Antecedents and Outcomes of Personnel Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Career Management Practices in the New Zealand Defence Force

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Abstract

This research examined antecedents and outcomes of perceptions of the effectiveness of career management practices (PECMP) using a military sample. Past research has shown mixed results regarding the relationship between experiencing career management practices and organisational commitment and turnover intentions; however positive relationships have been found when *perceptions* of career management are measured. This present study hypothesised that PECMP would be positively related to commitment (affective and continuance) and job satisfaction and negatively related to turnover intentions. Based on the literature a number of variables were hypothesised as antecedents of PECMP. A sample of 436 Regular Force New Zealand Defence Force (NZDF) personnel responded to a NZDF attitude survey, which measured commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, PECMP and 13 proposed antecedents of PECMP. Regression analysis showed that PECMP was positively related to affective commitment and job satisfaction but not to continuance commitment. Job satisfaction and affective and continuance commitment were negatively related to turnover intentions, with affective commitment the strongest contributor. PECMP was higher when career management was perceived as fair, sufficient feedback was given, personnel felt satisfied with their past career development, expectations were met, personnel felt they had input into their career development and personnel perceived the NZDF valued their career development. The study also found that one-to-two times per year was perceived as sufficient contact with a career manager and that the frequency of contact influenced attitudes towards the career manager. Personnel who defined their career as the military, opposed to their trade, were more affectively committed to the NZDF but not less likely to intend to leave. Personnel viewed career success differently (laterally and hierarchically), but this did not influence PECMP or career development satisfaction. This study provides empirical support for the benefits of effective career management in the reduction of voluntary turnover in the military via its influence on affective commitment and in turn, intentions to leave. The study also identifies features of best practice career management that should be used when designing and, most importantly, implementing career management.

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This report represents the views of the author only. It does not represent the view of the New Zealand Defence Force or any other party.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Retention of qualified personnel, as in civilian organisations, is a concern for the military. This concern has been identified by the New Zealand Defence Force (NZDF) in their Strategic Human Resource Plan released in 2005 where as at 30 June 2004 NZDF personnel were approximately 2500 below required strength (New Zealand Defence Force, 2005a). The NZDF attrition rates show that in the year preceding 1 October 2005, 15.12% of the NZDF population left the organisation. A number of human resource policies and practices can influence retention. One such practice is organisational career management, which may reduce voluntary turnover through its relationship to organisational commitment and/or job satisfaction. Career management is one of the key areas of dissatisfaction for NZDF personnel as identified by the NZDF attitude survey in May 2005 (New Zealand Defence Force, 2005b). This survey showed that between April 2004 and April 2005, 43.3% of the NZDF personnel sampled were dissatisfied by the way their career had been managed.

The aim of the present research, using a military sample, is to investigate the role that perceptions of effective career management practices (PECMP) play in influencing organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Additionally, this research will investigate which features of organisational career management, as opposed to the practices per se, influence these perceptions of effectiveness. This research will be beneficial for the NZDF as retention of qualified personnel is a current concern.

This chapter begins by briefly elaborating on the two aims of this study. It then introduces the concepts of careers and career management. As the study is conducted with a military sample, it then discusses the NZDF and the unique aspects of the military culture, followed by a discussion of the career management practices

currently being used within the NZDF. The following chapter is a detailed discussion of the research used to form the hypotheses for this study.

The study of retention more often focuses on its inverse, turnover. Some turnover is healthy for an organisation, but avoidable, voluntary turnover of functional and desired employees can be time-consuming, demoralising and expensive. Turnover costs have been found to range from 93% to 200% of a leaver's salary, depending on his or her skill and level of responsibility (Cascio, 2000; Johnson, 1995). These costs are made up of a number of factors including administration, paying out terminal benefits, re-training the replacement, re-selection costs and loss of experience and corporate knowledge. These costs equally, if not more, apply to the NZDF where 1) intensive military training exists, especially in the early years; 2) personnel are resource intensive requiring uniforms, equipment, medical and dental care; and 3) an inability to recruit laterally, due to the specific military training and knowledge required at higher levels, means military experience is a valued commodity.

In an attempt to devise practical solutions for organisations to reduce voluntary turnover, turnover research has focused on the attitudes and decision making processes involved in deciding to leave an organisation and characteristics (individual and organisational) that precede these attitudes and decisions. The most consistently found predictor of turnover is withdrawal cognitions (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 2000), generally measured in the form of 'turnover intentions'. Turnover intentions are defined as a "general tendency to remain with or leave the organization" (Jaros, 1997, p. 321). Turnover intentions have received considerably more attention in the literature than actual turnover because of the consistent finding that withdrawal cognitions are the best predictor of actual turnover. In addition, relatively few people are likely to leave an organisation during a study and by the time actual turnover occurs it is often too late for an organisation to intervene (Arnold & Mackenzie Davey, 1999; Griffeth et al., 2000; Jaros, 1997).

A common component of turnover models is organisational commitment which has been shown to influence turnover intentions (e.g. Griffeth et al., 2000). It has been defined as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979, p. 226). Commitment is

comprised of affective and normative commitment (one's emotional attachment to an organisation) and a cognitive component named continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Continuance commitment reflects the decision making processes of turnover that sees individuals evaluating their alternative options for employment along with the possible sacrifices of leaving their current employer (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Both of these components play an important role in the development of turnover intentions, along with the possibly less influential construct of job satisfaction (Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom, Caranikas-Walker, Prussia & Griffeth, 1992).

Research into the antecedents of organisational commitment has shown a number of organisational practices that correlate with commitment (e.g. Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002). The organisational practice investigated in this study is organisational career management. Based on social exchange theories (Robinson, Kraatz & Rousseau, 1994) it is proposed that PECMP will have a positive relationship with organisational commitment. It is also proposed that PECMP will have a positive relationship with job satisfaction and a negative relationship with turnover intentions. If PECMP does show relationships with these variables, then it is important for an organisation to know what variables influence PECMP. Few studies (e.g. Herriot, Gibbons, Pemberton & Jackson, 1994) have completed such research and, using an NZDF sample, this forms the basis of the second aim of this study.

Careers and Career Management

Careers are pivotal in society – everyone who has a job has a career and there is potential for this career to impact on lives further than the day to day work environment (Minor, 1992). The traditional concept of career was associated with an employment relationship "characterized by long-term employment with a single employer, and involving movement through a series of interconnected and increasingly prestigious and powerful jobs arranged within a hierarchy" (Tolbert, 1996, p. 331). According to practitioner magazines, newspaper articles and academic journals, the 'career' is not what it used to be (Parry & Proctor-Thomson, 2003). Careers are allegedly no longer embedded in stable and hierarchical organisations where long-term employment is found, but are now flexible and 'boundaryless'

spanning multiple employers (Arthur, Inkson & Pringle, 1999; Parry & Proctor-Thomson, 2003). Additionally the linear and expert concept has been replaced by more lateral considerations where career progression can span functionally different roles rather than a hierarchical movement within one function (Brousseau, Driver, Eneroth & Larsson, 1996). This change in the career concept has been brought about by a number of issues including: economic pressures; downsizing; a willingness for new generations to self-manage their careers; and changes in the values of new generations, where climbing corporate ladders and organisational commitment are apparently not valued as highly as in previous generations (Brousseau et al., 1996).

A number of definitions of career have arisen since the study of them become popular in the 1970s. For the purpose of this research, a career is defined as "the pattern of work-related experiences that span the course of a person's life" (Greenhaus, Callanan & Godshalk, 2000, p. 9). This definition captures the trends over the years by not implying upward mobility nor dictating either way that a career is with a particular number of organisations (Walker, 1992; Arthur, 1992).

In its basic definition, career management is "a process by which individuals develop, implement and monitor career goals and strategies" (Greenhaus et al., 2000, p. 12). Strategies are the activities that help an individual attain their goal; monitoring involves receiving feedback from self and others. Career development, a practice related to career management, is "an ongoing process by which individuals progress through a series of stages, each of which is characterized by a relatively unique set of issues, themes and tasks" (Greenhaus et al., 2000, p.13). Literature on career management or development tends to use these terms interchangeably.

Career management can be organisational or individual. Organisational career management, the concern of this research, "is concerned with the organisation carrying out activities relevant to the career development of its employees" (Baruch & Peiperl, 2000, p.349). Individual career management is that initiated and executed by the individual. Although literature that discusses the new career concept suggests that organisational career management has become 'unfashionable', not required or not wanted (Baruch & Peiperl, 2000), employee surveys indicate otherwise. For example, recent New Zealand research, which surveyed 1354 managers at all organisational

levels, found that 40% of the sample believed that career development is the responsibility of the organisation *and* the individual. Twenty-two percent of the sample believed career management is not the individual's responsibility at all, therefore indicating an expectation of organisational career management (Parry & Proctor-Thomson, 2003).

These findings suggest the need for a more collaborative approach between the individual and organisation. The findings also show that employees continue to expect some form of organisational career management which may arguably form part of their psychological contract with the employing organisation. Finally, as employees are assets and investments, organisations must use career management to develop their employees and enhance the supply of knowledge and information within the organisation (Greenhaus et al., 2000). This is perhaps more important in organisations that value organisational specific skills such as the military skill required in the NZDF.

To put the current topic in perspective requires an overview of the NZDF, the uniqueness of the military culture and how this sets it apart from other public and private sector organisations. The current career management system of the NZDF is also outlined. These issues are covered in the next three sections.

The NZDF

The NZDF, like other militaries is made up of three Services: Navy, Army and Air Force, each with different cultures and their own roles to play within the defence force and in the achievement of military objectives. The NZDF also has a Head Quarters which sees members of each Service working together to manage and govern the NZDF as a whole and Joint Forces responsible for overseas operational duties. The primary mission of the NZDF is "as an instrument of national power and the pursuit of strategic objectives up to and including the conduct of war" (New Zealand Defence Force, 2005a). Internationally required outputs in terms of peacekeeping and representational duties see NZDF personnel currently serving overseas in 15 different countries in both an operational and non-operational capacity (New Zealand Defence Force, 2005a). Regular Force (RF) personnel (full-time) numbers as at 1 October

2005 were 8679 with the largest Service being Army with 4441 personnel (New Zealand Defence Force, 2005a). The majority of RF Personnel are male (n=7252). The NZDF also has Non-Regular Force personnel who serve part-time, and both full and part time civilian employees who are not the concern of this research (New Zealand Defence Force, 2005a). Attrition rates (12 months rolling averages) as at 1 October 2005 were 13.78% for Navy, 18.84% for Army, 8.97% for Airforce and 15.12% for the NZDF RF as a whole (New Zealand Defence Force, 2005a).

Military personnel enter the NZDF on 'engagements' which can vary in length, but the initial engagement is not generally shorter than 6 years or longer than 15 years. The engagement can be terminated by the NZDF at anytime, by the individual following a three month 'notice period' (unless they are serving a compulsory return of service for resources the NZDF has provided them), or when the engagement expires. At the NZDF's discretion an individual may be offered a further engagement.

