.65	.16	.39	
7 (11)	.75	.13	.23	
8 (12)	.76	.17	.31	
9 (14)	.76	.18	.20	
10 (15)	.66	.39	.06	
11 (16)	.60	.21	.24	
12 (17)	.62	.24	.13	
13 (20)	.25	.68	.26	
14 (21)	.20	.83	.08	
15 (23)	.10	.87	.12	
16 (24)	.28	.71	.22	
Explained variance (in %)	44.76	10.44	6.74	61.93
Cronbach's alpha	.89	.84	.81	.92

5.10.b. Rotated factor matrix of subordinate-support for career self-management.

Subordinate-support items (+ original item-number)	1	2	3	4	5	Total
1 (1)	.18	.61	.36	-.01	.12	
2 (3)	.05	.62	.34	-.10	.21	
3 (5)	.19	.76	-.11	.29	.08	
4 (6)	.14	.75	.03	.32	.18	
5 (7)	.07	.12	.15	.15	.83	
6 (8)	.05	.23	.13	.11	.83	
7 (11)	.12	.12	.83	.16	.07	
8 (12)	.10	.09	.81	.23	.16	
9 (14)	.09	.19	.47	.34	.35	
10 (15)	.20	.00	.21	.71	.16	
11 (16)	.17	.30	.21	.64	-.10	
12 (17)	.11	.13	.10	.70	.26	
13 (20)	.67	.11	.16	.20	.09	
14 (21)	.80	.10	-.06	.11	.02	
15 (23)	.86	.11	.07	.01	.08	
16 (24)	.73	.15	.18	.18	-.01	
Explained variance (in %)	32.27	11.75	8.13	6.61	6.50	65.27
Cronbach's alpha	.80	.74	.76	.65	.73	.86

¹⁰ The original item-numbers given between brackets refer to the item-numbers like in Table 5.5. (in section 5.1.2.).

5.10.c. Rotated factor matrix of desired facilities.

Desired facilities-items (+ original item-number ¹¹)		1	2	
1	(1)	.71	.16	
2	(3)	.24	.66	
3	(4)	.57	.41	
4	(5)	.44	.48	
5	(6)	.27	.59	
6	(8)	.72	.23	
7	(9)	.82	.03	
8	(10)	-.09	.77	
9	(11)	.36	.49	
Explained variance (in %)		38.51	12.21	50.72

5.10.d. Rotated factor matrix of perceived facilities.

Perceived facilities-items (+ original item-number)		1	2	
1	(1)	.43	.49	
2	(3)	-.01	.75	
3	(4)	.34	.63	
4	(5)	.26	.51	
5	(6)	.02	.53	
6	(8)	.65	.21	
7	(9)	.81	.01	
8	(10)	.67	.08	
9	(11)	.46	.31	
Explained variance (in %)		32.05	12.08	44.13

¹¹ The original item-numbers given between brackets refer to the item-numbers like in Table 5.6. (in section 5.1.2.).

Appendixes chapter 6

6.1. Facilities for career development

Desired and perceived facilities for career development: means, standard deviations, Pearson correlations and paired samples T-test.

Facilities	Desired		Perceived		Correlation	Difference	
	M	sd	M	sd	r	Mean difference	T (df=241)
1. item 1	4.37	.68	3.10	1.09	.25**	1.28	17.56**
2. item 3	4.50	.63	3.60	1.19	.31**	.90	12.04**
3. item 4	4.06	.85	2.92	1.17	.28**	1.14	14.22**
4. item 5	3.96	.82	3.17	1.12	.41**	.79	11.35**
5. item 6	4.49	.62	4.46	.72	.43**	.033	.72
6. item 8	4.34	.63	3.91	.96	.40**	.42	7.22**
7. item 9	4.11	.74	3.67	1.01	.22**	.44	6.19**
8. item 10	4.18	.81	3.83	1.01	-.02	.35	4.19**
9. item 11	4.12	.77	3.41	.93	.09	.71	9.66**
Total	4.23	.45	3.56	.58	.31**	.67	17.10**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

6.2. Correlations between background characteristics and the psychological career contract

Correlations between age and educational level with aspects of the psychological career contract (commitment, support, modernity and unbalance)

	Age (r)	Educational level (Rho)		Age (r)	Educational level (Rho)
<i>Commitment to:</i>			<i>Modernity of:</i>		
1. networking	-.07	-.01	1. networking	-.06	-.04
2. monitoring	-.09	.01	2. monitoring	-.05	-.07
3. planning	-.21**	.07	3. planning	-.20**	.01
4. shaping	-.08	.01	4. shaping	-.07	-.06
5. combining	.01	-.08	5. combining	.00	-.14*
Total	-.14*	.00	Total	-.11*	-.07
<i>Support for:</i>			<i>Unbalance of:</i>		
1. networking	-.04	-.06	1. networking	.06	.03
2. monitoring	-.00	-.11*	2. monitoring	-.02	.13*
3. planning	-.11*	-.05	3. planning	.00	.04
4. shaping	-.04	-.09	4. shaping	.03	.13*
5. combining	-.00	-.11*	5. combining	.01	.05
Total	-.05	-.10	Total	-.01	.11*

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (1-tailed).

6.3. HRD-dimensions and CSM-commitment

6.3.a. Correlations between HRD-dimensions and components of CSM-commitment

Commitment to:	Frequency	Planning	Broader HRD-pattern
1. networking	.18**	.09	.22**
2. monitoring	.28**	.28**	.38**
3. planning	.20**	.33**	.33**
4. shaping	.32**	.27**	.36**
5. combining	.12*	.10	.13*
Total	.31**	.31**	.41**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05-level (1-tailed).

6.3.b. Regression analysis

Multiple linear regression analyses with five components of CSM-commitment and other HRD-dimensions: frequency and planning of HRD-activities and the broader HRD-pattern.

Regression of frequency of HRD-activities on components of CSM-commitment (method stepwise)

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Δ R ²	F	Δ F	Df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	Shaping	.32	.10	.10	.10	26.63**	26.63**	1, 240	5.16	.32**
2	Shaping Monitoring	.35	.12	.12	.02	16.81**	6.40*	2, 239	3.61 2.53	.24** .17*

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05-level.

Regression of planning of HRD-activities on components of CSM-commitment (method stepwise).

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Δ R ²	F	Δ F	Df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	Career Planning	.33	.11	.11	.11	28.42**	28.42**	1, 240	5.33	.33**
2	Career Planning Shaping	.36	.13	.12	.02	17.67**	6.31*	2, 239	3.92 2.51	.26** .17*

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05-level.

Regression of broader HRD-pattern on components of CSM-commitment (method stepwise).

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Δ R ²	F	Δ F	Df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	Monitoring	.38	.14	.14	.14	39.28**	39.28**	1, 240	6.27	.38**
2	Monitoring Shaping	.43	.19	.18	.05	27.47**	13.60**	2, 239	4.20 3.69	.27** .24**
3	Monitoring Shaping Career planning	.452	.205	.195	.018	20.416**	5.321*	3, 238	3.21 3.00 2.31	.218** .199** .155*

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05-level.

6.4. HRD-dimensions and CSM-support

6.4.a. Correlations between HRD-dimensions and components of CSM-support

Support for:	Frequency	Planning	Broader HRD-pattern
1. networking	.25**	.07	.22**
2. monitoring	.25**	.13*	.29**
3. planning	.22**	.15**	.22**
4. shaping	.25**	.16**	.28**
5. combining	.14*	.05	.13*
Total	.28**	.14*	.28**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05-level (1-tailed).

6.4.b. Regression analysis

Multiple linear regression analyses with five components of CSM-support and other HRD-dimensions: frequency and planning of HRD-activities and the broader HRD-pattern.

Regression of frequency of HRD-activities on components of CSM-support (method stepwise).

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	F	Df
1	Monitoring	.25	.06	.06	16.37**	1, 240

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05-level.

Regression of planning of HRD-activities on components of CSM-support (method stepwise).

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	F	Df
1	Shaping	.16	.02	.02	5.96*	1, 240

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05-level.

Regression of broader HRD-pattern on components of CSM-support (method stepwise).

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	F	Df
1	Monitoring	.286	.082	.078	21.46**	1, 240

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05-level.

6.5. Commitment, support and its interaction in relation to HRD-dimensions

Multiple hierarchical linear regression analyses with CSM-commitment and CSM-support and their interaction as predictor variables and HRD-dimensions (frequency and planning of HRD-activities and the broader HRD-pattern) as dependent variables.

In the first step CSM-commitment and CSM-support were entered stepwise, in the second step the interaction-term (commitment * support) was entered.

Regression of frequency of HRD-activities on CSM-commitment, CSM-support and the interaction-term (method stepwise).

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Δ R ²	F	Δ F	df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	CSM-commitment	.31	.10	.09	.10	25.78**	25.78**	1, 240	5.08	.31**
	CSM-commitment CSM-support	.37	.14	.13	.04	19.02**	11.16**	2, 239	4.10 3.34	.26** .21**
2	CSM-commitment CSM-support Interaction-term	.37	.14	.13	.00	12.68**	.13	3, 238	1.48 .83 -.35	.33 .36 -.19

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05-level.

Regression of planning of HRD-activities on CSM-commitment, CSM-support and the interaction-term (method stepwise).

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Δ R ²	F	Δ F	df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	CSM-commitment	.31	.10	.09	.10	25.39**	25.39**	1, 240	5.04	.31**
2	CSM-commitment Interaction-term	.32	.10	.09	.00	13.16**	.93	2, 239	3.35 .96	.26** .08

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05-level.

Regression of broader HRD-pattern on CSM-commitment, CSM-support and the interaction-term (method stepwise).

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Δ R ²	F	Δ F	df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	CSM-commitment	.41	.17	.16	.17	47.86**	47.86**	1, 240	6.92	.41**
	CSM-commitment CSM-support	.44	.20	.19	.03	29.41**	9.31**	2, 239	5.96 3.05	.36** .18**
2	CSM-commitment CSM-support Interaction-term	.45	.20	.19	.00	19.59**	.15	3, 238	2.02 .82 -.38	.44* .34 -.20

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05-level.

6.6. HRD-dimensions and modernity of the psychological career contract

6.6.a. Correlations between HRD-dimensions and modernity of the contract per component.

Modernity of:	Frequency	Planning	Broader HRD-pattern
1. networking	.27**	.09	.28**
2. monitoring	.31**	.24**	.39**
3. planning	.27**	.29**	.34**
4. shaping	.34**	.25**	.38**
5. combining	.18**	.09	.17**
Total	.36**	.26**	.42**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05-level (1-tailed).

6.6.b. Regression analysis

Multiple linear regression analyses with modernity of five career development components and other HRD-dimensions: frequency and planning of HRD-activities and the broader HRD-pattern.

Regression of frequency of HRD-activities on modernity of career development components (method stepwise)

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Δ R ²	F	Δ F	df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	Shaping	.34	.11	.11	.11	30.41**	30.41**	1, 240	5.52	.34**
2	Shaping Monitoring	.37	.13	.13	.02	18.45**	5.88*	2, 239	3.20 2.42	.24** .18*

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05-level.

Regression of planning of HRD-activities on modernity of career development components (method stepwise)

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Δ R ²	F	Δ F	df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	Planning	.29	.08	.08	.08	22.04**	22.04**	1, 240	4.70	.29**
2	Planning Shaping	.32	.10	.10	.02	13.62**	4.85*	2, 239	3.28 2.20	.22** .15*

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05-level.

Regression of broader HRD-pattern on modernity of career development components (method stepwise)

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Δ R ²	F	Δ F	df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	Monitoring	.39	.15	.15	.15	42.21**	42.21**	1, 240	6.50	.39**
2	Monitoring Shaping	.43	.19	.18	.04	27.29**	10.67**	2, 239	3.59 3.27	.26** .23**
3	Monitoring Shaping Planning	.45	.20	.19	.02	19.97**	4.53*	3, 238	2.53 2.81 2.13	.19* .20** .15*

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05-level.

6.7. HRD-dimensions and unbalance of the psychological career contract

Correlations between HRD-dimensions and unbalance of the contract per component.

Unbalance of:	Frequency	Planning	Broader HRD-pattern
1. networking	-.10	-.04	-.10
2. monitoring	-.03	.08	.01
3. planning	-.00	.09	.05
4. shaping	-.06	-.01	-.07
5. combining	-.07	.02	-.04
Total	-.07	.04	-.03

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05-level (1-tailed).

6.8. Analysis of variance of HRD-dimensions by types of psychological career contracts

Differences between types of psychological career contract (based on cluster-analysis) on frequency and planning of HRD-activities and the broader HRD-pattern.

Results of one-way analysis of variance

Dependent variable	Type of contract	N	Mean	Sd	Df	F	Differences (post-hoc)
<i>Frequency</i>	1. Modern	53	3.75	.49	3	7.90**	Tukey 4 < 1, 2, 3
	2. Push	95	3.53	.49	238		
	3. Pull	50	3.53	.56	241		
	4. Traditional	44	3.24	.56			
<i>Planning</i>	1. Modern	53	3.74	.59	3	7.27**	Tukey 1 > 2, 4 3 > 4
	2. Push	95	3.33	.67	238		
	3. Pull	50	3.51	.82	241		
	4. Traditional	44	3.11	.71			
<i>Broader HRD-pattern</i>	1. Modern	53	3.66	.46	3	10.63**	Tukey 1 > 2 4 < 1, 2, 3
	2. Push	95	3.42	.45	238		
	3. Pull	50	3.47	.50	241		
	4. Traditional	44	3.11	.56			

** significant at the .01 level.

The F-statistic indicates that difference exists between at least two of the four clusters on HRD-pattern and its dimensions. Post-hoc analysis (Tukey HSD) reveals that with regard to frequency of HRD-activities, the traditional type uses significantly less HRD-activities than all other types. With regard to planning of HRD-activities, the modern type plans their HRD-activities to a higher extent than the push-related and traditional type. Moreover, the pull-related type plans to a higher extent than the traditional type. With regard to the broader HRD-pattern, the traditional type has a significantly poorer HRD-pattern than all other types. Moreover, the modern type has a richer HRD-pattern than the push-related type.

6.9. HR-tasks

Means and standard-deviations with regard to frequency, importance and competence with regard to HR-tasks.

HR-tasks	Frequency		Importance		Competence	
	M	sd	M	sd	M	sd
1. Motivating / reinforcing	4.31	.68	4.71	.48	4.08	.68
2. Disciplining	3.29	.98	3.88	.91	3.61	.84
3. Handling conflict	3.26	1.07	4.10	.78	3.77	.81
4. Staffing	3.79	1.15	4.23	.84	3.96	.89
5. Training & development	3.99	.85	4.43	.64	4.01	.71
Total HR	3.73	.59	4.27	.44	3.89	.56

The total-scores of frequency, importance and competence are positively correlated (2-tailed): frequency and importance ($r=.58$; $p<.01$), frequency and competence ($r=.54$; $p<.01$) and importance and competence ($r=.45$; $p<.01$).

Appendixes chapter 7

7.1. Correlations between HRD-pattern and mobility perspective.

Pearson correlations between HRD-pattern (and other HRD-dimensions) and mobility perspective.

Mobility perspective	Frequency	Planning	Broader HRD-pattern
1. Mobility scope	.16**	.15*	.26**
a. Horizontal	.14*	.07	.18**
b. Vertical	.14*	.17**	.24**
2. Pursuit of mobility	.06	.04	.13*
a. organisation-internal	.10	.10	.17**
b. organisation-external	.02	-.04	.06
3. Mobility perspective	.13*	.11*	.23**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level (1-tailed).

7.2. Regression analysis on relation between HRD-pattern and mobility perspective.

Multivariate regression of aspects of the mobility perspective on HRD-dimensions, frequency and planning of HRD-activities and the broader HRD-pattern.

Independent variable	Dependent variables	Wilks' λ	Multivariate			Univariate		B
			F	df	Eta ²	F	Eta ²	
Frequency of HRD-activities	1. Horizontal scope	.97	1.91	4, 237	.03	4.58*	.02	.16
	2. Vertical scope					4.98*	.02	.25
	3. Org. int. pursuit					2.29	.01	.16
	4. Org. ext. pursuit					.07	.00	.03
Planning of HRD-activities	1. Horizontal scope	.95	3.05*	4, 237	.05	1.18	.01	.06
	2. Vertical scope					6.76**	.03	.22
	3. Org. int. pursuit					2.65	.01	.13
	4. Org. ext. pursuit					.31	.00	-.05
Broader HRD-pattern	1. Horizontal scope	.92	4.87**	4, 237	.08	8.17**	.03	.22
	2. Vertical scope					15.20**	.06	.45
	3. Org. int. pursuit					7.27**	.03	.29
	4. Org. ext. pursuit					.84	.00	.11

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level.

7.3. Regression analysis with HRD-pattern and mobility scope as predictor variables and pursuit of mobility as the dependent variable.

Results are presented of multiple hierarchical linear regression analysis with HRD-dimensions frequency and planning of HRD-activities and the broader HRD-pattern and mobility scope as predictor variables and pursuit of mobility as the dependent variable.

Frequency of HRD-activities

The requirement that frequency of HRD-activities must influence the pursuit of mobility is not met ($F=.94$; $p>.05$; $\beta = .06$). Frequency does however influence mobility scope ($F=6.14$; $p<.05$; $R^2=.03$). Mobility scope does not mediate the relation between frequency of HRD-activities and pursuit of mobility.

Planning of HRD-activities

The requirement that planning of HRD-activities must influence the pursuit of mobility is not met ($F=.31$; $p>.05$; $\beta = .04$). Planning does however influence mobility scope ($F=5.27$; $p<.05$; $R^2=.02$). Mobility scope does not mediate the relation between planning of HRD-activities and pursuit of mobility.

Broader HRD-pattern

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Δ R ²	F	Δ F	df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	Broader HRD-pattern	.13	.02	.01	.02	3.87*	3.87*	1, 240	1.97*	.13
2	Broader HRD-pattern Mobility scope	.31	.10	.09	.08	12.75**	21.30**	2, 239	.80 4.62**	.05 .29

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05-level.

The relation between the broader HRD-pattern and pursuit of mobility is fully mediated by mobility scope.

7.4. Regression analysis of mobility perspective on commitment-components.

Multiple multivariate regression analysis of aspects of mobility perspective on commitment to five career development components.

Independent variables	Dependent variables	Multivariate				Univariate		
Commitment to:		Wilks' λ	F	df	Eta ²	F	Eta ²	B
1. Career networking	1. Horizontal scope	.98	1.14	4, 233	.02	3.26	.01	.11
	2. Vertical scope					2.89	.01	.17
	3. Org. int. pursuit					.93	.00	.09
	4. Org. ext. pursuit					.01	.00	.01
2. Monitoring career opportunities	1. Horizontal scope	.96	2.62*	4, 233	.04	4.67*	.02	-.14
	2. Vertical scope					3.69	.02	-.20
	3. Org. int. pursuit					.73	.00	.08
	4. Org. ext. pursuit					.53	.00	-.07
3. Career planning	1. Horizontal scope	.98	1.10	4, 233	.02	.15	.00	-.02
	2. Vertical scope					.56	.00	.06
	3. Org. int. pursuit					3.68	.02	.14
	4. Org. ext. pursuit					1.34	.01	.09
4. Shaping learning opportunities	1. Horizontal scope	.96	2.45*	4, 233	.04	1.51	.01	.10
	2. Vertical scope					4.16*	.02	.25
	3. Org. int. pursuit					2.13	.01	-.16
	4. Org. ext. pursuit					.77	.00	-.11
5. Combining work and non-work	1. Horizontal scope	.96	2.50*	4, 233	.04	3.01	.01	.11
	2. Vertical scope					.87	.00	-.09
	3. Org. int. pursuit					.64	.00	.07
	4. Org. ext. pursuit					.27	.00	-.05

* significant at the .05 level.

7.5. Regression analysis of mobility perspective on support-components.

Multiple multivariate regression analysis of aspects of mobility perspective on support for five career development components.

Independent Variable	Dependent variables	Multivariate				Univariate		
		Wilks' λ	F	df	Eta ²	F	Eta ²	B
Support for:								
1. Career networking	1. Horizontal scope	.99	.82	4, 233	.01	.43	.00	-.04
	2. Vertical scope					.29		
	3. Org. int. pursuit					.01		
	4. Org. ext. pursuit					1.96		
2. Monitoring career opportunities	1. Horizontal scope	.99	.65	4, 233	.01	.84	.00	.07
	2. Vertical scope					.36		
	3. Org. int. pursuit					.06		
	4. Org. ext. pursuit					.34		
3. Career planning	1. Horizontal scope	1.00	.09	4, 233	.00	.19	.00	.03
	2. Vertical scope					.16		
	3. Org. int. pursuit					.02		
	4. Org. ext. pursuit					.05		
4. Shaping learning opportunities	1. Horizontal scope	.99	.72	4, 233	.01	.16	.00	-.03
	2. Vertical scope					.24		
	3. Org. int. pursuit					2.76		
	4. Org. ext. pursuit					.46		
5. Combining work and non-work	1. Horizontal scope	.98	1.03	4, 233	.02	2.58	.01	-.09
	2. Vertical scope					.71		
	3. Org. int. pursuit					2.07		
	4. Org. ext. pursuit					.51		

7.6. Regression analysis of mobility perspective on modernity of the contract and HRD-pattern

Multiple hierarchical linear regression analysis with modernity of the psychological career contract and narrower HRD-pattern as predictor variables and pursuit of mobility as the dependent variable.

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	ΔR^2	F	ΔF	df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	Modernity	.16	.03	.02	.03	6.07*	6.07*	1, 240	-2.46	-.16*
2	Modernity HRD-pattern	.29	.09	.08	.06	11.08**	15.73**	2, 239	-3.72 3.97	-.24** .26**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level.

It appears that the relation between modernity of the contract and pursuit of mobility as a whole is a direct one and is not mediated by the narrower HRD-pattern.

The same conclusion is drawn for the broader HRD-pattern and pursuit of mobility and organisation-external pursuit of mobility; see next two Tables.

Multiple hierarchical linear regression analysis with modernity of the psychological career contract and broader HRD-pattern as predictor variables and pursuit of mobility as the dependent variable.

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Δ R ²	F	Δ F	df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	Modernity	.16	.03	.02	.03	6.07*	6.07*	1, 240	-2.46	-.16*
2	Modernity Broader HRD-pattern	.26	.07	.06	.04	8.82**	11.32**	2, 239	-3.68 3.37	-.25** .23**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level.

Multiple hierarchical linear regression analysis with modernity of the psychological career contract and broader HRD-pattern as predictor variables and organisation-external pursuit of mobility as the dependent variable.

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Δ R ²	F	Δ F	df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	Modernity	.21	.04	.04	.04	10.55**	10.55**	1, 240	-3.25	-.21**
2	Modernity Broader HRD-pattern	.26	.07	.06	.03	8.61**	6.43*	2, 239	-4.04 2.54	-.28** .17*

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level.

7.7. Regression analysis of mobility perspective on modernity of career development components.

Multiple multivariate regression analysis of aspects of mobility perspective on modernity with regard to five career development components.