New Zealand labour force characteristics have a direct effect on the NZDF's ability to recruit and retain. New Zealand currently has a low unemployment rate (3.9%) which makes recruitment and retention more difficult as it increases employment opportunities outside the NZDF (New Zealand Defence Force, 2005a). In addition to this, New Zealand has an ageing population which is reducing the traditional recruit pool (18 to 24 years), some skill shortages resulting in higher competition for personnel in those groups, and an increase of New Zealanders who achieve higher levels of education (New Zealand Defence Force, 2005a). These factors combined show a need to retain skilled personnel, in addition to the recruitment projects the NZDF is embarking on, and suggest that providing career management/development may influence retention levels.

The Military Culture

One of the most fundamental aspects of the military culture is that the military is a "state instrument for the exercise of legitimised violence" (Jans, 2002, p. 41). Their members are trained in the use of arms and bear arms as part of their routine duties. However they are only infrequently engaged in their primary role resulting in more

time spent as a latent force "reacting to events rather than shaping them and 'preparing', rather than 'doing'" (Jans, 2002, p. 41). This shapes other unique features of the military. The first is that despite other organisations becoming 'flat' and removing organisational levels, the military remains hierarchical, rule based, conservative and functioning by a 'chain of command' even in day to day, non-core operations (Jans, 2002; New Zealand Defence Force, 2005a). The rationale for this is sound but beyond the scope of this paper (see Jans, 2002). The hierarchical nature of the military is reflected in its rank structure composed of Officers, Non-Commissioned Officers and other rank personnel

In terms of personnel, Jans (2002) referring to the Australian Defence Force, but perhaps equally applicable to the NZDF, discusses how generally personnel join the military for intrinsic reasons such as patriotism, service, variety, career advancement, self-esteem and respect for their role as a member of the profession of arms. Desired extrinsic rewards generally revolve around employment security. The NZDF Strategic Human Resource Plan (New Zealand Defence Force, 2005a) shows that the main reasons given for joining the NZDF are skills/training, job security and adventure. Although the strength of these reasons change when considering why people remain, they still rate the highest, along with leadership roles. Job security is the most frequently stated reason for remaining in the NZDF (New Zealand Defence Force, 2005a).

The military is what Jans (2002) terms a 'greedy institution'; one which demands a lot from its people in terms of risking their life, signing away civil liberties, being 'employed' on a 24/7 basis and putting others before self. As such the military has no employment contracts, is not required to abide by employment legislation (although they often do where possible) and at least in New Zealand, there are no bodies that serve the role of unions. NZDF personnel are governed by the Defence Act and the Armed Forces Discipline Act and under the Defence Act attest to 'serve'. Additionally, the military, perhaps more than any other profession, impacts on everyday lifestyle, including sometimes those of their family members. This results in the development of a strong sense of community, camaraderie and professional identify which becomes imbedded in the individual's self-image (Jans, 2002). This is

reflected in the NZDF values of loyalty, integrity, professionalism and commitment (New Zealand Defence Force, 2005a)

Military personnel are skilled in a number of areas. Not only do they have the skills of the profession of arms, including developing leadership skills to take command, some have specific trades or specialties such as engineer or medic. The NZDF has over 160 different trade groups (New Zealand Defence Force, 2005a). Additionally, over time in the military, personnel often experience roles in policy, resource management and administration, or what Jans (2002) terms the 'bureaucrat' role. "Wide spread job rotation is one of the most idiosyncratic features of the military profession in developing countries" (Jans & Frazer-Jans, 2004, p. 255). Although exact times differ, most people change roles every two to three years, often involving geographic relocation - a practice not that considerate of societal changes seeing more dual income/career families (Jans, 2002). This job rotation often results in people having non-primary roles which are functionally different from each other, for example combat role one job then policy role the next. These are often lateral rather than hierarchical moves (i.e. ones rank remains the same).

This job rotation is often justified on grounds of career development - grooming future leaders as 'generalists', providing variety - and because it is often unavoidable. For example, when personnel go on operational duties overseas or a long training course necessary for the development of military skills (Jans, 2002). The negative side of job rotations sees: an impact on home life; personnel are not trained and prepared for the roles they take on (e.g. policy roles); personnel do not have a consistent 'career path'; approaches to jobs are strongly focused on the short-term; and job performance may be compromised, especially in non-primary roles, by a lack of experience and corporate memory (see research by Jans & Frazer-Jans, 2004).

The uniqueness of the military results in two further aspects that make it different from most civilian organisations. The first is that the military, along with the Police, has been described as a 'monopoly' organisation. A police officer can only practice as a police officer in the Police Force and the profession of arms can only be practiced in the military. This may benefit retention in the military as personnel perceive their skills to be non-transferable and if people define their career as 'the profession of

arms' there is no alternative employer within New Zealand. A downside to this 'monopoly' concept is that people may not join or remain in the NZDF if they do not perceive their skills as transferable to other organisations on release. This consideration is important in research with military populations as general patterns of relations between commitment and outcome can not automatically be assumed in the military (Allen, 2003). The second aspect is that due to specific military skills required, the NZDF is unable to recruit laterally, with the exceptions of military personnel from other countries (New Zealand Defence Force, 2005a). Therefore the loss of experienced and long serving personnel is costly to both organisational resources and the ability of the NZDF to met its outputs. Consequently the NZDF places a high value on long service (New Zealand Defence Force, 2005a).

NZDF Career Management

Actual career management practices differ by Service within the NZDF, however they are all guided by the same principles: "The purpose of Career Management is to give each individual the opportunity to reach his or her potential, and for the organisation to make the best use of the potential of the individual in order to maximise organisational capability" (New Zealand Defence Force, 2000, p. 1). The key underlying principles of career management are: 1) it is to acknowledge a partnership between the individual and the organisation; 2) procedures should be transparent, demonstrably fair and equitable; 3) outcomes should be based on merit; 4) feedback should be provided; and 5) the systems should reflect a philosophy of continuous improvement (New Zealand Defence Force, 2000).

Acknowledging these principles and reflective of career management in other organisations, NZDF career management includes a number of human resource practices and can be viewed as a process. The main practices are: recruitment and selection into the NZDF, trades and individual roles; training and education; performance management which identifies training and developmental needs along with clear performance criteria in roles; promotions; job rotations; and career transition at the end of one's NZDF career (New Zealand Defence Force, 2000).

The military culture, emphasising values such as loyalty, professionalism, commitment and long service indicate that long-term military careers may still be prominent within the NZDF. Along with the fact that people report the main reasons for joining and remaining in the NZDF are job security and skills/training, this indicates that organisational career management is important in the NZDF. Therefore an aim of this research is to investigate what role perceptions of the effectiveness of career management practices (PECMP) play in organisational commitment, job satisfaction and intentions to leave the NZDF. Additionally, almost 50% of personnel are reporting they are not satisfied with the way their career has been managed (New Zealand Defence Force, 2005b). Therefore, a second aim of this research is to investigate what features of career management may influence PECMP.

The next chapter outlines previous research and thinking that has influenced why this study proposes that career management, in particular employee perceptions, relates to organisational commitment, job satisfaction and intentions to leave. It also outlines variables that may influence PECMP. The following chapter then introduces the study's hypotheses.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter outlines the literature that supports the two aims of this study. The first aim is to investigate the relationship between perceptions of the effectiveness of career management practices (PECMP) and organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions, using a military sample. The second aim of this research is to investigate variables related to PECMP in the New Zealand Defence Force (NZDF).

The chapter begins with a discussion of turnover and its principal antecedent – withdrawal cognitions. It includes a discussion of organisational commitment and job satisfaction, including the relationship between these two variables and their relationship to withdrawal cognitions. The chapter then introduces career commitment and its relationship with organisational commitment. Antecedents of organisational commitment are identified including career management. Social exchange theories are then discussed to outline how PECMP may influence commitment, followed by a review of existing research into the relationship between these two constructs. The final section of the chapter outlines literature and empirical research around possible determinants of PECMP.

Turnover Research

Turnover is conceptualised as a complex composition of attitudes and decision making processes (Griffeth et al., 2000; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Research on turnover largely focuses on withdrawal cognitions, including thoughts of leaving, deciding to search for alternative employment and turnover intentions (Hom et al., 1992). Turnover intentions, described by Jaros (1997) as a "general tendency to remain with or leave the organization" (p. 321), have been consistently shown to be one, if not the best, predictors of turnover. Using meta-analysis, Griffeth et al. found that turnover intentions was the best predictor of actual turnover (average corrected coefficient =.38), with the exception of active job searching (i.e. soliciting jobs) but not passive job searching (i.e. thinking about searching or getting job leads). This difference between active and passive job searching is a recent and not well researched development in the literature. Considering evidence that withdrawal

cognitions tend to result in searching for alternative employment, turnover intentions remain the best predictor of actual turnover (Hom et al., 1992; Griffeth et al., 2000). It has been suggested (Hom et al., 1992; Griffeth et al., 2000) that by the time employees get to specific withdrawal intentions, interventions to curb turnover may prove fruitless. As such, organisational practices to curb turnover would be better aimed at influencing more distal factors such as organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Turnover research has therefore focused on these variables.

Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment is described as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (Mowday, et al., 1979, p. 226). This differs from career commitment where the foci is the person's vocation or profession and work commitment where the person's foci is the particular job they perform or the position they hold (Goulet & Singh, 2002). Mowday et al. (1979) conceptualise organisational commitment as involving attitudes and behaviors and specifically describe it as: "(1) a strong belief and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; (2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and (3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization" (p. 226). Reflecting the work of Mowday et al. (1979), it is now almost universally agreed (e.g. Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom et al., 1992; Jaros, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002; Whitener & Walz, 1993) that organisational commitment is made up of a cognitive component, *continuance commitment*, and the emotional components of *normative* and *affective commitment* as first suggested by Meyer and Allen (1991).

Continuance commitment is a consideration of the perceived cost of leaving an organisation and is described as a "need" to remain with the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Meyer and Allen further divided continuance commitment into two components: the sacrifice of leaving the organisation and perceived alternative employment options. This division has been debated recently as it has been suggested that perceived alternative employment does not represent the psychological ties of continuance commitment and is perhaps an antecedent of continuance commitment rather than part of it (Allen, 2003).

This debate arose empirically from Meyer et al's. (2002) meta-analysis that showed the 'high sacrifices' subscale of continuance commitment was negatively related to turnover intentions; however, no relationship with turnover intentions was found for the 'low alternatives' subscale. Those employees who believed their skills and education could not easily transfer to another organisation had higher continuance commitment, suggesting that perceived alternative employment is an antecedent to continuance commitment (Meyer et al., 2002). Similarly, Whitener and Walz (1993), using a sample of 578 bank tellers investigated the determinants of commitment and turnover intentions. They concluded that commitment was affected by a consideration of the balance between the costs and rewards of both the current job and alternatives and not just whether or not alternative jobs are available.