Independent variables	Dependent variables	Wilks' λ	Multivariate			Univariate		B
			F	df	Eta ²	F	Eta ²	
Modernity of: 1. Career networking	1. Horizontal scope	.99	.71	4, 233	.01	.52	.00	.06
	2. Vertical scope					.65	.00	.10
	3. Org. int. pursuit					.18	.00	.05
	4. Org. ext. pursuit					.78	.00	-.10
2. Monitoring career opportunities	1. Horizontal scope	.98	1.24	4, 233	.02	.86	.00	-.08
	2. Vertical scope					3.03	.01	-.22
	3. Org. int. pursuit					.09	.00	.04
	4. Org. ext. pursuit					.56	.00	-.09
3. Career planning	1. Horizontal scope	.99	.45	4, 233	.01	.08	.00	.02
	2. Vertical scope					.72	.00	.09
	3. Org. int. pursuit					1.39	.01	.11
	4. Org. ext. pursuit					.16	.00	.04
4. Shaping learning opportunities	1. Horizontal scope	.97	1.86	4, 233	.03	.22	.00	.04
	2. Vertical scope					.75	.00	.12
	3. Org. int. pursuit					4.41*	.02	-.27
	4. Org. ext. pursuit					.90	.00	-.13
5. Combining work and non-work	1. Horizontal scope	.98	.99	4, 233	.02	.14	.00	-.03
	2. Vertical scope					2.99	.01	-.22
	3. Org. int. pursuit					1.39	.01	-.14
	4. Org. ext. pursuit					1.61	.01	-.15

7.8. Relation between unbalance and pursuit of mobility: a direct one?

Multiple hierarchical linear regression analysis with unbalance of the psychological career contract and the broader HRD-pattern as predictor variables and pursuit of mobility as the dependent variable.

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Δ R ²	F	Δ F	df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	Unbalance	.33	.11	.10	.11	28.48**	28.48**	1, 240	5.34	.33**
2	Unbalance Broader HRD-pattern	.36	.12	.12	.02	16.93**	4.91*	2, 239	5.43 2.22	.33** .13*

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level.

No mediator-effect was found of the broader HRD-pattern on the relation between unbalance of the contract and pursuit of mobility.

7.9. Relation between unbalance and vertical mobility scope

Multiple hierarchical linear regression analysis with unbalance of the psychological career contract and pursuit of mobility as predictor variables and vertical mobility scope as the dependent variable.

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Δ R ²	F	Δ F	df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	Unbalance	.23	.05	.05	.05	13.52**	13.52**	1, 240	3.68	.23**
2	Unbalance Pursuit	.38	.14	.14	.09	19.84**	24.81**	2, 239	2.02 4.98	.13* .32**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level.

It appears that the influence of unbalance on the vertical mobility scope decreases after adding pursuit of mobility. However this concerns a partly mediation by pursuit of mobility, since the standard coefficient β is still significant in the second step (p=.04).

7.10. Regression analysis of mobility perspective on unbalance of career development components.

Multiple multivariate regression analysis of aspects of mobility perspective on unbalance with regard to five career development components.

Independent variables	Dependent variables	Wilks' λ	Multivariate			Univariate					
			F	df	Eta ²	F	Eta ²	B			
Unbalance of: 1. Career networking	1. Horizontal scope	.97	1.76	4, 233	.03	2.67	.01	.10			
	2. Vertical scope					2.95			.16		
	3. Org. int. pursuit					.02				.01	
	4. Org. ext. pursuit					2.50					.14
2. Monitoring career opportunities	1. Horizontal scope	.96	2.53*	4, 233	.04	4.83*	.02	-.16			
	2. Vertical scope					.39			.07		
	3. Org. int. pursuit					1.38				.12	
	4. Org. ext. pursuit					.55					.08
3. Career planning	1. Horizontal scope	.97	1.72	4, 233	.03	.16	.00	-.02			
	2. Vertical scope					.69			-.08		
	3. Org. int. pursuit					4.13*				.17	
	4. Org. ext. pursuit					2.36					.14
4. Shaping learning opportunities	1. Horizontal scope	.97	1.79	4, 233	.03	2.03	.01	.10			
	2. Vertical scope					7.24**			.03		
	3. Org. int. pursuit					.60				.07	
	4. Org. ext. pursuit					.24					.05
5. Combining work and non-work	1. Horizontal scope	.95	2.80*	4, 233	.05	3.82	.02	.09			
	2. Vertical scope					.98			.00		
	3. Org. int. pursuit					.50				.05	
	4. Org. ext. pursuit					.28					.00

7.11. Mediator role HRD-pattern of relation between unbalance and mobility scope?

Multiple hierarchical linear regression analysis with unbalance of the psychological career contract and narrower HRD-pattern as predictor variables and mobility scope as the dependent variable.

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	ΔR^2	F	ΔF	df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	Unbalance	.21	.05	.04	.05	11.49**	11.49**	1, 240	3.39	.21**
2	Unbalance HRD-pattern	.34	.12	.11	.07	15.88**	19.38**	2, 239	3.73	.23**
									4.40	.27**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level.

No mediation of the relation between unbalance and scope by the narrower HRD-pattern.

Multiple hierarchical linear regression analysis with unbalance of the psychological career contract and broader HRD-pattern as predictor variables and mobility scope as the dependent variable.

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	ΔR^2	F	ΔF	df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	Unbalance	.21	.05	.04	.05	11.49**	11.49**	1, 240	3.39	.21**
2	Unbalance Broader HRD-pattern	.34	.11	.11	.07	15.35**	18.37**	2, 239	3.62	.22**
									4.29	.26**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .05 level.

No mediation of the relation between unbalance and scope by the broader HRD-pattern.

7.12. Mediator-role broader HRD-pattern of relation between commitment / support and mobility scope.

7.12.a. Relation between commitment and mobility scope: mediated by broader HRD-pattern?

Multiple hierarchical linear regression analysis with commitment and broader HRD-pattern as predictor variables and mobility scope as the dependent variable.

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Δ R ²	F	Δ F	df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	Commitment	.11	.01	.01	.01	2.91*	2.91*	1, 240	1.71	.11*
2	Commitment Broader HRD-pattern	.26	.07	.06	.05	8.36**	13.66**	2, 239	.09 3.70	.01 .25**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .10-level.

Broader HRD-pattern mediates relation between commitment and mobility scope.

7.12.b. Relation between support and mobility scope: mediated by broader HRD-pattern?

Multiple hierarchical linear regression analysis with support and broader HRD-pattern as predictor variables and mobility scope as the dependent variable.

Step	Variable	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Δ R ²	F	Δ F	df	T	Std. Coeff. β
1	Support	.12	.02	.01	.02	3.76*	3.76*	1, 240	-1.94	-.12*
2	Support Broader HRD-pattern	.33	.11	.10	.09	14.30**	24.47**	2, 239	-3.33 4.95	-.21** .32**

** significant at the .01 level; * significant at the .10-level.

Broader HRD-pattern does not mediate relation between support and mobility scope.

Summary

This thesis focuses on the significance of managers' HRD-activities (or learning activities) in a modern career context. More precisely, we studied whether managers' expectations with regard to career self-management directly or indirectly (via the HRD-pattern) impact their mobility perspectives.

The introductory chapter describes several developments in the field of Human Resource Development (HRD) that served as the starting point for this research project. Changes in organisations' environments, the new meaning of learning, the development of new labour relations and the increasing emphasis recently put on employees' self-management attitude, were addressed. Furthermore, the special position of managers within organisations has been described. These emerging trends were summarised by concluding that in general a shift can be observed from short-term learning objectives (e.g. performance) largely determined by the organisation, to long-term learning objectives (e.g. employability) increasingly involving individual responsibility. Consequently, topics such as employability and individual career development have become important.

The aim of the project as a whole was to gain insight into the significance of learning in a manager's career both in a descriptive and an evaluative sense. The descriptive approach entails the characterisation of all kinds of HRD-activities that managers use aimed at their development as managers. The evaluative approach links learning to certain career outcomes.

The first chapter finishes with some remarks about the theoretical and practical relevance of the study. It is expected that the present study contributes to better insights into the complex relations between career self-management perceptions, learning behaviour and perspectives on career mobility. Although studies have been done on various concepts of our research model separately, research into the link between the three concepts was still lacking. Finally, the study was described as practically relevant by its contribution to organisational problem solving. More specifically, the study aims to provide information about how to optimise employees' learning behaviour and wants to provide insights into reasons behind employees' career choices.

The second chapter reports on a literature study on management tasks and management learning. We started with a description of who a manager actually is. The main element of "being a manager" entails the supervisory responsibility over subordinates. As such, our definition of a manager is largely similar to the definition of a leader. Prerequisite for studying managers' HRD-activities is to have a good insight into the nature of managerial work as the domain of learning. We therefore described taxonomies of management behaviour from different angles and approaches. We also discussed some of the criticism found in literature and major ideas about managerial effectiveness. A comparison of these taxonomies and a consideration of their applicability to our study, we decided to use Luthans' taxonomy of the management job, which includes four clusters of management tasks: communication, traditional management, networking and Human Resources Management (HRM) tasks. We follow an empirical approach of the management job, which comprises activities that managers *actually* do, rather than activities that they *should* do.

The second part of the chapter addresses "learning" in general and "management learning" in specific, with the aim to make a choice for a categorisation of HRD-activities, to be further used to characterise managers' learning behaviour. We first described Human Resource Development (HRD) as the field of study. Then, our view on learning and HRD-activities was explained by discussing some major ideas from the constructivist approach, followed by comments on the specific choice we made for an activity-approach of learning. We defined HRD-activities as all kinds of ways to acquire new competences,

both on and off the job. The activity approach assigns importance to *observable* actions that people carry out in order to learn, in contrast to the learning process approach that puts more emphasis on the meaning of knowledge construction and the hidden mental processes that take place when learning.

We described the level of formalisation and the location of learning as major dimensions along which managers' HRD-activities may vary. Themes such as the relation between formal and informal learning, the level of intention of learning and issues related to on-the-job and off-the-job learning were described. Furthermore, it was illustrated that one's first management job serves as a fruitful learning situation. Based on the literature we presented four categories of HRD-activities, varying from generally formal and off the job to generally informal and on the job activities: 1) Training, workshops, courses, etc.; 2) Learning by seeking information, 3) Learning by asking advice, and 4) Learning by doing. Finally, the relation was addressed between on the one hand background characteristics at individual and management task level and on the other hand the use of HRD-activities. The chapter concluded with a number of hypotheses regarding the nature of HRD-activities to be tested in the third chapter.

In the third chapter we report on an empirical study on HRD-activities and management tasks, aimed at gaining insight into the characterisation of HRD-activities (in a descriptive way) and into the issue of task-relatedness of managers' HRD-activities. In this exploratory study 70 managers from two organisations participated. The organisations were an army department and a department of an international chain of fast-food restaurants. Most of the participants were working in first line management jobs as leaders of teams or departments.

The method we used in this first research phase was a structured written questionnaire. To test both the chosen description of the management job and our own categorisation of HRD-activities we included some open questions, too. On the basis of qualitative analyses and on reflection by respondents, it was concluded that no changes were required and that the chosen categorisations were useful for our study.

The exploratory study revealed that managers are engaged in all kinds of HRD-activities to a moderate extent. In general, the rule applies that the more informal an HRD-activity is, the more managers use it. No support was found for the compensation of formal and informal HRD-activities, instead indications were found for interdependency of types of HRD-activities: people who use one type of HRD-activity to a large extent will add to their learning by using another type of HRD-activity. Furthermore, we concluded that learning by doing is an amalgam of several incidental and intentional HRD-activities. An important dimension to distinguish between learning-by-doing activities is level of intention (or level of planning) of HRD-activities. Furthermore, it appeared that with age the use of HRD-activities declines.