Research is inconclusive as to whether or not continuance commitment precedes withdrawal cognitions such as turnover intentions. Both Hom et al. (1992) and Griffeth et al. (2000) concluded from their meta analyses using structural equation analysis that withdrawal cognitions materialise before the decision to search for and evaluate other employment options (continuance commitment). Other research has not supported these findings. The previously cited study by Whitener and Walz (1993), found that turnover intentions mediated the relationship between continuance commitment and actual turnover, suggesting that alternatives are sought and evaluated before turnover intentions develop . In this study, continuance commitment also retained "a weak direct effect on actual turnover" (Whitener & Walz, 1993, p. 274). However, the difference between these studies is that Griffeth et al. were measuring a general withdrawal cognition whereas Whitener and Walz were measuring a specific withdrawal cognition, turnover intentions. This may at least partly explain the differences in the results. Although continuance commitment appears to influence turnover, it is not necessarily beneficial to an organisation without a consideration of the emotional components and their relationship to work-related attitudes and ultimately behaviors.

One emotional component of commitment, normative commitment, is a feeling of obligation to the organisation and is described as a feeling that one 'should' remain with the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Affective commitment is an employee's emotional attachment to the organisation and is described as a 'want' to

remain with the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Jaros (1997) conceptualises normative commitment as a specific type of attachment emotion that can be subsumed by the more general emotional attachment shown in affective commitment. This has recently been empirically supported by Meyer et al. (2002) who in their meta-analysis found that there was a substantial corrected correlation between affective and normative commitment (.63), however, the corrected correlations between continuance commitment and both affective (.05) and normative commitment (.18) were small. As a result, normative commitment has and continues to receive less attention in the literature and is not a focus of the present research.

While meta-analyses have shown that all three components of commitment are negatively correlated with withdrawal cognition's and turnover, affective commitment consistently shows the strongest negative correlation (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002). Longitudinal studies have demonstrated the direction of causality, confirming the often assumed proposition that affective commitment leads to reduced turnover intentions. In a study of part-time Master of Business Administration students employed full-time and engineers and technicians working full-time at an aerospace firm, Jaros (1997) showed that affective commitment was the only significant predictor of turnover intentions both concurrently and longitudinally (2 month time lag). Sturges, Guest, Conway and Mackenzie Davey (2002) using a sample of 212 graduates with one to 10 years career experience, found that high affective commitment predicted practicing self career management activities that would further one's career within the organisation as opposed to leaving the organisation (12 month lag). Low affective commitment was associated with activities aimed at furthering their careers outside of the organisation, for example monitoring job advertisements (Sturges et al., 2002). This study therefore also demonstrates the relationship between affective commitment, searching for alternative employment (continuance commitment) and intention to leave an organisation.

Job Satisfaction

In addition to organisational commitment, job satisfaction has also been identified as a variable that organisations should focus on to curb turnover (Hom et al.,1992; Griffeth et al., 2000). Like commitment, job satisfaction has also been found to be negatively

correlated with withdrawal cognitions, including turnover intentions (Hom et al., 1992; Griffeth et al., 2000; Meyer et al., 2002). Using meta-analysis and structural equation analysis, Hom et al. found that job satisfaction predicted withdrawal cognitions and withdrawal cognitions predicted turnover. Griffeth et al. also using meta-analysis, found the same result. However, Griffeth et al. also found that organisational commitment had a slightly stronger relationship with actual turnover (average corrected coefficient = -.23) than job satisfaction (-.19), suggesting that of the two variables, organisational commitment may be more beneficial for an organisation to focus on to curb turnover.

Job satisfaction also shows positive correlations with organisational commitment, especially affective commitment (Meyer et al., 2002). Despite the relationship between job satisfaction and affective commitment, they are conceptually distinct and have been shown to be empirically distinct (Mathieu & Farr, 1991; Meyer et al., 2002; McFarlene Shore and Tetrick, 1991). Conceptually, Mowday et al. (1979) explains two main differences between commitment and satisfaction. First, commitment is more stable than satisfaction; day to day events may influence satisfaction however they should not influence the attachment an employee has to an organisation. The second difference is that commitment is more global. Commitment reflects a general affective response to the organisation as a whole, including its goals and values Satisfaction, on the other hand, "emphasizes the specific task environment where an employee performs his or her duties" (Mowday et al., 1979, p. 226).

A number of studies demonstrate that job satisfaction and commitment are empirically distinct. Mathieu and Farr (1991) using two samples (194 bus drivers and 483 engineers) collected data on organisational commitment, job involvement and job satisfaction. They tested a one, two and three factor model and found that the three factor model provided the best fit of the data in both samples; based on chi-square, the goodness-of-fit index and the root-mean-square residual. The chi-square difference test, for both samples, indicated a significantly better fit for the three factor model than for the single and double factor model. A similar study is that of McFarlene Shore and Tetrick (1991). They used the data of 330 employees holding a variety of positions in a large multinational firm headquarted in the United States. Their analysis used data on perceived organisational support, organisational commitment,

satisfaction with six specific areas of work conditions (for example, pay, co-workers and supervision) and overall job satisfaction. Testing a number of factor models, satisfaction (both specific facets and overall) was found to be distinct from organisational commitment. However, there was no clear distinction between perceived organisational support and satisfaction.

A third study was conducted by Meyer et al. (2002). They found a strong correlation between affective commitment and overall job satisfaction (weighted average corrected correlation=.65), however not strong enough to consider either construct redundant. Additionally, the relationship between affective commitment and satisfaction with specific facets of the job (for example, supervisor and promotions) was considerably weaker than the relationship between affective commitment and overall job satisfaction. As such, they concluded that although distinct constructs, both job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment should be considered when understanding and managing employee behavior (Meyer et al., 2002).

The influence of satisfaction and commitment on each other is not clear. Heffner and Gade (2003) measured satisfaction, affective commitment and career intentions with a sample of 3,968 United States Special Operations military personnel. Using structural equation modeling it was found that the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment was unidirectional with job satisfaction a precursor of organisational commitment. Mathieu (1991) did not find the same results. He tested a cross-level nonrecursive model of satisfaction and organisational commitment using a sample of 588 Army and Navy Cadets attending military training courses at three United States universities (mean age of 20 years). Mathieu found that job satisfaction and organisational commitment were reciprocally related, however job satisfaction did have a stronger influence on commitment (.44) than commitment had on job satisfaction (.27).

Turnover Research Using Military Samples

Similar results of turnover research have been found in military samples as for civilian samples. Gade, Tiggle and Schumm (2003) found that both affective and continuance commitment influenced intention to remain in the United States Army. Similarly,

affective commitment to the military was positively correlated with turnover intentions (r=.35) in a sample of 3,968 United States enlisted personnel across the three Services (Heffner & Gade, 2003). Heffner and Gade also found that military personnel could differentiate between commitment to their unit (work group) and commitment to the military as a whole. Strong correlations did exist between the constructs suggesting that one's immediate work group influences individuals' thoughts about the military as a whole. Tremble, Payne, Finch and Bullis (2003) collected data from 818 United States Army Officers. In this study turnover intentions were positively correlated with both affective and continuance commitment (r=.38 and .13, respectively); however both the concurrent and predictive associations were relatively stronger for affective commitment than for continuance commitment (Tremble et al., 2003). These studies therefore show that interventions to curb turnover intentions in the military, like civilian organisations, may be best focused on the emotional attachment to the organisation.

Meta-analyses of both civilian and military samples have identified differences in the strength of satisfaction and commitment relationships with withdrawal that may reflect the unique military culture (Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom et al., 1992). Hom et al. found that job satisfaction was less closely aligned with thoughts of quitting for military samples than for civilian samples (r =-.57 vs. -.65). The authors proposed that this could be due to (1) contractual obligations (return of service) meaning even dissatisfied personnel can not consider leaving the military; or (2) remaining in the military for patriotic reasons despite not being satisfied (Hom et al., 1992). They also found that military samples showed a stronger relationship between turnover intentions and actual turnover than civilian samples (r =.40 vs. .34), indicating that once a decision is made, military personnel are more likely to leave than civilians (Hom et al., 1992). The authors suggested this could be due to the limited window of opportunity that military personnel have to reenlist following the expiry of their current engagement or contractual obligations mean that they can't even entertain the idea of quitting until their current engagement is finished (Hom et al., 1992).

Hom et al. (1992) also found that continuance commitment assumed less importance in military withdrawal than civilian sample withdrawal. Hom et al. (1992), referring to the United States military, propose that this is because institutional time and

geographical constraints of the military prevent searching for alternative employment until out of the military. As such, the alternative employment can not be sought or evaluated until out of the military and it therefore does not influence turnover decisions. The authors also propose that the sometimes limited portability of military skills, which may limit the perception of civilian employment prospects, may also play a part. Griffeth et al. (2000) found the same results as Hom et al - that satisfaction and continuance commitment were less aligned with withdrawal in military than civilian samples. Griffeth et al. also found that the averaged corrected co-efficient between affective commitment and actual turnover was slightly larger for military (-.28) than civilian (-.23) samples, suggesting that an emotional attachment to the organisation is more important in military turnover than civilian turnover.

Beck and Wilson (2000) studied turnover in the Australian Police Force, which, like the military, is considered a monopoly organisation. They found in a sample of 265 officers, that individuals remained in the Police Force despite having low levels of affective commitment. This was found especially for those with longer tenure. Consistent with Hom et al.'s (1992) suggestion that the potentially limited portability of military skill plays a role in military turnover, Beck and Wilson suggest that, due to the monopoly status, officers remain in the Police because leaving would result in sacrifices of employment conditions and seniority (the 'sacrifice' component of continuance commitment). In addition, due to the specific skills and training of a Police Officer, options for alternative employment may be low (the 'alternatives' component of continuance commitment). Therefore continuance commitment would be acting as a moderator between affective commitment and turnover intentions. Finally, the unique "family" culture of the Police Force may generate strong normative commitment, similar to the patriotic reasons that Hom et al. (1992) speculated military personnel remain in the military. Overall this study (Beck & Wilson, 1992) suggests that, at least in the Police, we can not assume that those who are not affectivity committed to the organisation will leave and that a consideration of all forms of commitment is needed.

Career Commitment

An additional form of commitment relevant to an organisation is career commitment, where the foci is one's career as opposed to the organisation one is employed by (Goulet & Singh, 2002). Career commitment has received significantly less attention than organisational commitment, perhaps because the latter is perceived to be more important to positive organisational outcomes. Research shows that organisational and career commitment are different, however they are reciprocally related and both have a negative relationship with turnover (Chang, 1999; Goulet & Singh, 2002; Hackett, Lapierre and Hausdorf, 2001).

Goulet and Singh (2002) found that career commitment was positively correlated with organisational commitment in a sample of 228 employees across a range or organisations including health care, financial services and state sector. Chang (1999) used a sample of 227 Korean researchers from eight organisations. In a regression analysis of affective commitment, continuance commitment and career commitment on turnover intentions, standardised betas of -.59, -.18 and -.21, respectively, were found. They also found an interaction effect between career and organisational affective commitment (β=-0.64) on turnover intentions. The results showed that those who were low on both career and affective commitment were more likely to report intending to leave the organisation (Chang, 1999). Additionally, those employees who have low affective commitment and high career commitment are likely to report intending to leave an organisation because the organisation is not satisfying their career needs or goals (Chang, 1999). Therefore this study highlights that regardless of the level of career commitment, it is important to foster affective commitment towards the organisation to reduce intentions to leave an organisation.

Hackett et al. (2001), using a sample of 852 full-time nurses, studied the relationship between intentions to leave the organisation, intentions to leave nursing and both organisational and career commitment. Factor analysis supported that organisational and career commitment were distinct constructs. Using hierarchical regression analysis, intention to leave the organisation was influenced by organisational commitment but not career commitment; however this was achieved after controlling

for intention to leave nursing. Intention to leave nursing was influenced by career commitment but not organisational commitment; however this was achieved after controlling for intention to leave the organisation. Considering that career and organisational commitment were found to be significantly correlated (r=.46), the authors suggest that without controlling for intention to leave nursing, it is possible that both career and organisational commitment would influence intention to leave an organisation (Hackett et al., 2001). To test this they ran mediation analyses and found that intention to leave nursing mediated the relationship between career commitment and intention to leave the organisation. As such they concluded that organisational commitment influences turnover intentions directly and career commitment influences intentions to leave the organisation, via an indirect path (Hackett et al., 2001).

Although these studies can not determine causality, the relationship between the two forms of commitment, in particular interaction effects on turnover intentions, suggests that providing an environment conducive to career commitment may have important effects on turnover. The results also show that it is important to foster affective commitment towards the organisation and that this may be achieved by organisations fulfilling the career needs and goals of their employees. This may have implications for monopoly organisations (such as the military) as you can only practice the profession of arms in the military, meaning that career and organisational commitment may be one in the same and leaving the military will be leaving the career.

In sum, both the civilian and military studies suggest that although continuance commitment and job satisfaction play a role, affective commitment, an emotional attachment to the organisation, has the most important influence on withdrawal, specifically turnover intentions. Research also suggests that a person's commitment to their career may also influence intentions to leave an organisation (Chang 1999; Hackett et al., 2001). This may be more pronounced in a monopoly organisation such as the NZDF where career and organisational commitment may be one in the same. Both Hom et al. (1992) and Griffeth et al. (2000) suggest that by the time employees get to specific withdrawal intentions, interventions to curb turnover may prove fruitless. As such, organisations should focus efforts to retain employees on more distal factors. The research reviewed above suggests that this should include job

satisfaction and continuance commitment, but that increasing affective commitment is the most important. The next section discusses research on possible antecedents of organisational commitment. This research identifies areas an organisation could focus on to reduce voluntary turnover.

Determinants of Organisational Commitment

A number of correlates of organisational commitment have been researched, generally grouped as demographic variables and work/job characteristics. These are discussed below.

Studies have found a number of demographic factors to be related to organisational commitment. In a military sample of 1270 male and 142 female Army Captains, Karrasch (2003) found that continuance commitment was significantly higher for males than for females, suggesting that males perceive a higher sacrifice in leaving the military. In the same study affective and normative commitment, but not continuance commitment, were significantly different by branch of the Army. Both affective and normative commitment were significantly higher for the Combat Arms branch, followed by Combat Support, Combat Service and then Support branches. Affective commitment was the only form of commitment that differed across ethnicity (Karrasch, 2003).

Tremble et al. (2003), in a sample of 404 Army Officers, found that increased longevity (measured by rank) was related to increased affective commitment. Using a convenience sample of 137 Australian Police Officers, McElroy, Morrow and Wardlow (1999) found that affective commitment, continuance commitment and career commitment were significantly different by career stage. Career stage was categorised by age as opposed to tenure, however tenure and age were highly correlated (r=.81). Officers in the 'trial' (under 35 years of age) and 'establishment' (35 to 44 years of age) stage of their career had significantly lower levels of affective commitment than those in the 'maintenance' stage (45 years plus). Those in the 'trial' stage had lower continuance and career commitment and reported being significantly less likely to remain in the Police Force than those in the other two career stages. This

study suggests that all three forms of commitment increase with age and tenure and as people progress through their career stages.

Other studies have found little support for differences in commitment according to demographic factors. Demographic characteristics were found to have a low correlation with commitment in two separate meta-analyses (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al, 2002); this included organisational tenure which is often assumed to relate to commitment. In a sample of 479 Police Officers, Beck and Wilson (2000) did not find a positive relationship between affective commitment and tenure. They found that affective commitment decreased as experience in the police increased, especially in the 16^{th} to 18^{th} year of service. Although career and continuance commitment were not measured in this study, Beck and Wilson (2000) postulated that officers were more likely to remain in the Police Force due to career commitment largely because of the monopoly status of the Police, continuance commitment (both high sacrifice of leaving and perceived limited outside opportunities) and normative commitment generated by the strong 'family' culture of the Police making officers feel they 'should' remain in the Police. Overall, the above studies suggest that at least some demographic factors may influence commitment and therefore should be considered in studies of military turnover.

Work characteristics and experiences have also been found to be related to organisational commitment. Although, causality can not been determined, the following characteristics that correlate with commitment are postulated within the research to be determinants of commitment. An early meta-analysis showed that job characteristics, in particular job scope or enrichment and group-leader relations (e.g. task interdependence, participative leadership and leader communication) were related to organisational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Similar results were later found in another meta-analysis by Meyer et al. (2002) where strong relationships were found between affective commitment and work experiences such as organisational support, perceived justice and transformational leadership. These work experiences showed modest relationships with normative commitment and extremely low correlations with continuance commitment. This once again shows the difference between the emotional and cognitive elements of commitment and demonstrates that

work experiences have little impact on one's perception of a 'need' to remain with an organisation, but may influence a 'want' to stay with the organisation.

Meyer (1997) suggested that human resource management (HRM) policies and practices influence organisational commitment. These include recruitment, selection, socialisation, change management strategies, compensation, promotion, and training. The HRM practice concerned in this research is career management. The following section describes a modern career management model. This is followed by a discussion of how organisational career management may increase organisational commitment based on social exchange theories.

Career Management Models

Career management is "a process by which individuals develop, implement and monitor career goals and strategies" (Greenhaus et al., 2000, p. 12). Although this can be individual or organisational, the present research is concerned with organisational career management and a number of these practices exist. Baruch and Peiperl (2000) formed one of the first modern models of organisational career management practices and found that practices can be grouped into five clusters according to the level of involvement required from the organisation and the level of sophistication of the practice (see Figure 1). Using a sample of 524 randomly selected United Kingdom organisations with more than 150 employees, these clusters were found to be associated with certain organisational characteristics including the organisational climate, the age of the organisation and whether unions were present.

According to Baruch and Peiperl (2000), their model can be used for organisations to choose the types of practices that will be relevant to their organisation. For example, the 'basic' cluster and the 'formal' cluster, require the lowest level of involvement and sophistication. This makes them suitable for large, stable and closed culture organisations that have time for few initiatives but wish to sustain their internal labor markets and offer long term careers. The other clusters, as shown in figure 1, require high organisational involvement and sophistication that are more suited to small, resource extensive and dynamic organisations (Baruch & Peiperl, 2000). The basic

cluster is what is used in the NZDF. This is an appropriate choice considering the nature of the NZDF – large and stable with a closed culture (Jans, 2002).

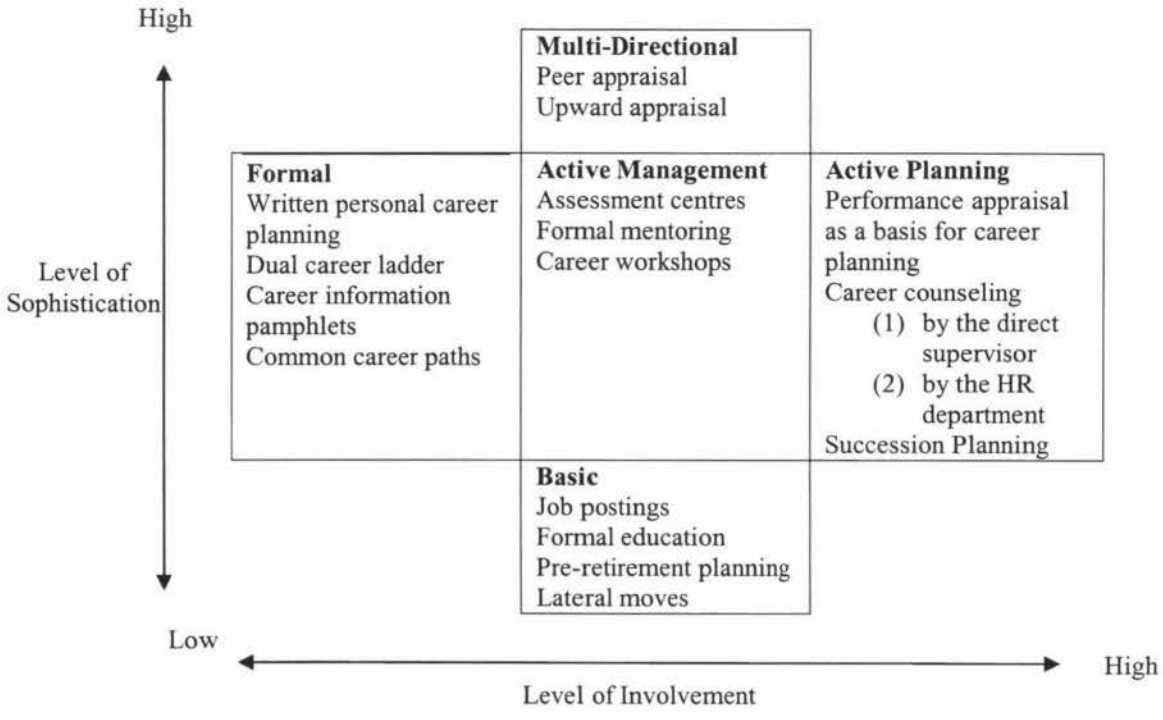

Figure 1: Two dimensional model of career management practices (Baruch & Peiperl, 2000)

It is proposed in the present research that career management influences organisational commitment in two ways. The first relates to continuance commitment and it is suggested that career management practices influence continuance commitment as employees realise that they have something to sacrifice by leaving the organisation. The second, discussed in more detail below, relates to affective commitment and postulates that it is not necessarily the practices per se but the role they play in the context of social exchange theories. The next section begins with an overview of social exchange within organisations. It then discusses two main social exchange theories – psychological contract theory and organisational support theory (OST) and how these relate to organisational career management.

"Social exchange has been defined as cooperation between two or more individuals for mutual benefit (Cosmides & Tooby, 1987)" (Robinson et al., 1994, p. 138). At the heart of exchange is reciprocation and a trust that the other party will reciprocate (Robinson et al., 1994). Within an organisation, the 'individuals' are the employer and employee and social exchanges can be broadly defined as two forms: economic or transactional and social or relational (Blau, 1967; MacNeil, 1985). The first, transactional, is specific, finite and often brief, characterised by competitive wage rates and an absence of long-term commitment (Robinson et al., 1994). The second form, relational, is open-ended, less specific and involves both financial and non-financial components. Relational exchanges are characterised by establishing and maintaining a relationship and a reciprocal concern for the welfare of the other party. In an employment context, this exchange would include training and development opportunities, long-term employment security and organisational career paths in return for the employees' willingness to learn firm specific skills, loyalty and volunteering for non-required tasks (Robinson et al., 1994; Tsui, Pearch, Porter & Tripoli, 1997).