Managers are frequently engaged in the management tasks that we included in the study and they value these tasks to a high extent. Both frequency and importance of the management tasks are positively related to the extent to which HRD-activities are directed to them. This goes for all clusters of management tasks. As expected, formal training is least strongly related to frequency of management tasks and learning by doing most strongly. We found a task-generic pattern of HRD-activities, which means that managers learn different management tasks in similar ways. Consequently, in further research steps HRD-activities are not measured task-specifically.

A major conclusion of this chapter relates to the level of initiative that managers take for using HRD-activities. Managers indicate to merely learn on their own initiative. However, no support was found for a relation between the level of HRD-initiative and extent of used HRD-activities. Apparently, for the extent to which HRD-activities are used it is not essential *who* takes the initiative. We assume that it would be more interesting to study *how* a person comes to take initiative in learning. More insight into

the perceptions underlying the level of HRD-initiative was desired. For this purpose we decided to include theory on the psychological contract in our study.

The fourth chapter describes the theoretical framework comprising career development and the psychological career contract. The significance of managers' learning activities is now approached from an evaluative point of view. The chapter results in a conceptual research model.

Career development was given a dynamic meaning: "the continuous process of *active* engagement in self-managed career development activities aimed at optimising one's career mobility perspective". We discussed the shift from traditional to modern career development, which included a description of some major theories on career development. Moreover, the concepts of the boundaryless and the protean career were addressed. In these new labour relationships emphasis is put on flexibility and career self-management, which implies that development is *the* central element of a career, and the primary responsibility for development lies with the 'self', the employee. This career self-management attitude appears from the responsibility and initiative individuals take with regard to their own learning and other so-called modern career development activities, such as combining working and private life, career planning and networking.

Employability has become the new career goal. Accordingly, employability-related concepts such as flexibility and mobility have evolved, too. The traditional idea of career development as upward progression has made way for more emphasis on lateral moves and growth in one's job. More emphasis is put on generic value of HRD-activities, which is supposed to result in higher levels of employability and according mobility. Furthermore, beside generic value of HRD-activities, frequency and planning of HRD-activities have been described as important HRD-dimensions in the modern career.

The focus of the second part of chapter 4 was on the psychological contract and in particular on the psychological *career* contract. Career development is a mutual responsibility of organisations and employees. Expectations that employees have about their career development and about what they expect from their employers are part of the so-called psychological career contract. The organisation may fulfil its part of the contract by supplying mental support and more concrete facilities for career development. Individuals are expected to take control of their own career development.

We described the historical development of the psychological contract concept and presented several definitions. Psychological contracts are "individual beliefs, shaped by the organization, regarding terms of an exchange agreement between individuals and their organization". The "psychological *career* contract" was introduced as a particular form of contract in which career development is the central domain. More precisely, we defined the psychological career contract as employees' perceptions of mutual expectations and obligations employees and employers have about individual career self-management commitment and organisational career self-management support.

After we discussed several measurement issues that arise when studying the psychological contract, the evaluation of the psychological contract and its consequences were described. It was explained that the level of balance (between the mutual perspectives within the contract) is important in this respect. The reactions that may follow from the nature of the psychological contract were described both from the point of view of the individual employee and of the organisation. Moreover, we introduce our own typology of the psychological career contract, which contains the modern type, the traditional type, the push-related type and the pull-related type.

Psychological contracts always refer to an exchange relationship between different parties; we described one in particular, the relation between manager and subordinate. Furthermore, some expectations regarding age and educational level in relation to the psychological career contract were presented.

The chapter finishes with the presentation of a conceptual research model (see Figure 4.8.). The main idea of the model is that managers' mobility perspectives may be affected via two paths: the HRD-path and the flight-path. We presented hypotheses about these two paths on the basis of two different approaches to the psychological career contract: the modernity approach and the balance approach.

According to the HRD-path the psychological career contract indirectly influences the mobility perspective via managers' learning behaviour. The modernity of career perceptions (of employers and employees) is assumed to lead to generic learning behaviour, which in turn leads to broader mobility scopes. The flight-path represents a direct relation between the psychological career contract and the mobility perspective. This path is characterised by a certain level of dissatisfaction based on unbalanced expectations within the psychological career contract and makes managers strive for (external) mobility.

Finally, an overview of hypotheses is given regarding the research model as a whole and with regard to sub-relations within the model. Additional hypotheses were formulated with regard to the relation between managers and subordinates and with regard to background characteristics.

In the fifth chapter a description is given of the method of the second and the third research phases: a pilot study and the main study. The chapter starts with reporting on the development of the research instrument (a written questionnaire), which comprises the three main concepts of the research model: 1) the HRD-pattern, 2) the psychological career contract, and 3) the mobility perspective. The items that we used to measure these concepts were described.

In the pilot study the research instrument was tested. Participants of this study were 39 managers who run a management course organised by a training institute. On the basis of the pilot study we were able to reduce the number of items of the instrument and we gained first insight into the reliability of the scales. These analyses revealed that all total scales measuring the main concepts have good reliabilities, except for the "frequency of HRD-activities" scale. Similar difficulties with the measurement of investment in HRD-activities were found in other studies.

We continued to describe how the main study (third research phase) was conducted. A description of the selection of managers and organisations was given. We selected six large Dutch companies in Banking & Insurance and one Temporary Employment agency. Overall, we reached a satisfactory response rate of 39.2%. We used 242 questionnaires in the statistical analyses. Managers participating in the study were on average 38 years of age, relatively higher educated, mostly fulfilling full-time jobs, most of the time as line managers (ranging from lower to higher line management).

The chapter describes how the instrument was further developed. An important decision was made with regard to the categories of HRD-activities; the number of categories was reduced to three; both non-formal HRD-activities "seeking information" and "asking advice" could be approached as one category "gathering information". The remainder of the study reports on the categories formal, non-formal and informal HRD-activities.

Furthermore, we defined the HRD-pattern as a whole in a narrower and a broader sense. The narrower definition focuses on the generic value that various HRD-activities have. This narrower definition was chosen as the core indicator of managers' learning behaviour. The broader definition entails the three dimensions of HRD-activities: generic value, frequency and planning. The HRD-pattern may vary from poor to rich, referring to the value it is assumed to have for the development of mobility perspectives.

With regard to the psychological career contract, all total scales (including the contract in mental terms and in terms of facilities) appeared reliable. We introduced two measures for the psychological career contract as a *whole*: 1. modernity of the contract as a sum score of individual commitment and organisational support, and 2. unbalance of the contract as the difference between individual commitment and organisational support.

Factor analysis on the psychological career contract items revealed a five-factor solution of career development components: career networking, monitoring career opportunities (which is a reflective type of career planning activities), planning career changes, shaping learning opportunities, and combining work and non-work.

The mobility perspective as a whole was described to consist of the components mobility scope (horizontal and vertical) and pursuit of mobility (organisation-internal and organisation-external). An additional indicator of employees' mobility attitude is the verticality of pursuit of mobility, which was however not regarded as a core variable.

Some extra variables were introduced, such as subordinates' HRD-pattern and the manager's HR-role. With regard to the fulfilment of the HR-role a distinction was made between the development-oriented, the discipline-oriented and the staffing-role.

At the end of the fifth chapter an overview was presented of the (adjusted) scales that have been used throughout the main study. Chapter five concluded with an explanation of the procedure that we followed with regard to the data analysis as reported on in the empirical chapters 6 and 7.

The sixth chapter focuses on the relation between the psychological career contract and the HRD-pattern of managers. The major question was about the extent to which managers' psychological career contracts influence their HRD-patterns.

A general conclusion that was drawn in this chapter was that the patterns of HRD-activities that managers use, are moderately till highly beneficial for the creation of mobility chances in the future.

Furthermore, it appeared that managers feel highly committed to and moderately supported for career self-management. With regard to all career development components, the score on commitment is significantly higher than the level of perceived support for career self-management.

We found a relation between the psychological career contract in mental terms and in terms of facilities. The more managers feel responsible for controlling their own career, the more they expect from their organisation in terms of facilities. Furthermore, it appeared that the more unbalanced one contract is, the more unbalanced the other contract is as well.

The results of the study show that commitment to and support for career self-management are important for managers' HRD-patterns; they both have a unique main effect on the richness of managers' learning behaviour. The influence of commitment is stronger than the influence of support on HRD-pattern. Moreover, the interaction-effect of commitment and support on HRD-pattern was analysed, but does not seem to exist for the group as a whole. On a more detailed level the analyses seem to reveal an interaction-effect. The results indicate that an abundance of support of highly committed managers has a counteracting result; that is, it leads to a poorer HRD-pattern. To reach optimally rich HRD-patterns, highly committed managers can do with moderate support for career self-management.

A comparison of the modernity and the balance approach of the psychological career contract, reveals that for the explanation of the richness of managers' HRD-patterns, it is the sum of commitment to and support for career self-management that is essential. The higher the score on both, the more beneficial the HRD-pattern will be for future career-prospects¹. The discrepancy that exists between the level of career self-management commitment and support is not essential in this respect. The balance approach does not contribute to the explanation of the richness of managers' HRD-patterns.

A remarkable finding is that both the modernity score of combining work and non-work and the unbalance score with regard to this component are higher than for all other career development components. At first sight this large unbalance seems rather worrying, however, neither unbalance nor modernity regarding this component impacts the richness of HRD-patterns.

¹ A restriction of this modernity-mechanism lies in the fact that for a rich HRD-pattern to develop, a high level of commitment is better to be supplemented with moderate support.

We found that it is especially commitment to and support for monitoring career opportunities that has a positive effect on the richness of a manager's HRD-pattern. This career development component concerns a reflective approach to career planning. It involves activities such as reviewing the current job-position and determining whether it is a good place to stay some time longer or not. Another example is to find out which career ambitions one possesses. Apparently, it is not only the active observable actions by which one's career may progress; it is especially the time and effort that managers are prepared to spend on career reflection, or monitoring, and who are supported to do so, which helps the career to develop.

With regard to background characteristics it was concluded that with age the HRD-pattern of managers grows poorer and the frequency of career-planning activities decreases. Furthermore, age is negatively related to the level of commitment to career self-management and the level of modernity of the contract as a whole. Interestingly, this negative relation counts especially for the career-planning component. With age managers' responsibility for career-planning diminishes. Furthermore, educational level seems to relate positively to planning of HRD-activities and to engagement in career-planning activities. No relation was found between educational level and the psychological career contract.

With respect to the relation between managers and subordinates, the conclusion was drawn that managers consider themselves highly supportive towards career self-management of their subordinates. The highest level of subordinate support was given by development-oriented managers. Moreover, the level of subordinate support was found to be positively related to the richness of subordinates' formal HRD-patterns. Another finding is that HRD-patterns of managers and subordinates are positively correlated. Finally, the results of our study show that managers apply two different models of participation. On the one hand they apply the human resources model for themselves in relation to their own superiors, thus expecting to be given room for self-direction. On the other hand, they apply the human relations model for themselves in relation to their subordinates, giving them support for career self-management to a lesser extent than they themselves expect to be given.

The central issue of the seventh chapter is the extent to which managers' mobility perspectives are influenced by the nature of their psychological career contracts and their HRD-patterns.

It was concluded that managers' perspectives on mobility as a whole are moderately favourable for mobility chances in the future. In general managers have broad mobility scopes and intermediately high levels of pursuit of mobility. Managers are primarily focused on organisation-internal mobility at the same hierarchical level. Furthermore, the relation between mobility scope and pursuit of mobility is positive. It appeared that the desire to fulfil another job becomes less with age and that higher educated managers have a higher pursuit of mobility than lower educated managers.