Both Rousseau (1990) and Robinson et al. (1994) have found evidence for the existence of these two forms of relationships in organisations. Research suggests a balanced exchanged or an overinvestment on the part of the employer is the most beneficial relationship status for employee attitudes and behaviour (Tsui et al., 1997). Over 10 companies, Tsui et al. (1997) found that employees performed better on core tasks, demonstrated more citizenship behavior and expressed higher levels of affective commitment when they worked in an employer over-investment or balanced exchange situation.

Psychological Contract Theory

A psychological contract is an employment obligation embedded in the context of social exchange with a perceptual and individual nature that distinguishes it from other forms of contracts (Robinson et al., 1994; Robinson, 1996). It is the individual's belief of an implicit agreement between themselves and the organisation;

more specifically it is the individual's perception of what they owe the organisation and what the organisation owes them (Rousseau, 1995).

Related to psychological contracts are met expectations. Expectations reflect a person's reason for joining an organisation and some expectations form part of the psychological contract (Arnold & MacKenzie Davey, 1999). The met-expectations hypothesis suggests that organisational commitment and job satisfaction will increase and turnover will decrease if pre-employment expectations are confirmed (Arnold & MacKenzie Davey, 1999). Meta-analyses have shown that met expectations are correlated with organisational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intentions and actual turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000; Hom et al., 1992; Wanous, Poland, Premack & Davis, 1992). However, measurement error occurred in a number of the studies used, as to be accurate, expectations must be measured at the beginning of employment, not in hindsight (Meyer, 1997).

Overcoming this measurement limitation, Irving and Meyer (1994) tested the met expectations hypothesis using a within-person longitudinal design with 137 usable responses of Honors and Master of Business Administration graduates and students graduating from the arts and science program at a large Canadian university. They found that for the most part, early work experiences influenced commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions independent of the pre-entry expectations (Irving and Meyer, 1994). While their results suggest early experiences may be more important than meeting expectations, Irving and Meyer highlight that shaping realistic expectations should not be overlooked. Finally, the importance of the expectations to the individual may also be important. Arnold (1990) measured learner nurses' (n=105) career commitment and expectations at the beginning of training, 4 months later and 1 year after starting training. He found that unmet expectations negatively influenced nurses' career commitment only if the expectations had been a reason for joining the profession.

Only some expectations form part of the psychological contract. Robinson (1996) outlines that expectations are general beliefs about what someone will find in their job and organisation and emanate from a range of sources including representatives of the organisation, past experiences and observations by friends. Psychological contracts

only involve the expectations that have emanated from the employer and therefore are what the employee believes they are entitled to receive (Robinson, 1996). As such, not all expectations are perceived as obligations (Robinson, 1996).

Research (e.g. Arnold & MacKenzie Davey, 1994; Hoffman, 1997; Sturges, Guest & Mackenzie Davey, 2000; Parry & Proctor-Thomson, 2003) strongly suggests that despite suggestions of the redundancy of organisational careers and career management practices, employees expect organisational career management and this forms part of the psychological contract. A selection of this research is mentioned below. A 1991 survey of over 1000 US graduates showed that career prospects and training opportunities offered were the number one reason for joining an organisation (Arnold & MacKenzie Day, 1994). Hoffman found from 216 responses in a United States Fortune 200 manufacturing organisation that irrespective of locus of control, managers and non-managers had an expectation that the organisation would provide career development programmes and initiatives. Sturges et al. found that graduates have very high expectations that the organisation should and will provide career management and that graduate expectations are often higher than what is actually provided by the organisation. In a New Zealand sample, Parry and Proctor-Thomson found that 40% of respondents believed career development was the responsibility of the organisation and the individual and 22% of respondents believed that it was not the individual's responsibility. It is possible that this expectation may be higher in an organisation, such as the NZDF, that places a high emphasis on a relational contract.

In addition to expectations, organisational characteristics such as compensation systems, values and mission statements shape psychological contracts and they are therefore not static representations (Rousseau, 1995). Robinson et al. (1994) found that employees' perceived obligations of themselves and their employer change over time with generally, perceived employer obligations increasing and employees' own obligations decreasing. Some of this change is attributable by Robinson et al. to breaches of the psychological contract, however they also suggest that the change not attributable to breaches of the psychological contract in their study may be attributable to other causes such as an improvement in organisational policies.

Violation of the psychological contract is "a failure to comply with the terms of a contract" (Rousseau, 1995, p. 112). However, due to their inherent subjective and changing nature, *experience* of a violation and its negative consequences are influenced by a number of factors such as attribution, the importance of the contract to the individual and a consideration of fairness (Rousseau, 1995). Although a number of factors play a role in experiencing violation of the contract, the erosion of trust that the relationship is built on appears to be the most important. For example, Robinson (1996) found, using a sample of 125 alumni of a United States business school, that unmet expectations and trust both mediated the relationship between perceived psychological contract breach and the outcome variables. Trust was a stronger mediator than unmet expectations and combined, trust and unmet expectations fully mediated the relationship (Robinson, 1996).

Studies consistently show negative outcomes of an experienced breach. In a longitudinal study over two and a half years of 96 alumni of a Master of Business Administration degree in a Midwest United States Management school, psychological contract breach was found to be negatively related to employee performance and civic virtue behaviour and positively related to turnover intentions (Robinson et al., 1994). This result was found one year after the breach and irrespective of the number of promotions or pay rises received in the organisation (Robinson et al., 1994). Robinson et al. also found that those who reported low trust in their employer were more likely than those with trust to experience a contract breach.

In their study of 800 managers, Turnley and Feldman (1999) found that psychological contract breach was most strongly related to exit (searching for alternative employment) and loyalty (defending the promoting the organisation to outside people) and more weakly, but still significantly, related to voice (complaining about perceived injustices) and neglect (for example, doing personal business on employee time and generally wasting time). They also found that the availability of alternative employment moderated the relationship between psychological contract breach and exit suggesting that following a breach, unhappy and unproductive employees may remain in an organisation until alternative employment becomes available (Turnley & Feldman, 1999). Therefore although turnover may not occur, the breach still has a detrimental effect on the organisation.

Experienced violation of the contract can also be dependent on the form of the relationship. If perceived violation occurs in a transactional relationship, the balance can easily be restored by the employee reducing their work input (Robinson et al., 1994). However, as the basis of a relational contract is the relationship itself and its socio-emotional obligations, the outcome of a breach is reduced organisational commitment and ultimately turnover (Robinson et al., 1994).

Organisational Support Theory

The second popular social exchange theory underlying the present study is Organisational Support Theory (OST). This assumes that employees develop a generalised belief, termed Perceived Organisational Support (POS), regarding 1) how much the organisation cares about them and values their contribution, and 2) how ready the organisation is to reward employee effort (Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli, 2001). POS then results in an employee being more committed to the organisation and partaking in more productive behaviors.

McFarlane Shore and Tetrick (1991), using goodness of fit measures of different factor models, provided support for the idea that POS is empirically and conceptually distinct from both affective and continuance commitment. Conceptually speaking, organisational commitment focuses on an employee's attitude toward the organisation and POS focuses on an employee's perceptions of the organisation's attitude towards them (McFarlane Shore & Tetrick, 1991). As expected, considering social exchange theory, POS and affective commitment were strongly correlated (McFarlane Shore & Tetrick, 1991). Eisenberger, Fasolo and Davis-LaMastro (1990) found that POS was positively related to affective commitment, in addition to conscientiousness in carrying out job responsibilities, loyalty, and innovation in the absence of anticipative reward.

A meta-analysis by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) found that POS had a strong, positive relationship with affective commitment (corrected correlation = .73) and a small negative relationship with continuance commitment (corrected correlation = -.15). Rhoades and Eisenberger also found that POS had a moderate negative

relationship with withdrawal behavior, in particular intention to leave (corrected correlation = -.51), however affective commitment moderated this relationship. Confirming the often assumed direction of causality, Rhoades et al. (2001), utilised a longitudinal design with a two year time lag for one sample of 333 employees of a large electronics and appliance sales organisation located in the northeastern United States and a three year time lag for another sample of 226 employees from the same organisation. They found that POS was positively related to a temporal change in affective commitment and that affective commitment was not associated with a temporal change in POS (Rhoades et al., 2001)

POS is said to develop as the employee personifies the organisation and therefore acts by organisational representatives, for example management and supervisors, become reflective of the organisation. Policies and practices used by the organisation also form the employee's perception of POS. Hutchison (1997) found support for this in his examination of a path model of POS. He showed that formal policies and procedures and the actions of the immediate supervisors form the basis of POS. Possible antecedents of commitment such as role conflict, participative decision making and consideration from a supervisor influenced affective commitment indirectly though measures of organisational dependability and perceived supervisor support (Hutchison, 1997).

Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski and Rhoades (2002), using a sample of 314 alumni of a Belgium university, found that perceived supervisor support (PSS) was positively related to a temporal change in POS, suggesting that supervisor support is interpreted by participants as POS. Using a different sample of 300 employees who worked for a chain of large electronics and appliances stores in northeastern United States, Eisenberger et al. found that the strength of the relationship between PSS and POS increased with the perceived status of the supervisor. Using a third sample of 493 employees who worked for the same organisation as used in their second study, POS completely mediated the relationship between PSS and employee turnover (Eisenberger et al., 2002). In the meta-analysis of Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) POS almost completely mediated the relationship between organisational rewards, procedural justice and supervisor support and affective commitment (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). These studies suggest that it is

not HRM practices or organisational characteristics per se that influence affective commitment, but the perception of POS that they create for the employee.

OST also contends that discretionary aid is more valued than aid that the organisation is compelled to provide by such forces as legislation and unions. This is because it more convincingly shows a concern for the employee's welfare or higher POS (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli and Lynch (1997) received 295 responses from alumni of a United States university and found the relationship between the favorableness of job conditions and POS was greater when the job conditions were perceived by employees as highly discretional. Eisenberger et al. (1997) showed that high-discretion job conditions accounted for about 5.5 times as much variance in POS than low discretion job conditions. Across the organisations involved in the study, job conditions classified by employees as low, medium and high discretion differed. This shows that it is not a specific set of job conditions that leads to POS but the perceived discretion of them (Eisenberger et al., 1997).

A meta-analysis of 58 studies across various industries found that fair treatment, supervisor support and favorable job conditions were antecedents of POS (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). The same meta-analysis found that person characteristics, such as personality, and demographic variables were weakly related to POS (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Of the three antecedents of POS, fairness had the strongest relationship, followed by supervisor support and then favorable job conditions and rewards (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Favorable job conditions include things such as recognition, pay, promotions, job security, autonomy and training. Rhoades and Eisenberger suggest that their results can be explained by the fact that fairness is something that could be perceived by employees as easily controlled by management and therefore discretionary.

The final key component of OST is the assertion that from POS, a reciprocity norm is developed and employees are assumed to partake in behavior more productive for the organisation if POS is higher. Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch and Rhoades (2001) found support for the reciprocity norm in a sample of 413 mail processing workers. The relationship between POS and a felt obligation to care about the welfare of the organisation strengthened when employees showed acceptance for the

reciprocity norm in the workplace. The felt obligation to care about the welfare of the organisation mediated the relationship between POS and both affective commitment and in-role performance (Eisenberger et al., 2001).

Career management practices are a discretionary job condition; it is not something an organisation is compelled to provide by outside forces. Crabtree (1996) in a study of career management perceptions found that effective, fair, well-communicated and sincerely administered organisational career management practices increase POS, using a sample of 151 full time workers across various industries. It is likely that this occurs through displaying a concern for the employee and showing a commitment to the employee on the employer's part (Crabtree, 1996). This would be particularly important within a relational exchange, where this reciprocal concern is central to maintaining the relationship (Robinson et al., 1994; Tsui et al., 1997). Similar results to Crabtree were later found by Wayne, Shore and Liden (1997). In a sample of 252 employees of a large US Corporation, Wayne et al. found that employees who participated in development experiences and training reported higher levels of POS. Similarly, employees who had received more promotions during the past five years, assumedly an outcome of a career management system, reported higher levels of POS (Wayne et al., 1997).

A combination of the concepts inherent in OST and Psychological Contract Theory underlies the present study. Aselage and Eisenberger (2003) outline the two distinct types of obligations involved in POS and psychological contract theory. Psychological contracts are specific obligations that although not static, tend to generate early in the employment relationship (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). OST on the other hand concentrates on generalised obligations that develop as the relationship develops and with its strong emphasis on discretionary actions form obligations not part of the psychological contract (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003).

The present study investigates if PECMP is related to organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. It contends that receiving organisational career management is an employment expectation that is central to an employee's relational exchange with the organisation. Considering the NZDF promotes and is likely to foster a relational exchange, expectations of career management may form part of the

psychological contract. As such, if these expectations are not met then commitment may be eroded. Additionally, if organisational career management is provided then this is likely to display POS to the employee. Herriot et al. (1994) believe that if career management is central to a relational exchange then it is naturally expected to influence attitudes such as affective commitment and intentions to leave; however perceptions of the labor market (related to continuance commitment) should also be considered.

The next section discusses research which has investigated the effect of career management practices on organisational commitment. It begins with research on the objective environment, i.e. whether particular practices have been received, and then discusses research involving the subjective environment, i.e. employees' *perceptions* of these practices.

Research on Career Management Practices

Actual Career Management Practices

This section discusses research on career management practices; that is, the attitudinal and cognitive outcomes and benefits that result when employees have experienced one or more career management practices without a consideration of employee perceptions of the utility of the practices. Results, discussed below, have been mixed, but they are limited by the use of a graduate population.

Sturges et al. (2000), using a cross sectional design, found a positive relationship between both individual and organisational career management and affective commitment within graduates' first 10 years of work. The only exception was 'mobility oriented behavior', a form of self career management that sees individuals looking for career advancement outside the current organisation (Sturges et al., 2000). It was also found that different forms of career management benefit graduates' commitment at different stages of their first 10 years in an organisation. In early years, training was most important, however in later years (8 years plus), informal career management (e.g. being introduced to the right people and career advice) had a greater impact on commitment (Sturges et al., 2000).

Similar cross sectional results were later found by Sturges et al. (2002) with a sample of 212 graduates; however career management practices were not predictive of increased organisational commitment two years later. Formal career management activities at time 2 (for example training, a development plan and provision of opportunities) were associated with higher levels of organisational commitment at time 2. Longitudinal analysis revealed that organisational career management at time 1 was not related to organisational commitment at time 2. A number of limitations are recognised by the authors that may have contributed to the failure to support the study hypotheses. These include common method variance and a buoyant labour market at time 2 with a recognition that "organizational commitment often decreases when the job market is favorable" (Sturges et al., 2002, p. 743).

Using the same measures as Sturges et al. (2002) and also a graduate population (n=151), Sturges, Conway, Guest and Liefooghe (2005) found that receiving informal career help (for example, given career advice when needed) was positively associated with affective commitment and job performance and negatively associated with mobility oriented behavior. These relationships were found to be mediated by fulfillment of the psychological contract, suggesting that expectations and subjectivity play an important role in the relationship between career management and attitudinal outcomes (Sturges et al., 2005). No relationship was found between formal career management help, affective commitment and job performance. Additionally, no relationship was found between formal and informal career help and continuance commitment, absenteeism and turnover (Sturges et al., 2005).

Overall, these studies, although limited by their samples, provide limited evidence that organisational career management practices influence employee attitudes. A self-explained limitation of the studies was that their research did not examine the perceived utility of the programmes to the employees. Crabtree (1996) suggests that the objective environment is important but it is the subjectively constructed environment that is consequential for predicting individual attitudinal outcomes. Research on the relationship between *perceptions* of career management and organisational attitudes such as commitment are discussed below. This consideration of perceptions as opposed to actual practices is the concern of this research.

Perceptions of Career Management Practices

Crabtree (1996) investigated perceptions of career management practices with a sample of 151 full-time workers across a number of industries in a number of cities in Pennsylvania, United States. Participants were enrolled in either an MBA or in adult education classes, and data was collected by surveying participants' opinions on career management practices and their goals and values. Individual data was then matched to surveys completed by a human resource professional from the participants' organisation which recorded the types of career management practices offered by the organisation and the values of the organisation.

Crabtree (1996) found that employee perceptions of career management practices, in particular perceptions of counseling/mentoring and training/development activities were moderately or highly correlated with POS, instrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction, affective commitment, normative commitment and job satisfaction. Perceptions of career management practices were also negatively correlated with perceptions of a negative political climate in the organisation, which is partly representative of fairness perceptions. Crabtree (1996) investigated perceptions of particular career development practices, for example training and mentoring, and concluded that her study highlighted the importance of studying the interaction of different practices, along with organisational and individual variables.

Gaertner and Nollen (1989) investigated the relationship between career experiences, perceptions of company employment practices and affective commitment in a sample of 496 factory and office workers of a large manufacturing plant. Using regression analysis, they found that perceptions of employment security, internal job mobility (promotion within) and beliefs of being well trained for current and future jobs were the three strongest predictors of affective commitment. Other predictors were perceptions of participative decision making, supervisor relationships and instrumental communication. Although not individual practices, those found to be the strongest predictors are all part of, or outcomes of, an organisation's career management system. This study, albeit dated, suggests that perceiving a career within

an organisation and receiving organisational career management may be important for the development of affective commitment to the organisation.

Arnold and Mackenzie Davey (1999) conducted longitudinal research of 474 graduates across eight organisations in a range of industries. They defined their construct of career development as "the extent to which future career paths were attractive and clearly specified and the favorability of career progress so far" (p.221). Other variables used in their regression were perceptions of: intrinsic work characteristics, organisational dependability, relationship with supervisor, relationships with colleagues, equal opportunities, and pay and benefits. Career development was a moderate predictor of organisational commitment although intrinsic work characteristics (e.g. decision making, variety and autonomy) was a stronger predictor. However, they did find that career development was easily the most significant predictor of turnover intentions (β = -.29), and that it also uniquely influenced actual turnover. This study also suggests that career development is important to both organisational commitment and turnover intentions.

Herriot et al. (1994) tested a model of managerial careers in organisations that included the construct of 'satisfaction with career management'. This construct used a 6 item measure which assessed the extent to which respondents were satisfied with a variety of career features including career progress, management level, opportunities provided, career planning, and work autonomy. Using an opportunity sample of 200 managers from a variety of organisations attending management courses directed by their employer, they found that managers who were more satisfied with their career management were less likely to report intending to leave the organisation however, perceptions of opportunities for alternative employment (a component of continuance commitment) also influenced these intentions (Herriot et al., 1994).

The above reviewed literature, focusing on perceptions of practices and not practices per se, shows stronger evidence of the relationship between career management practices and organisational commitment. Based on social exchange theories it is argued here that this occurs through fulfilling the psychological contract and displaying organisational support for the employee. Research reviewed earlier

provides strong evidence for the relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intentions in both civilian and military samples (e.g. Hom et al., 1992; Griffeth et al., 2000; Meyer et al., 2002) and turnover intentions has been shown to be the strongest predictor of actual turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000). As such, perceptions of effective career management practices may decrease turnover through their effect on commitment and turnover intentions.

The literature reviewed so far provides support for the first aim of this research: to investigate the role that PECMP plays in organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. The second aim of this research was to identify what variables may influence PECMP. Knowing these variables will allow organisations to focus efforts on fostering positive perceptions of career management practices which in turn, may increase organisational commitment (particularly affective) and decrease turnover intentions and actual turnover. The next section discusses research on variables that may be antecedents of PECMP.

Antecedents of Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Career Management Practices

As the above research suggests that PECMP may have a positive relationship with organisational commitment, part of the current research is to investigate what factors influence PECMP. Only one study could be found that completed similar research. Herriot et al. (1994), using a sample of 200 managers across a range of industries, used regression analysis to investigate the role of variables in predicting satisfaction with career management. Several significant predictors were found. Two of these predictors were what the authors perceived as measuring career progress: an objective measure of managerial level ($\beta = 0.21$) and the subjective measure of career timetable, defined as feeling behind, ahead or on target for career progression ($\beta = 0.15$). The final measure of career progress, salary ($\beta = -0.05$), was not a significant predictor of satisfaction with career management.

Some measures of 'perceptions of the organisations career management' were also found to be significant predictors of satisfaction with career management. These were the extent to which the organisation managed careers fairly ($\beta = 0.52$) and

'development orientation', defined as the importance the organisation attaches to training and development opportunities (β= 0.20). Measures of 'satisfaction of career management' that were found to be non-significant were: perceptions of the organisation's power in individual career decisions (β = -0.08); the extent to which training and development were perceived as the individual's or organisation's responsibility (β = 0.00); the extent to which the organisation was perceived to value specialist knowledge and experience (β = 0.04); the extent to which the decision to stay or leave the organisation was perceived to be within the individuals' control (β= -0.11); how open the organisation was regarding a future career for the individual (β = 0.05); and the extent to which job opportunities within the organisation were made known (β = 0.11).

Therefore, at least in their sample, Herriot et al. (1994) showed that an organisation with a development orientation and, most importantly, an organisation that has a fair career management system is likely to foster more favorable perceptions of their career management system. These features of career management are "greater contributors to satisfaction than actual or perceived career progress" (Herriot et al., 1994, p. 120).

Although Herriot et al. (1994) is the only study found that investigates the potential influences on PECMP, a number of other studies, (as discussed in the following sections), from within and outside the career management discipline, and non-empirical work in the area suggest a number of variables that may influence PECMP, for example, information, supervisor support for career management and career planning. The following discussion draws largely on research that has shown, or suggests, these variables relate to attitudinal outcomes including organisational commitment and job satisfaction. The first variable proposed in this study to influence PECMP is "met expectations". This is based on psychological contract theory (discussed earlier). The remaining 12 variables investigated in this study are discussed below, beginning with the strongest predictor in Herriot et al's study, fairness.

Fairness

Fairness is a popular concept in organisational literature as questions regarding it arise whenever decisions must be made about the allocation of resources (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). Career management is one of these areas and despite few formal integrations of fairness and career management research, career management textbooks consistently emphasise the need for fairness (Wooten & Cobb, 1999). Fairness, often referred to as justice, has three main components as defined below (Farmer, Beehr & Love, 2003).