Furthermore, it was concluded that the richness of managers' HRD-patterns contributes to a better mobility perspective. More specifically, it appears that particularly managers who learn in a broad way and who plan their HRD-activities to a high extent perceive themselves to be employable in a broad range of jobs on hierarchically higher management jobs. When this perception of vertical mobility scope is actually transformed into a pursuit of mobility, it is likely that generic and planned learning behaviour gives managers the best perspective on mobility. Frequency of HRD-activities does not seem to play a significant role in the light of managers' mobility perspectives.

We found that commitment to career self-management positively impacts the mobility scope via the use of HRD-activities. Apparently, HRD-activities are necessary, in particular HRD-activities with generic value, in order for the mobility scope to broaden. Employability does not come all by itself; investment in broadly applicable knowledge and skills is required.

We assumed that when managers would be stimulated by their organisation to take control of their own career development, this would benefit their mobility perspective. Unexpectedly, we found that support for career self-management directly negatively influences all aspects of the mobility perspective. This finding was interpreted by assuming that support for career self-management leads to a higher level of satisfaction with one's current boss and thus to a larger intention to stay.

Interestingly, the negative effect of support on mobility perspective is stronger than the positive effect of commitment on mobility perspective. When mobility is desired, it is recommended to put effort in transforming the negative effect of support into a positive effect.

On the basis of the finding that the modernity of the psychological career contract is also directly negatively related to pursuit of mobility, we conclude that when organisations provide a "modern career climate" in which managers can be both self-managing and in which support is being provided for this attitude, managers will be inclined to stay.

Furthermore, it appeared that the level of unbalance of the contract directly influences the level of pursuit of mobility. This relation is not mediated by the HRD-pattern. Managers thus seem to follow the "flight-path" in case they perceive an unbalanced psychological career contract. This flight reaction originates from the negative starting point in which career self-management commitment and career self-management support do not match. In contrast, the HRD-path symbolises a positive trajectory. As a result of a modern career contract, in which career self-management is the norm, the mobility perspective is enhanced. HRD-activities are being used to broaden one's mobility scope. The range of jobs managers are able to fulfil becomes larger as a consequence of competence improvement. This increased perception of competence in turn leads to the drive to actually utilise this increased level of competence. The mobility perspective as the combination of both the ability and the willingness to become mobile thus becomes more favourable.

The conclusion based on regression analyses and path-analyses is that the relation between the psychological career contract and the mobility perspective is mediated by the HRD-pattern when a modernity perspective is chosen. When we focus on unbalance of the contract a direct relation exists with pursuit of mobility.

In sum, employees' mobility perspectives can be enlarged in two ways: as a result of modern career notions and as a result of an unbalanced psychological career contract. We concluded the chapter with stressing that the HRD-path and the flight-path are not equally satisfactory and desirable.

Chapter eight draws general conclusions and discusses the main findings of our study. Moreover, recommendations for future research and implications for the HRD-field have been described.

With regard to managers' HRD-patterns, general conclusions drawn are that managers use a large variety of activities for their development as managers, which are merely informal in nature, and are used management-task independently. An interesting conclusion is that managers' learning behaviour seems to be determined by an underlying career interest or orientation. Finally, we addressed the lack of support for the compensation of formal and informal HRD-activities and the distinct nature of formal HRD-activities in comparison to all other types of HRD-activities. Methodological issues that we described pertaining to managers' HRD-patterns, are the low reliability of frequency of managers HRD-activities and difficulties with regard to the measurement of informal HRD-activities as a result of the unstructured and unorganised character of such HRD-activities.

With respect to the characterisation of managers' psychological career contracts, we concluded that managers' sense of responsibility for their career development concerns a general attitude. A so-called protean employee self-manages all career development components and not a selection of them. Furthermore, the component "combining work and non-work" was described as rather different in nature compared to all other career development activities. This component is the most modern and the most unbalanced at the same time. Several methodological issues were addressed with regard to

the psychological career contract, such as the choice for an etic approach and the assumption of relative stability of career self-management expectations over time.

The mobility perspectives of managers were described as intermediately favourable for both the individual and for the participating organisations. The study provides a picture of broadly employable employees, who are also prepared to change jobs organisation-internally, which provides the so-needed organisational flexibility. The most important methodological issue that we described here is the self-perception measure of mobility scope.

With regard to the research model as a whole, we concluded that generic HRD-activities do play a significant role in the light of a modern career context. The path via modern career perceptions to mobility scope is mediated by the use of HRD-activities. It seems, then, that the enhancement of one's mobility perspective does not take place "itself". It needs learning efforts in order for the scope of jobs that a manager may fulfil to broaden. Furthermore, the study provides evidence for the fact that once the radius of possible jobs is broad, the pursuit of mobility grows as well.

Methodological issues that we further discussed are the use of self-perception throughout the research project, the assumed direction of the relations within the research model and the percentages of explained variance.

The results of the study cannot simply be generalised to other contexts, further research is needed to test the research model for other groups of employees (e.g. lower educated people in non-managerial positions) and in other organisational contexts (e.g. organisation in change). Other recommendations that we gave for future study are to use qualitative data to deepen the understanding of the complex relations studied. Moreover, it was proposed to involve more than the manager's perspective only in psychological career contract research. Additional insight could be gained, for instance, by including managers' superordinates and subordinates. Further research was suggested into ways to encourage generic learning by older employees in particular. It was proposed to include additional variables in future studies of the research model, such as career ambitions and home situation. Finally, in order to get more insight into the actual career moves that managers make, it was recommended to study the research model by a longitudinal research design.

Furthermore, we gave a description of several practical implications of the study for the field of HRD. We stressed the importance of the encouragement of generic learning activities of all groups of employees and for older employees in particular. Furthermore, from the study it has become clear that for organisations it is essential to equip the workplace as a learning environment. With regard to the nature of the psychological career contract, we emphasised to stimulate a modern attitude towards career development in general and towards career mobility in particular. The adjustment and clarification of mutual expectations between employers and employees is a point that deserves attention. For the development of favourable mobility perspectives, it is of utmost importance that clarity exist about what the different parties involved may expect from each other, which increases the chance on balanced contracts to prevail. Furthermore, the level of support for career self-management must be adjusted to the person involved in order to achieve rich HRD-patterns.

The chapter finishes with the conclusion that, from an organisational perspective, the strategic choice to support employees' career development and to recognise the value of management learning, will benefit both the organisation and the broader labour market.

Samenvatting (summary in Dutch)

Dit proefschrift gaat over de betekenis van HRD-activiteiten (of leeractiviteiten) in het kader van moderne loopbanen van managers. De vraag is of denkbeelden van managers over de mate van loopbaanzelfsturing (of zelfmanagement van de loopbaan) direct of indirect (via het scholingspatroon) van invloed zijn op de ontwikkeling van hun mobiliteitsperspectief.

Het inleidende hoofdstuk beschrijft verschillende ontwikkelingen op het gebied van Human Resource Development (HRD) die hebben gediend als uitgangspunt voor het onderhavige onderzoek. Deze ontwikkelingen zijn bijvoorbeeld de veranderingen in de omgeving van organisaties, de nieuwe betekenis van leren, het ontstaan van nieuwe arbeidsrelaties, de nadruk die wordt gelegd op een zelfmanagement attitude of zelfsturend vermogen van werknemers en de bijzondere positie van managers binnen organisaties. Na de beschrijving van deze trends is de samenvattende conclusie getrokken dat over het algemeen een verschuiving kan worden waargenomen van korte termijn leerdoelen (bijv. performance), voornamelijk vastgesteld door de organisatie, naar meer lange termijn leerdoelen (bijv. employability) waarbij een zekere individuele verantwoordelijkheid nodig is. Deze verschuiving heeft tot gevolg dat het belang van thema's zoals employability en individuele loopbaanontwikkeling is toegenomen.

Het doel van het totale onderzoeksproject is inzicht te verkrijgen in de betekenis van leren in het kader van loopbanen van managers, zowel in descriptieve als in evaluatieve zin. De descriptieve benadering beoogt allerlei HRD-activiteiten te karakteriseren die managers inzetten om zich te ontwikkelen tot manager. De evaluatieve benadering relateert leren aan loopbaan uitkomsten.

Het eerste hoofdstuk sluit af met een bespreking van de theoretische en praktische relevantie van het onderzoek. De onderhavige studie beoogt bij te dragen aan betere inzichten in de complexe relatie tussen verwachtingen omtrent loopbaanzelfsturing, leergedrag en mobiliteitsperspectieven. Verschillende studies zijn uitgevoerd naar de afzonderlijke concepten van het onderzoeksmodel. De relatie tussen de drie concepten is echter nog niet eerder bestudeerd. De bijdrage die deze studie kan leveren aan het oplossen van problemen binnen organisaties, maakt deze studie praktisch relevant. Zo geeft de studie inzicht in achterliggende redenen van loopbaanbeslissingen en wordt duidelijk welke leeractiviteiten dienen te worden gestimuleerd om optimaal bij te dragen aan de ontwikkeling van het mobiliteitsperspectief.

Het tweede hoofdstuk rapporteert over een literatuurstudie over managementtaken en leren door managers. Eerst wordt beschreven wie een manager eigenlijk is. Het belangrijkste element van het "manager-zijn" is het hebben van leidinggevende verantwoordelijkheid over werknemers. Onze definitie van een manager is daarom grotendeels gelijk aan die van een leider.

Voor het bestuderen van HRD-activiteiten van managers is het noodzakelijk om inzicht te hebben in de aard van managementtaken als leerdomein. Om die reden beschrijven we taxonomieën van managementgedrag volgens verschillende benaderingen. Ook plaatsen we een aantal kritische kanttekeningen bij deze benaderingen van de managementfunctie. Tevens beschrijven we een aantal belangrijke opvattingen over managementeffectiviteit.

Op basis van een vergelijking van deze taxonomieën en een beschouwing van de toepasbaarheid hiervan voor onze studie, besloten we om de taxonomie van de managementfunctie ontwikkeld door Luthans te gebruiken in ons onderzoek. Deze taxonomie beschrijft vier clusters van managementtaken: communicatie, traditioneel management, netwerken en Human Resources

Management (HRM). Deze keuze impliceert een empirische benadering van de managementfunctie; het gaat om activiteiten die managers *werkelijk* doen en niet de activiteiten die zij *behoren* te doen.

Om een keuze te kunnen maken voor een categorisatie van HRD-activiteiten om vervolgens leergedrag van managers te kunnen typeren, beschrijft het tweede deel van dit hoofdstuk leren in het algemeen en leren door managers in het bijzonder. Allereerst wordt Human Resource Development (HRD) beschreven als studiegebied, vervolgens lichten we onze kijk op leren en HRD-activiteiten toe aan de hand van een aantal belangrijke ideeën uit het constructivisme. Tevens wordt de specifieke keuze voor een activiteitenbenadering van leren uitgelegd.

We definiëren HRD-activiteiten als allerlei manieren om nieuwe competenties te verwerven, zowel op de werkplek alsook daarbuiten. Een activiteitenbenadering hecht belang aan *zichtbare* handelingen die mensen uitvoeren om iets te leren, in tegenstelling tot een *leerproces*benadering die meer nadruk legt op de betekenis van kennisconstructie en op verborgen mentale processen die plaatsvinden tijdens het leren.

We beschrijven twee dimensies volgens welke HRD-activiteiten van managers kunnen variëren: de mate van formalisering en de locatie van leren. Andere thema's die aan de orde worden gesteld zijn onder andere de relatie tussen formeel en informeel leren en de mate van bewustheid (of intentie) van leren. Verder wordt toegelicht dat iemands eerste managementfunctie of leidinggevende positie een bijzonder vruchtbare leersituatie vormt.