The first component, distributive justice, is the fairness of the outcome distributions. The second component, procedural justice, is the fairness of the methods by which outcome decisions are made, for example, decisions should be made consistently, without biases and using accurate information (Greenberg, 1990; Farmer et al., 2003). The third component, interactional justice, encompasses the level of interpersonal treatment. This is further divided into two parts: interpersonal justice, the degree to which people are treated with respect, politeness and dignity; and informational justice, which "focuses on the explanations provided to people that convey information about why procedures were used in a certain way or why outcomes were distributed in a certain fashion" (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter & Ng, 2001, p. 427).

Meta-analysis by Colquitt et al. (2001) of 120 separate meta-analyses and 183 empirical studies showed that both distributive and procedural fairness had a high positive correlation with job satisfaction (r=.46; r=.51), organisational commitment (r=.42; r=.48) and trust (r=.48; .52). It also showed a negative correlation with organisational withdrawal (r=-.41; r= -.36). These results demonstrate that both the outcome and how the outcome was decided are important when individuals' evaluate fairness. Interpersonal justice was moderately related to job satisfaction (r= .31) and weakly related to organisational commitment (r=.16) and withdrawal (r= -.02). Informational justice was moderately related to job satisfaction (r=.38), organisational commitment (r=.26) and withdrawal (r=-.21).

Colquitt et al. (2001) also found that each component of justice had unique effects on the outcome variables, with procedural fairness the most important for organisational commitment and job satisfaction. McFarlin and Sweeney (1992) found that distributive justice was related to personal outcomes such as satisfaction with pay and job satisfaction; procedural justice was related to organisational outcomes such as commitment and evaluations of the supervisor. They suggest this could be because procedures define the organisation's *capacity* to treat employees fairly and therefore employees can view the organisation favorably even if they are currently dissatisfied with their outcomes, such as pay (McFarlin & Sweeny, 1992).

In addition to its demonstrated relationship to organisational commitment, perceived fairness, in particular procedural fairness, has been found to be strongly correlated with POS (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Masterton, Lewis, Goldman & Taylor, 2000); suggesting that perceptions of fairness influence employee perceptions of how supportive the organisation is. Perceptions of justice have also been found to mediate the relationship between psychological contract breech and employee reactions, job satisfaction, citizenship behavior and job performance (Kickul, Lester & Finkl, 2002). This suggests that employees may evaluate the fairness of why the psychological contract was broken before reacting.

With the exception of Herriot et al. (1994), fairness within career management practices has not been addressed to date. However as PECMP is also an attitudinal outcome, the above research, showing significant attitudinal outcomes of perceived fairness, and the results of Herriot et al., suggest that fairness of career management may be an important variable influencing PECMP.

Information

Providing information to employees about an organisation's career management practices is consistently stated in the literature to be important, however, few, if any, empirical tests have been conducted (Kram & Bragar, 1992). Procedural fairness and informational justice, which focus on why procedures are used in a certain way, indicate that communication about career management practices may be important to

organisational commitment. The current research hypothesises that providing information about career management may also influence PECMP.

Crabtree (1996) highlights that communicating the availability and intent of career management practices increases awareness of the programmes, increases perceptions of fairness, reduces anxiety and frustration and in turn influences attitudes and behaviors towards the organisation. It has also been suggested by Walker (1992) that clearly defined and communicated practices and policies allow employees to use the information to guide their career decisions and prevent employees from making their own assumptions that can led to misunderstandings, distrust, and in-turn, reduce their effectiveness. Therefore if information about career management reduces the negative outcomes mentioned by Crabtree and Walker, it is likely that information about career management practices will foster more favorable perceptions of the effectiveness of career management practices.

Feedback

Related to providing information is feedback about career management decisions made by an organisation about an employee. Feedback is an important component of fairness, in particular procedural and interactional fairness, as irrespective of the decision, the decision is likely to be received more positively if it has been made fairly, adequate explanations have been given and the decision is delivered with respect and dignity (Wooten & Cobb, 1999). This is important as it is procedural fairness that shows the strongest relationships with attitudinal outcomes such as satisfaction, commitment and withdrawal (Colquitt et al., 2001). Perceptions of sufficient feedback, likely operating through fairness perceptions, may therefore increase PECMP.

Organisational Value of Career Management

In Herriot et al.'s (1994) research on what influences satisfaction with career management, employee perceptions that the organisation viewed training and development opportunities as important was a significant predictor. Although no other research could be found on this relationship, an organisation demonstrating that an

employee's career development is important to an organisation may be a sign of organisational support. It demonstrates a long-term investment in the employee, shows the organisation values the employee enough to develop them within the organisation and is likely to be part of a relational psychological contract (Robinson et al., 1994; Tsui et al., 1997). As such, it is proposed that perceived organisational support for career management will increase PECMP.

Supervisor Support for Career Development

From an OST perspective, supervisors are one of the representatives of the organisation that display organisational support for an employee and can therefore demonstrate how much the organisation values career management. Supervisors also generally have the most contact with employees and are normally responsible for distributing human resources (Hutchinson, 1997). As such, supervisors play an important role in shaping attitudes towards the organisation and its practices (Hutchinson, 1997). Research confirms this.

General supervisor support has been found to have a strong relationship with POS, especially when employees perceived the exchange between themselves and their supervisor as high quality (Hutchinson, 1997; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Wayne et al., 1997). Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found a large corrected correlation (.45) between leader communication and organisational commitment. This suggests that a supervisor who provides accurate, timely and plentiful information can increase organisational commitment.

General supervisor support in the workplace has also been shown to have a positive relationship with organisational commitment (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Rhoades & Eisnberger, 2002). In a study of 61 protégés of a United States energy and technological organisation, perceptions of supervisor and co-worker relationships, but not the mentoring relationship, were found to be positively correlated with job satisfaction, organisational commitment and negatively related to turnover intentions (Raabe & Beehr, 2003). Kidd and Smewing (2001) tested the relationship between supervisor support and commitment on a sub-sample of 200 part-time university students and full time employees. The sample was 57% female and males and

females were matched on age. Kidd and Smewing found the relationship between overall supervisor support and commitment was a positive linear relationship for females but more complex for males. For males, high supervisor support was related to high commitment and low supervisor support to low commitment. However, within moderate levels of supervisor support (25^{th} to 50^{th} percentile), a negative relationship was found (Kidd & Smewing, 2001). Kidd and Smewing propose that this could be because moderate levels of supervisor support are seen as routinised and not a special effort on the part of the supervisor, as would be required for POS.

Specifically in relation to supervisor support for career development, it has been suggested that this form of support is more within the supervisor's discretion to provide than other personnel functions such as performance management (Kidd & Smewing, 2001). Drawing on OST, this higher perceived discretion would increase its value to the employee (Kidd & Smewing, 2001). Noe (1996), using a sample of 72 employees of a state agency in Midwestern, Unitied States, found that managers' support for career development explained significant variance in employees' willingness to participate in developmental activities. This provides some support for the proposition that managers or supervisors can influence attitudes towards career management practices within an organisation.

Chang (1999) conducted hierarchical regression analysis using a sample of 227 Korean researchers across eight organisations to investigate the relationship between organisational variables and commitment. One of these variables was supervisory support in terms of careers and it was found to be a significant predictor (β=0.16) of affective commitment. Other variables found to be significant were perceived effectiveness of training, perceptions about internal promotions and perceived employment security. In a later step in the regression, career commitment moderated the effect of supervisor support on affective commitment (Chang, 1999). This shows that supervisor support for careers increases affective commitment to the organisation and that this relationship is stronger for those who are also committed to their career (Chang, 1999). No relationship was found between supervisor career support and continuance commitment (Chang, 1999).

The research reviewed above provides support for the suggestion that supervisor support for career management may increase PECMP via two routes. Firstly, supervisor support may increase participation in career management activities. Secondly, supervisors become organisational representatives that display the organisation's level of concern for the employee regarding career development.

Career Manager

Some organisations, including the military, have personnel, other than the supervisor, who are responsible for the career practices within organisations: career managers. In particular they are responsible for coordinating the wants and needs of the individual employee and the organisation and often distribute the outcomes of the system (e.g. promotions, transfers and training/development opportunities). It is proposed here that having a positive attitude towards this person may influence PECMP.

For successful career management for the individual and the organisation, the career manager must have good knowledge of the organisation (its direction and career options available) and knowledge of the individual's career plans (Baruch, 1999). Additionally, a career manager requires good interpersonal skills as often employees may want to discuss issues that they cannot discuss with managers, which is particularly relevant in a performance culture where employees are not prepared to discuss their perceived weaknesses with the one who conducts their performance appraisal (Crabtree, 1996; Kidd, 1998). Research into effective career discussions show that a giver, in this case the career manager, must show interest and commitment; trustworthiness; honesty; frankness; empathy; be non-judgmental; have good listening and facilitative skills; provide information; and give feedback (Kidd, Hirsch & Jackson, 2004).

No research could be found on the outcomes of career manager behaviours or career discussion. However, research discussed above concerning the outcomes of perceived supervisor support, the particular attributes and skills needed to conduct a successful career management discussion and a broad consideration of the role career mangers play (i.e. managing one's career where careers are often an important commodity;

Minor, 1992) provides support for the proposition that attitudes towards the career manager may influence PECMP.

Attitudes towards career managers may be influenced by how often the career manager meets with the employee. Career preferences (or goals) change overtime (Saunders & Fogarty, 2001). Sufficient contact to realise these changes is beneficial to both the individual and the organisation. These changes in preferences are often not spur of the moment and there is a potential for turnover if an organisation does not continue to acknowledge and meet the career preferences of the individual (Saunders & Fogarty, 2001). As career preferences and goals are individual, it is likely that the desired frequency of contact with a career manager is likely to be an individual choice. Perceived sufficient contact demonstrates to employees their career preferences are being heard and allows them to have a current version of their career plan. As such it may influence attitudes towards the career manager.

Career Planning

Another possible variable influencing PECMP is career planning. Career plans help people identify goals (Aryee & Debrah, 1993) and the mechanisms for achieving them (Greenhaus et al., 2000). They also convey what an organisation is prepared to offer an employee, in terms of a career for the future (Walker, 1992). From an organisational perspective, career plans contribute to or are an outcome of succession planning of personnel (Schein, 1992). This succession planning allows organisations to develop internal talent and plan for how they will fill appointments and as such has a strong relationship with the career management system (Aryee & Debrah, 1993; Schein, 1992). Succession planning is especially critical in an organisation, such as the NZDF, where lateral recruitment is difficult.

Career plans provide a dialogue between the organisation and the employee (Crabtree, 1996). From the employees' perspective, career plans provide them with insight, direction and certainty. They allow them to recognise career opportunities and a future within the organisation; reduce the stress associated with job and career adjustments; and reduce misunderstandings regarding career management (Aryee & Debrah, 1993; Souerwine, 1992). A career plan can also lead employees with

malleable career plans to adapt to an organisation's plan (Crabtree, 1996). If employees can visualise themselves in a particular organisation, it may contribute to an employee remaining with an organisation that would not have been the case without career information and a plan (Leibowitz, Schlossberg, & Shore, 1992). Research into the importance of a career plan is discussed below.