Op basis van literatuuronderzoek worden vier categorieën van HRD-activiteiten gepresenteerd variërend van voornamelijk formele en off-the-job activiteiten tot voornamelijk informele en on-the-job activiteiten: 1) Training, workshops, cursussen, etc.; 2) leren door het opzoeken van informatie, 3) leren door het vragen van advies, en 4) leren door te doen. Tenslotte wordt de relatie beschreven tussen achtergrondfactoren op het niveau van management taken en op individueel niveau enerzijds en het gebruik van HRD-activiteiten anderzijds. Het hoofdstuk sluit af met een aantal hypothesen over de aard van HRD-activiteiten, welke zullen worden getest in het onderzoek dat in het derde hoofdstuk wordt beschreven.

Het derde hoofdstuk beschrijft een empirische studie naar HRD-activiteiten en managementtaken en heeft ten doel inzicht te verkrijgen in de aard van HRD-activiteiten (in descriptieve zin) en in de taakafhankelijkheid van HRD-activiteiten van managers.

Aan deze exploratieve studie hebben 70 managers deelgenomen van twee organisaties; een onderdeel van het leger en een internationale keten van fast-food restaurants. De meeste deelnemers waren werkzaam in eerstelijns managementposities als teamleider of afdelingshoofd.

De onderzoeksmethode die we hebben gebruikt in deze eerste onderzoeksfase betreft een gestructureerde schriftelijke vragenlijst. Om zowel onze eigen categorisatie van HRD-activiteiten als de gekozen beschrijving van de managementfunctie te testen, is tevens een aantal open vragen in de vragenlijst opgenomen. Gebaseerd op kwalitatieve analyses en op reflectie door de respondenten is geconcludeerd dat geen aanpassingen nodig waren en dat de oorspronkelijk gekozen categorieën bruikbaar zijn voor het vervolg van de studie.

De exploratieve studie wijst uit dat managers middelmatig (noch veel, noch weinig) gebruik maken van allerlei typen HRD-activiteiten. Over het algemeen blijkt de regel te gelden dat maarmate de HRD-activiteit meer informeel van aard is, managers deze activiteit meer gebruiken. Er is geen aanwijzing gevonden voor het optreden van compensatie van formele en informele HRD-activiteiten. Integendeel, er zijn indicaties voor interdependentie van verschillende typen HRD-activiteiten: wanneer managers een bepaald type HRD-activiteit veel gebruiken, zullen zij juist ook de andere typen HRD-activiteiten inzetten om nog meer te kunnen leren. Verder concluderen we dat de categorie leren-door-te-doen allerlei incidentele en intentionele HRD-activiteiten omvat. De mate van intentie (of mate van planning)

van HRD-activiteiten lijkt van belang bij de typering van HRD-activiteiten van managers. Tenslotte blijkt dat met het stijgen van de leeftijd, het gebruik van HRD-activiteiten afneemt.

Managers geven aan in hoge mate bezig te zijn met de onderscheiden managementtaken, welke zij bovendien in hoge mate van belang achten. Zowel de frequentie waarmee managementtaken worden uitgevoerd als het belang dat aan deze taken wordt gehecht, hangen positief samen met de mate waarin managers HRD-activiteiten richten op deze taken. Dit gaat op voor alle clusters van managementtaken. Zoals verwacht hangt participatie in formele training het minst sterk samen met frequentie van managementtaken en het gebruik van leren-door-te-doen activiteiten het sterkst.

Er is een taak-generiek patroon van HRD-activiteiten gevonden, wat betekent dat managers verschillende managementtaken op een zelfde wijze leren. Op basis van deze bevinding is besloten om in het vervolg van de studie HRD-activiteiten niet langer taakspecifiek te meten.

Een belangrijke conclusie van dit hoofdstuk betreft de mate waarin managers initiatief tonen bij het gebruik van HRD-activiteiten. Managers geven aan vooral te leren op eigen initiatief. We vonden echter geen relatie tussen de mate van HRD-initiatief en de mate van gebruik van HRD-activiteiten. Blijkbaar is het in dit verband niet van essentieel belang *wie* het initiatief tot leren neemt. Het lijkt interessanter na te gaan *hoe* een persoon komt tot het nemen van initiatief tot leren. Het leek daarom wenselijk om meer inzicht te verkrijgen in onderliggende percepties van HRD-initiatief. Om deze reden besloten we om de theorie over het zogenaamde psychologische contract in onze studie te betrekken.

Het vierde hoofdstuk beschrijft het theoretische kader met betrekking tot loopbaanontwikkeling en het psychologische loopbaancontract. De betekenis van HRD-activiteiten van managers wordt nu benaderd vanuit een evaluatief perspectief. Het hoofdstuk resulteert in een conceptueel onderzoeksmodel.

Allereerst wordt de dynamische invulling van het concept loopbaanontwikkeling toegelicht. Het is een continu proces van actieve betrokkenheid bij zelfgestuurde loopbaanontwikkelingsactiviteiten met als doel het perspectief op mobiliteit te optimaliseren. Vervolgens bespreken we de overgang van een traditionele naar een moderne opvatting van loopbaanontwikkeling en geven we een beschrijving van enkele belangrijke loopbaantheorieën. Ook wordt aandacht geschonken aan de concepten “boundaryless career” en “protean career”. In deze nieuwe arbeidsrelaties wordt meer nadruk gelegd op flexibiliteit en loopbaanzelfsturing of, in andere woorden, zelfmanagement van de loopbaan. Deze nieuwe benadering beschouwt ontwikkeling als hét centrale element van de loopbaan. Bovendien wordt de primaire verantwoordelijkheid voor ontwikkeling bij het individu zelf, de werknemer, gelegd.

Deze zelfmanagement attitude ten aanzien van de loopbaan blijkt uit de verantwoordelijkheid en het initiatief dat individuen nemen met betrekking tot hun eigen leeractiviteiten en andere zogenaamde moderne loopbaanontwikkelingsactiviteiten zoals het combineren van werk en privé-leven, het plannen van de loopbaan en het opbouwen van netwerken.

Employability wordt gezien als het nieuwe loopbaandoel. Als gevolg hiervan is het belang toegenomen van aan employability gerelateerde begrippen zoals flexibiliteit en mobiliteit. De traditionele opvatting van loopbaanontwikkeling als opwaartse progressie van de carrière heeft plaats gemaakt voor meer nadruk op laterale loopbaanbewegingen en (persoonlijke) groei in de huidige functie. Het belang van generieke HRD-activiteiten wordt meer benadrukt omdat wordt aangenomen dat deze zullen leiden tot een hogere mate van employability en mobiliteit. Naast de generieke waarde van HRD-activiteiten worden ook de frequentie en de mate van planning van HRD-activiteiten beschreven als belangrijke HRD-dimensies in het kader van moderne loopbanen.

Het tweede deel van hoofdstuk 4 gaat in op het psychologisch contract en in het bijzonder op het psychologisch *loopbaan*contract. Loopbaanontwikkeling is een wederzijdse verantwoordelijkheid van organisaties en haar werknemers. Onderdeel van het zogenaamde psychologische loopbaancontract zijn verwachtingen van werknemers ten aanzien van de loopbaanontwikkeling en ook over de rol

hierin van de werkgever. De organisatie kan haar deel van het contract vervullen door haar werknemers mentale ondersteuning te bieden en door het aanreiken van meer concrete faciliteiten voor loopbaanontwikkeling. Van individuele werknemers wordt verwacht dat zij zelf de controle nemen over hun eigen loopbaanontwikkeling.

Er wordt ingegaan op de historische ontwikkeling van het begrip psychologisch contract en verschillende definities passeren de revue. Een psychologisch contract betreft individuele opvattingen, beïnvloed door de organisatie, met betrekking tot een uitwisselingsovereenkomst tussen individuen en hun organisatie. Vervolgens wordt het psychologisch loopbaancontract geïntroduceerd als een bijzonder type psychologisch contract waarbij loopbaanontwikkeling het centrale domein is. We formuleerden de volgende definitie van het psychologische loopbaancontract “percepties van werknemers met betrekking tot wederzijdse verwachtingen en verplichtingen die werknemers en werkgevers hebben ten aanzien individuele commitment (=toewijding) aan loopbaanzelfsturing en organisationele support (=ondersteuning) voor loopbaanzelfsturing”.

Na een beschrijving van verschillende problemen die kunnen ontstaan bij het meten van het psychologisch contract, rapporteren we over de evaluatie van het psychologisch contract en mogelijke consequenties. In dit verband wordt gewezen op het belang van de mate van balans (tussen de wederzijdse perspectieven) van het contract. Vanuit individueel en organisationeel perspectief worden verschillende reacties beschreven die zich kunnen voordoen als gevolg van de mate van balans of onbalans van het contract. Tevens introduceren we onze eigen typologie van het psychologisch loopbaancontract welke bestaat uit het moderne type, het traditionele type, het zogenaamde “push-gerelateerde” type en het “pull-gerelateerde” type.

Een psychologisch contract verwijst per definitie naar een uitwisselingsrelatie tussen verschillende partijen; we beschrijven één relatie in het bijzonder, die tussen manager en ondergeschikte. Daarnaast worden verwachtingen geëxpliciteerd met betrekking tot de relatie tussen leeftijd en opleidingsniveau enerzijds en het psychologisch loopbaancontract anderzijds.

Aan het einde van het hoofdstuk wordt het conceptuele onderzoeksmodel gepresenteerd (zie Figuur 4.8.). De hoofdgedachte van het model is dat mobiliteitsperspectieven van managers kunnen worden beïnvloed via twee paden: het HRD-pad en het vlucht-pad. Hypothesen met betrekking tot deze twee paden zijn gebaseerd op twee verschillende benaderingen van het psychologisch loopbaancontract: de moderniteitsbenadering en de balansbenadering.

Volgens het HRD-pad heeft het psychologische loopbaancontract een indirecte invloed op het mobiliteitsperspectief van een manager, namelijk via diens leergedrag. De moderniteit van loopbaanpercepties (van werkgevers en werknemers) wordt verondersteld te leiden tot generiek leergedrag, wat vervolgens zal leiden tot een verbreding van het mobiliteitsbereik. Het vlucht-pad vertegenwoordigt een directe relatie tussen het psychologische loopbaancontract en het mobiliteitsperspectief. Dit pad wordt getypeerd door een zekere mate van ontevredenheid als gevolg van ongebalanceerde verwachtingen binnen het psychologische loopbaancontract welke managers aanzet tot het ontwikkelen van een behoefte aan (externe) mobiliteit.

Tenslotte wordt een overzicht gegeven van hypothesen met betrekking tot het totale onderzoeksmodel en met betrekking tot subrelaties binnen het model. Aanvullende hypothesen worden gepresenteerd met betrekking tot de relatie tussen managers en ondergeschikten en achtergrondvariabelen.

In het vijfde hoofdstuk wordt een beschrijving gegeven van de onderzoeksmethoden van de tweede en derde onderzoeksfase: een pilot-studie en het hoofdonderzoek. Eerst komt de ontwikkeling van het onderzoeksinstrument aan bod (een schriftelijke vragenlijst), welke de drie hoofdconcepten van het onderzoeksmodel bevat: 1) het HRD-patroon, 2) het psychologische loopbaancontract, en 3) het mobiliteitsperspectief. Ook worden de items beschreven die zijn gebruikt om deze concepten te meten. Het onderzoeksinstrument is getest in de pilot-studie. De 39 deelnemende managers volgden

een managementcursus bij een groot trainingsinstituut. Op basis van pilot-studie kon het aantal vragenlijst-items worden teruggebracht en kregen we een eerste inzicht in de betrouwbaarheid van de schalen. Uit de analyses blijkt een goede betrouwbaarheid van alle totaalschalen met betrekking tot de hoofdconcepten, behalve voor de schaal "frequentie van HRD-activiteiten". In andere studies zijn vergelijkbare moeilijkheden met het meten van investering (qua tijd) in HRD-activiteiten gerapporteerd. Vervolgens wordt beschreven hoe de hoofdstudie (de derde onderzoeksfase) is uitgevoerd. Allereerst beschrijven we de selectie van managers en organisaties. We selecteerden in totaal zes grote Nederlandse organisaties in het bank- en verzekeringswezen en in de uitzendbranche. Het responspercentage stelde tevreden (39.2%). 242 vragenlijsten zijn gebruikt in de statistische analyses. De respondenten waren gemiddeld 38 jaar, relatief hoog opgeleid en meestal werkzaam in fulltime functies als lijnmanagers (variërend van lager tot hoger lijnmanagement).

Het hoofdstuk beschrijft hoe het instrument verder is ontwikkeld. Met betrekking tot de categorieën HRD-activiteiten is besloten om het aantal terug te brengen tot drie. De non-formele HRD-activiteiten "opzoeken van informatie" en "vragen van advies" bleken als één categorie "informatie verwerven" te kunnen worden beschouwd. In het vervolg van de studie wordt daarom gerapporteerd over de categorieën formeel, non-formeel en informele HRD-activiteiten.

Vervolgens introduceren we twee definities van het HRD-patroon, namelijk volgens een smalle en een brede opvatting. De smalle definitie van HRD-patroon concentreert zich op de generieke waarde die verschillende HRD-activiteiten hebben. De bredere definitie omvat drie dimensies van HRD-activiteiten: generieke waarde, frequentie en planning. Het HRD-patroon kan variëren van arm tot rijk, verwijzend naar de veronderstelde waarde van het patroon voor de ontwikkeling van het mobiliteitsperspectief. In dit onderzoek is de smalle definitie gekozen als kernindicator van het leergedrag van managers.

Met betrekking tot het psychologisch loopbaancontract blijken alle totaalschalen betrouwbaar (zowel het contract in mentale zin als in facilitaire zin). Vervolgens introduceren we twee maten voor het psychologisch loopbaancontract als geheel: 1. moderniteit van het contract als de som van individuele commitment aan en organisationele support voor loopbaanzelfsturing, en 2. onbalans van het contract als het verschil tussen individuele commitment en organisationele support voor loopbaanzelfsturing.

Factoranalyse op basis van de items van het psychologisch loopbaancontract resulteert in vijf factoren, oftewel loopbaanontwikkelingsactiviteiten: netwerken, monitoren van loopbaankansen (dit is een reflectieve vorm van loopbaanplanning), plannen van loopbaanveranderingen, vormgeven van leermogelijkheden en het combineren van werk en privé-leven.

Het mobiliteitsperspectief als geheel wordt beschreven als bestaande uit de componenten mobiliteitsbereik (horizontaal en verticaal) en mobiliteitsbehoefte (organisatie-intern en organisatie-extern). Een aanvullende indicator voor de mobiliteitsattitude van werknemers is de verticaliteit van de mobiliteitsbehoefte, welke overigens niet wordt beschouwd als kernvariabele.

Enkele extra variabelen zijn geïntroduceerd, zoals het HRD-patroon van ondergeschikten en de Human Resources rol, of HR-rol, van managers. Met betrekking tot de vervulling van de HR-rol wordt een onderscheid gemaakt tussen de ontwikkelingsgeoriënteerde HR-rol, de disciplinegeoriënteerde HR-rol en de personeelsvoorzienings-georiënteerde HR-rol. Aan het einde van het vijfde hoofdstuk wordt een overzicht gepresenteerd met (bijgestelde) schalen voor gebruik in het hoofdonderzoek. Het hoofdstuk eindigt met een toelichting op de procedure voor de data-analyse in het hoofdonderzoek. Over deze analyses wordt gerapporteerd in de empirische hoofdstukken 6 en 7.

Het zesde hoofdstuk focust op de relatie tussen het psychologisch loopbaancontract en het HRD-patroon van managers. De belangrijkste vraag betreft de mate waarin het psychologisch loopbaancontract van managers van invloed is op hun HRD-patroon.

Een algemene conclusie die in dit hoofdstuk wordt getrokken is dat de HRD-patronen van managers over het algemeen middelmatig tot in hoge mate bij kunnen dragen aan het creëren van kansen op mobiliteit in de toekomst. Verder blijkt dat managers in hoge mate geëngageerd zijn aan loopbaanzelfsturing en zich hiervoor middelmatig ondersteund voelen. Met betrekking tot alle loopbaanontwikkelingsactiviteiten is de score op commitment aan loopbaanzelfsturing significant hoger dan de score op gepercipieerde support voor loopbaanzelfsturing.

We vonden een relatie tussen het psychologisch loopbaancontract in mentale zin en in facilitaire zin. Hoe meer managers zich verantwoordelijk voelen voor het zelf sturen van de eigen loopbaan, hoe meer zij verwachten van hun organisaties in termen van faciliteiten voor loopbaanontwikkeling. Verder blijkt dat hoe meer onbalans bestaat ten aanzien van het ene contract, hoe meer onbalans ook wordt ervaren met betrekking tot het andere contract.

De resultaten van de studie laten zien dat commitment aan en support voor loopbaanzelfsturing van belang zijn voor de HRD-patronen van managers; zij hebben beide een uniek hoofdeffect op de rijkheid van managers leergedrag. De mate van commitment aan zelfsturing heeft een sterkere invloed op het HRD-patroon dan de mate van support voor loopbaanzelfsturing. Verder bestaat voor de groep managers als geheel geen interactie-effect van commitment en support op het HRD-patroon. Op een meer gedetailleerd niveau laten de analyses zien dat er wel sprake is van een interactie-effect. De resultaten wijzen uit dat een overmaat aan support voor loopbaanzelfsturing voor managers een negatieve uitwerking heeft indien deze managers al in hoge mate geëngageerd zijn aan loopbaanzelfsturing; het leidt uiteindelijk zelfs tot een armer HRD-patroon. Voor managers die zichzelf in hoge mate verantwoordelijk achten voor zelfsturing van de loopbaan is een middelmatig niveau van support voor loopbaanzelfsturing vanuit de organisatie het meest optimaal voor het bereiken van een rijk HRD-patroon.

Een vergelijking van de moderniteitsbenadering en de balansbenadering van het psychologische loopbaancontract wijst uit dat met name de som van de individuele commitment en de organisationele support voor loopbaanzelfsturing van belang is voor de verklaring van de rijkheid van managers' HRD-patronen. Hoe hoger de score op beide variabelen tezamen, hoe gunstiger het HRD-patroon zal zijn voor toekomstige loopbaanperspectieven¹. In dit geval blijkt de discrepantie tussen de mate van commitment aan en support voor loopbaanzelfsturing niet essentieel te zijn. De balansbenadering draagt niet bij aan de verklaring van de rijkheid van HRD-patronen van managers.

Een opvallend resultaat is dat zowel de moderniteitsscore als de onbalans-score van het combineren van werk en privé-leven hoger zijn dan voor alle andere loopbaanontwikkelingscomponenten. In eerste instantie lijkt met name de hoge mate van onbalans verontrustend; echter, noch onbalans noch moderniteit met betrekking tot het combineren van werk en privé-leven blijken van invloed te zijn op de rijkheid van het HRD-patroon.

Het is met name commitment aan en support voor de loopbaanontwikkelingsactiviteit "monitoren van loopbaankansen" welke een positief effect blijkt te hebben op de rijkheid van een managers HRD-patroon. Deze activiteit betreft een reflectieve vorm van loopbaanplanning. Het gaat hier om activiteiten zoals het kritisch beschouwen van de huidige baan en het vaststellen of de huidige baan een goede plaats is om nog langer te blijven. Een ander voorbeeld is het verhelderen van loopbaanambities. Een loopbaan ontwikkelt zich blijkbaar niet door actieve en concrete handelingen alleen; reflectie op de loopbaan is van groot belang. Kortom, loopbaanontwikkeling zal juist plaatsvinden wanneer managers bereid zijn tijd en energie te investeren in loopbaanreflectie en wanneer zij hiervoor worden ondersteund door de organisatie.

¹ Een beperking van dit moderniteitsmechanisme ligt in het feit dat wanneer men een zo rijk mogelijk HRD-patroon wil bereiken, een hoge mate van commitment het beste kan worden aangevuld met een middelmatige hoeveelheid support voor loopbaanzelfsturing.

Met betrekking tot achtergrondfactoren is geconcludeerd dat naarmate managers ouder worden zij een armer HRD-patroon hebben en dat de frequentie van loopbaanplanning-activiteiten afneemt. Verder blijkt leeftijd negatief samen te hangen met de mate van commitment aan loopbaanzelfsturing en met de mate van moderniteit van het contract als geheel. Het is interessant dat deze negatieve relatie met name geldt voor de loopbaanplanning-component. Naarmate de leeftijd hoger is, neemt de verantwoordelijkheid voor loopbaanplanning af. Daarnaast blijkt het opleidingsniveau positief gerelateerd te zijn aan planning van HRD-activiteiten en aan het ondernemen van loopbaanplanning-activiteiten. Er is geen relatie tussen het opleidingsniveau en het psychologisch loopbaancontract.

Voor wat betreft de relatie tussen managers en ondergeschikten vonden we dat managers van mening zijn in hoge mate ondersteuning te bieden voor loopbaanzelfsturing door hun ondergeschikten. De hoogste mate van support voor ondergeschikten werd gevonden bij managers die de ontwikkelingsgeoriënteerde HR-rol serieus nemen. De mate waarin managers support bieden aan hun ondergeschikten blijkt positief samen te hangen met de rijkheid van de formele HRD-patronen van ondergeschikten. Een andere conclusie is dat HRD-patronen van managers en die van hun ondergeschikten positief met elkaar samenhangen.

Tenslotte wijzen de resultaten van deze studie uit dat managers twee verschillende participatiemodellen hanteren. Enerzijds passen zij het human resources model toe voor henzelf in relatie tot hun eigen leidinggevend, waarmee zij aangeven een zekere mate van vrijheid te verwachten voor zelfsturing. Anderzijds passen zij het human relations model toe voor henzelf in relatie tot hun ondergeschikten, waarbij zij hun ondergeschikten minder ruimte voor zelfsturing geven dan dat zij zelf verwachten van hun leidinggevend.

Het centrale thema van het zevende hoofdstuk is de mate waarin mobiliteitsperspectieven van managers worden beïnvloed door de aard van het psychologische loopbaancontract en de rijkheid van het HRD-patroon. Mobiliteitsperspectieven van managers zijn middelmatig gunstig voor mobiliteit in de toekomst. Over het algemeen hebben managers een breed mobiliteitsbereik en een middelmatige behoefte aan mobiliteit. Managers richten zich voornamelijk op organisatie-interne mobiliteit op hetzelfde hiërarchische niveau. Verder blijkt de relatie tussen mobiliteitsbereik en mobiliteitsbehoefte een positieve te zijn. De behoefte om mobiel te worden blijkt af te nemen naarmate men ouder wordt en hoger opgeleide managers hebben een grotere behoefte aan mobiliteit dan lager opgeleide managers. Daarnaast is geconcludeerd dat de rijkheid van HRD-patronen van managers bijdraagt aan een beter mobiliteitsperspectief. Vooral managers die op een brede manier leren en die hun HRD-activiteiten in hoge mate plannen, beschouwen zichzelf als inzetbaar in een breed scala van functies, ook op (hiërarchisch) hogere managementposities. Indien deze perceptie van verticaal mobiliteitsbereik daadwerkelijk wordt omgezet in een mobiliteitswens, dan is het waarschijnlijk dat generiek en gepland leergedrag van managers leidt tot het beste perspectief op mobiliteit. Frequentie van HRD-activiteiten lijkt geen significante rol te spelen bij de ontwikkeling van het mobiliteitsperspectief.

Commitment aan loopbaanzelfsturing blijkt een positieve invloed te hebben op het mobiliteitsbereik via het gebruik van HRD-activiteiten. Het is evident dat HRD-activiteiten noodzakelijk zijn, in het bijzonder HRD-activiteiten met generieke waarde, voor het verbreden van het mobiliteitsbereik. Employability ontwikkelt zich niet vanzelf; investering in breed toepasbare kennis en vaardigheden is vereist.

Onze veronderstelling was dat wanneer managers zouden worden gestimuleerd door hun organisatie tot zelfsturing van de eigen loopbaanontwikkeling, dit hun mobiliteitsperspectief ten goede zou komen. In tegenstelling tot onze verwachting vonden we dat support voor loopbaanzelfsturing een direct negatief effect heeft op alle aspecten van het mobiliteitsperspectief. Onze interpretatie van deze bevinding is dat support voor loopbaanzelfsturing leidt tot een hogere mate van tevredenheid met de huidige baas of leidinggevende en daardoor tot een sterkere intentie bij de huidige afdeling of

organisatie te blijven. Een interessant gegeven is dat het negatieve effect van support voor loopbaanzelfsturing op het mobiliteitsperspectief sterker is dan het positieve effect van commitment aan loopbaanzelfsturing. Wanneer mobiliteit wordt nagestreefd dan is het aan te bevelen om energie te steken in het transformeren van het negatieve effect van support in een positief effect.

De moderniteit van het psychologisch loopbaancontract is ook direct negatief van invloed op de mobiliteitsbehoefte. We concluderen dat wanneer organisaties een modern loopbaanklimaat aanbieden waarin managers de kans krijgen om zelfsturend te zijn ten aanzien van hun loopbaan en waarin zij bovendien steun ontvangen voor loopbaanzelfsturing, managers geneigd zijn aan te blijven.

De mate van onbalans van het contract blijkt een directe invloed te hebben op de mobiliteitsbehoefte. Deze relatie wordt niet gemedieerd door het HRD-patroon. Wanneer managers onbalans binnen het psychologische loopbaancontract percipiëren kan dit leiden tot het volgen van het vlucht-pad. Deze vluchtreactie vloeit voort uit een negatief startpunt waarbij de mate van commitment aan loopbaanzelfsturing en de mate van support voor loopbaanzelfsturing niet met elkaar in overeenstemming zijn. In tegenstelling hiermee symboliseert het HRD-pad een positief traject. Als gevolg van een modern loopbaancontract, waarin loopbaanzelfsturing de norm is, wordt het mobiliteitsperspectief in gunstige zin beïnvloed. HRD-activiteiten worden ingezet om het mobiliteitsbereik te verbreden. Het scala aan functies dat managers kunnen vervullen wordt groter als gevolg van een hogere mate van competentie. Deze verhoogde competentie-perceptie leidt vervolgens tot de drang om deze competenties daadwerkelijk te benutten. Het mobiliteitsperspectief als de combinatie van zowel de vaardigheid als de bereidheid om mobiel te worden wordt op deze manier vergroot.

Gebaseerd op regressie-analyses en pad-analyses concluderen we dat de relatie tussen het psychologisch loopbaancontract en het mobiliteitsperspectief wordt gemedieerd door het HRD-patroon wanneer een moderniteitsbenadering wordt gekozen. Wanneer we ons concentreren op onbalans van het contract, dan zien we een directe relatie met mobiliteitsbehoefte.

Kortom, mobiliteitsperspectieven van werknemers kunnen worden vergroot langs twee wegen: als gevolg van moderne loopbaanopvattingen en als gevolg van een ongebalanceerd psychologisch loopbaancontract. Het hoofdstuk benadrukt tenslotte dat het HRD-pad en het vlucht-pad managers niet in gelijke mate tevreden zullen stellen en dat deze paden niet even wenselijk zijn.

In hoofdstuk acht wordt een aantal algemene conclusies getrokken en worden de belangrijkste uitkomsten van het onderzoek bediscussieerd. Daarnaast worden aanbevelingen gedaan voor toekomstige studies en voor de HRD-praktijk.

Met betrekking tot HRD-patronen concludeerden we dat managers over het algemeen in hoge mate gebruik maken van een variëteit aan HRD-activiteiten om zich te ontwikkelen tot managers, deze HRD-activiteiten zijn met name informeel van aard zijn en worden taakonafhankelijk gebruikt. Een interessante conclusie is dat het leergedrag van managers lijkt te worden bepaald door een onderliggende loopbaaninteresse of -oriëntatie. We behandelden ook het ontbreken van ondersteuning voor compensatie van formele en informele HRD-activiteiten en het speciale karakter van formele HRD-activiteiten in vergelijking met alle andere typen HRD-activiteiten. Methodologische kwesties met betrekking tot het HRD-patroon van managers zijn de lage betrouwbaarheid van frequentie van HRD-activiteiten en moeilijkheden met betrekking tot het meten van informele HRD-activiteiten als gevolg van het ongestructureerde en ongeorganiseerde karakter hiervan.

Betreffende de karakterisering van het psychologische loopbaancontract van managers, concludeerden we dat het verantwoordelijkheidsgevoel van managers voor hun loopbaanontwikkeling een algemene attitude betreft. Een zogenaamde "proteaanse" werknemer zal alle loopbaanontwikkelingsactiviteiten zelf sturen en niet slechts een selectie daaruit. Verder is de activiteit "combineren van werk en privé-leven" beschreven als een bijzondere activiteit in vergelijking met alle

andere loopbaanontwikkelingsactiviteiten. Deze activiteit is zowel de meest moderne als de meest ongebalanceerde van allemaal. Verschillende methodologische kwesties zijn beschreven met betrekking tot het psychologische loopbaancontract, zoals de keuze voor een “etic” benadering en de veronderstelling van relatieve stabiliteit van verwachtingen omtrent loopbaanzelfsturing in de tijd.

Het mobiliteitsperspectief van managers is beschreven als middelmatig gunstig voor zowel het individu als voor de participerende organisaties. Het onderzoek geeft een beeld van breed inzetbare werknemers die ook bereid zijn om organisatie-intern van functie te wisselen, wat organisaties de nodige organisationele flexibiliteit biedt. De belangrijkste methodologische kwestie die we hier behandelden is het gebruik van een zelfperceptie-maat voor het meten van mobiliteitsbereik.

Voor het conceptuele onderzoeksmodel als geheel concluderen we dat generieke HRD-activiteiten een significante rol spelen in het kader van een moderne loopbaan. Het pad via moderne loopbaanpercepties naar mobiliteitsbereik wordt gemedieerd door het gebruik van HRD-activiteiten. Blijkbaar ontwikkelt het perspectief van managers op mobiliteit zich niet “zomaar”. Investering in leeractiviteiten is nodig om de mobiliteitsradius te vergroten. Daarnaast wijst het onderzoek uit dat wanneer het mobiliteitsbereik wordt verbreed, de behoefte aan mobiliteit ook groter wordt. Tenslotte stelden we een aantal methodologische kwesties aan de orde, zoals het gebruik van zelfperceptie-maten in het gehele onderzoek, de veronderstelde richting van de verbanden in het onderzoeksmodel en de percentages verklaarde variantie.

De resultaten van dit onderzoek kunnen niet zondermeer worden gegeneraliseerd naar andere contexten; nader onderzoek is gewenst om het onderzoeksmodel verder te testen bij andere groepen werknemers (bijv. lager opgeleide werknemers in niet-management posities) en in andere organisatie-omgevingen (bijv. organisaties in verandering). Verdere aanbevelingen voor toekomstige studie zijn het gebruik van kwalitatieve data voor nadere verdieping van de complexe relaties die bestudeerd zijn. Verder wordt aanbevolen om in nader onderzoek naar het psychologisch loopbaancontract meer perspectieven te betrekken dan die van de manager alleen. Door ook de leidinggevende en ondergeschikten van managers te bevragen kunnen aanvullende inzichten worden verkregen.

Nader onderzoek wordt aanbevolen naar manieren waarop generiek leren door (oudere) werknemers kan worden gestimuleerd. Verder wordt voorgesteld om meer variabelen in toekomstig onderzoek van het onderzoeksmodel op te nemen, zoals loopbaanambities en de thuissituatie. Tenslotte verdient het aanbeveling om het onderzoeksmodel te onderzoeken met een longitudinale onderzoeksopzet om op deze manier meer inzicht te krijgen in de daadwerkelijke loopbaanstappen die managers zetten.

Tenslotte zijn verschillende praktische implicaties van deze studie op HRD-gebied beschreven. We willen het belang benadrukken om generieke leeractiviteiten aan te moedigen bij alle groepen werknemers en oudere werknemers in het bijzonder. Verder blijkt uit de studie dat het voor organisaties van groot belang is om de werkplek als uitdagende en stimulerende leeromgeving in te richten. Met betrekking tot de aard van het psychologisch loopbaancontract wijzen we op het belang van het stimuleren van een moderne houding ten aanzien van loopbaanontwikkeling in het algemeen en ten aanzien van mobiliteit in het bijzonder. De afstemming en verheldering van wederzijdse verwachtingen van werkgevers en werknemers is een punt dat met name aandacht verdient. Voor het ontwikkelen van een gunstig mobiliteitsperspectief is het van het grootste belang dat er helderheid bestaat over wat de verschillende betrokken partijen van elkaar kunnen en mogen verwachten; dit vergroot de kans op het ontstaan van gebalanceerde contracten. Verder bevelen we aan de mate van support voor loopbaanzelfsturing aan te passen aan de persoon in kwestie om een optimaal rijk HRD-patroon te bereiken. Het hoofdstuk sluit af met de conclusie dat de strategische keuze van een organisatie om de loopbaanontwikkeling van werknemers te ondersteunen en de waarde van leren door managers te erkennen, uiteindelijk ten goede zal komen aan de betreffende organisatie en aan de arbeidsmarkt in bredere zin.

Curriculum Vitae

Eline Lankhuijzen werd geboren op 12 augustus 1972 in Raamsdonksveer. Zij volgde het Atheneum aan het Dongemond College in Raamsdonksveer en behaalde daar in 1990 haar diploma. In het najaar van 1990 begon zij haar academische studie aan de Universiteit Utrecht, Faculteit Sociale Wetenschappen. Zij behaalde haar propedeuse Pedagogiek in 1991 en vervolgde haar studie aan dezelfde faculteit bij de vakgroep Onderwijskunde. Zij specialiseerde zich op het gebied van de Opleidingskunde. Als aanvulling daarop volgde zij ondermeer modules op het terrein van ontwikkeling en vormgeving van onderwijs en opleiding, loopbanen en organisatiesociologie. Haar stage en afstudeeronderzoek vonden plaats bij de subafdeling Informatiseringsopleidingen van Rabobank Nederland in Utrecht. Zij was betrokken bij de uitvoering van een behoeftenonderzoek en verrichtte een formatief evaluatieonderzoek naar de werkplek-effecten van een informatiseringsopleiding. In 1996 studeerde zij af als onderwijskundige.

In januari 1997 werd zij als assistent in opleiding aangesteld bij de vakgroep Onderwijskunde van de Universiteit Utrecht. Haar onderzoek richtte zich op de relatie tussen het leergedrag (of HRD-patroon) van managers, hun psychologisch loopbaancontract en hun mobiliteitsperspectief, waarover deze dissertatie rapporteert. Zij volgde haar aio-opleiding bij het ICO (Interuniversitair Centrum voor Onderwijsonderzoek).

Voor de opleiding Onderwijskunde verzorgde zij onderwijs op het gebied van Human Resource Development. Zij was lid van het bestuur van het onderzoekscentrum ICO-Utrecht, bestuurslid van het promovendi-overleg van de Vereniging voor Onderwijsresearch (vPO) en was redacteur van de vPO-nieuwsbrief.