Skromme Granrose and Portwood (1987), in a sample of 266 employed people attending a continuing education course, found that of the degree to which employees' perceived a match between their career plan and that of the organisation's was increased when employees reported knowing the organisation's career plan for them. It was also found that increased perceived alignment between the employees and the organisations career plan was related to higher satisfaction with the organisation, more perceived positive opportunities for career progress and decreased levels of searching for alternative employment. This highlights the importance of having and communicating career plans for employees. Participation in career management activities and the availability of career management information was not related to a perceived match between the individual and the organisation or to the outcome variables in the study (Skromme Granrose & Portwood, 1987). Therefore, Skromme et al. conclude that the important element in an organisational career management model is providing a career plan and preferably a match between the individual and the organisation plan.

Crabtree (1996) found similar results regarding career planning in her study of the outcomes of receiving organisational career management. Individuals who perceived a match between their career plan and those of the organisation were more likely to report positive attitudes towards career training, development, counseling and mentoring. Crabtree highlights that if employees do not have a formal career plan then they have no way of assessing whether their plans match those of their organisation.

Aryee and Debrah (1993) found that having a career plan was strongly correlated with career commitment (r=.50) in a Singaporean sample of 214 technical, professional and administrative/managerial employees across both the public and private sector. Using a path model, 'career planning' was related to a 'career strategy' (how the

career plan will be achieved) which was related to 'satisfaction with career'. 'Satisfaction with career' was related to 'self-esteem at work' which was related to 'career commitment'. Career planning also had a significant direct path to career commitment. Although this study related to career and not organisational commitment, other research (e.g. Chang, 1999) has shown that career commitment has a positive relationship with organisational commitment. This relationship may be higher in a 'monopoly' organisation, such as the NZDF, where, career and organisational commitment may become intertwined.

Arnold and Mackenzie Davey (1999), in their study of the relationship between graduates' work experiences, commitment and turnover intentions, included the construct of career development, defined as "the extent to which future career paths were attractive and clearly specified and the favourability of career progress so far" (p. 221). Career development was easily the most significant predictor of turnover intentions (β=-.29) and a moderate predictor (β=.15) of organisational commitment. Although this construct is broad, encompassing components of future career paths and career progress to date, it does suggest that future career paths play a role in organisational attitudes and turnover (Arnold & Mackenzie Davey, 1999).

Career planning can also help combat perceptions of career plateauing, which can have negative consequences for employee attitudes. Allen, Russel, Poteet and Dobbins (1999) found that career planning was significantly, negatively correlated with both job content and hierarchical plateauing in a sample of 1,198 non-managerial employees from all divisions of the United States government. Lemire, Saba and Gagnon (1999) found in their study of 192 managers and professionals in the Quebec public sector that the absence of career planning, along with lack of career support, lack of career development and lack of new roles accentuates the perception of career plateauing. Considering that perceptions of plateauing has a negative impact on commitment and turnover intentions (Lemire et al., 1999), the results of these studies suggest that knowing career paths, options and opportunities within an organisation will have a positive impact on 'intra' rather than 'inter' organisational mobility (Allen et al., 1999; Lemire et al., 1999).

These studies combined demonstrate that having a career plan has a relationship with attitudes and decision making within an organisation, in particular organisational commitment and turnover intentions. As career planning is part of the wider career management process, career planning may also influence PECMP, and this is proposed in the present study.

Future Career Development

Faith that the career plan will eventuate is also likely to influence PECMP. Baruch (1996) warns that a downside of career planning is that it can raise expectations. If these expectations are not met than this will have a negative outcome for the individual and in turn the organisation. Related to this, a belief that an individual will have future career success within an organisation is likely to be related to attitudinal outcomes. Limited studies have investigated this.

Skromme et al. (1987) found, in a sample of 266 currently employed people attending a continuing education course, that those who believed they had good prospects for career success were more satisfied with their organisation and less likely to search for external alternatives. Similar results were found by Morris, Lydka and Fenton O'Creevy (1993) who, using a sample of 98 United Kingdom engineering graduates, found that a lack of career prospects within an organisation were more likely to make a person leave than stay with an organisation. If perceptions of future career success are attributable to the career management system, then it is likely that these perceptions will also influence PECMP.

Employee Input

It has been suggested that individuals are now willing to take more of a self-management role regarding their career (Brousseau et al., 1996). Additionally, people have career anchors that form part of their self-concept and indicate to them what they are good at, what they need, what motivates them and these govern their work related choices (Schein, 1992). Possible career anchors include stability, autonomy, challenge, technical competence and management competence (Schein, 1992). If a career management process does not have a participative approach and consider

individual career anchors along with aspirations and personal circumstances then employees are likely to become dissatisfied and may fulfill their self-concept elsewhere (Crabtree, 1996). Therefore it is likely that having input into the direction of one's career, including having personal needs and aspirations considered, is likely to influence PECMP. Consideration of the military culture of 'service', where the organisation is to be put before self, must also be given. This may result in military personnel, more so than other occupations, being more likely to accept that organisational needs often dictate and therefore placing less emphasis on input.

Career Development Satisfaction

Kidd's (1998) dynamic model of the career sees that attitudes and feelings in one work role affect the way the next is prepared for and encountered. Within this model, one's feelings of career success or satisfaction with career development will influence future career attitudes and behaviour (Kidd, 1998). Assuming that career success is at least in part attributed to the organisation's career management system, past success could be viewed as a predictor of later attitudes towards the career management system.

Career success can be measured in two ways: objectively, such as organisational level and salary, and subjectively. As individuals have different referents for success, it is now agreed that a subjective measure of career success is the best measure for predicting attitudinal outcomes (Heslin, 2003; Van Eck & Peluchette, 1993). This is supported by research that shows low correlations between subjective career success and objective measures. For example, Judge, Boudreau and Bretz Jr. (1994) found the correlation between perceived career success and pay success to be .19 and between perceived career success and promotion success to be .15. Seibert, Crant and Kraimer (1999) found that career satisfaction showed a small correlation with promotions (.20) and salary (.31).

Prior research shows that career success, in particular when measured subjectively, is a predictor of career related attitudes. Aryee and Debrah (1993) found that career satisfaction, where career was referred to as the subject's 'line of work', related to self-esteem at work and career commitment. Herriot et al. (1994) in their model of

career management for managers found using regression analysis that two of their career success variables were significantly related to satisfaction with career management. These were the objective measure of managerial level (β=0.21) and the subjective feeling of whether one was behind, ahead, or on their career target (β=0.15).

Career progress was one component of the variable named career development in a longitudinal study by Arnold and Mackenzie Davey (1999). They defined career development as "the extent to which future career paths were attractive and clearly specified and the *favorability of career progress so far*" (Arnold & Mackenzie Davey, 1999, p.221). They found that career development was easily the most significant predictor of intention to leave the organisation (β=-.29) and a moderate predictor of organisational commitment (β=.15). They also found a strong association between career development and actual turnover. Although it can not be ascertained the role that career progress played in this construct, or what impact the construct has on the perceptions of career management, it does suggest that career progress influences perceptions of organisational commitment and turnover and, as such, may play a role in PECMP.

An additional two studies show that past career experiences and successes may influence current attitudes and behaviors. In a study of 170 personnel of a United Kingdom financial services organisation who were being evaluated as part of a management development program, it was found that those who received negative feedback about their prior development became less committed to the organisation and more likely to consider leaving (Robertson, Iles, Gratton & Sharpley, 1991). Wayne et al. (1997) found in a sample of 252 employees of a large United States corporation that employees who had received more promotions during the past five years, assumedly an outcome of the career management system, reported higher levels of POS. This indicates that the history of development and promotion within an organisation may influence POS (Wayne et al., 1997).

Career plateauing research also indicates the role that past career success may play in both organisational commitment and PECMP, if plateauing is considered a sign of

unsatisfactory career development. A study of 192 managers and professionals in the Quebec public sector found that perceptions of career plateauing were negatively correlated with organisational commitment (-0.27), work performance (-.23) and positively related to intentions to quit (0.27), in addition to individual consequences such as depressive states, physical health problems and felt conflict with the organisation (Lemire et al., 1999). Referring to the career plateauing research above, it must be noted that career plateauing is not always negative as it can, for example, reflect a desire for the individual to have a more balanced lifestyle. Although career plateauing generally implies a lack of hierarchical movement, lateral moves can keep 'plateaued' individuals stimulated (Greenhaus et al., 2000).

The above research combined suggests that past experiences with, and outcomes of, an organisational career management system may influence perceptions of how effective the system is.

Links with Other Human Resource Practices

A number of writers within the career management area contend that to be successful and have the desired results, both objectively for the organisation and subjectively in terms of its participants, career management systems must have internal and external fit (Baird & Meshoulam, 1988; Crabtree, 1996; Kram & Brager, 1992; Rosenbaum, 1989). Internal fit means that actual career management practices, for example mentoring, job rotation and counseling, must be compatible and co-ordinated (Baird & Meshoulam, 1988). External fit means that career management practices should be linked and consistent with business objectives and strategies and other human resource policies and practices (Baird & Meshoulam, 1988; Kram & Brager, 1992). Two of these human resource practices are performance appraisals and training (Baruch, 1999).

Performance appraisal.

From an organisational perspective, a valid and reliable performance appraisal system will provide answers about how best to utilise human resources within an organisation and helps with vital functions such as succession planning and how to distribute

career management/development opportunities such as training (Baruch, 1999). From an employee perspective, Souerwine (1992) stated that misunderstandings regarding career management systems can arise from a failure to show a link between performance appraisals and career opportunities. As such, it is proposed here that career management practices will be perceived as more effective if a clear relationship can be seen between performance appraisals and career management decisions as it demonstrates procedural fairness in the system and reduces negative attitudes that can arise when misunderstandings exist.

Training.

Research has shown a link between training and positive organisational outcomes. Gaertner and Nollen (1989) found that a belief of being well trained for current and future jobs was a strong predictor of affective commitment in a sample of office and factory workers at a large manufacturing plant. Wayne et al. (1997) studied the relationship between training and POS in a sample of 252 employees of a large United States corporation. POS was found to be related to formal training, informal training and receiving development experiences. This indicates that employees perceive the organisation as more supportive of them if training and development is provided. In a study of 666 United States Naval Recruits in training, it was found that organisational commitment and self-efficacy (beliefs in ones capability to perform a task) increased following training even after controlling for pre-training attitudes. This effect was more pronounced when training met the expectations of the recruits, recruits were satisfied with the training experience and recruits performed well during training (measured objectively) (Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 1991).

The above studies demonstrate positive attitudinal outcomes in employees who have been provided with adequate training. Additionally, training has obvious links to the career management system as it is often the training that allows the individual to progress both hierarchically and laterally. As such, perceiving that one has been given training to progress their career may influence PECMP.

To support the second aim of this research, the above literature outlines 12 variables that are proposed to influence perceptions of the effectiveness of career management

practices in a military sample. Additionally, based on psychological contract theory it is proposed that met expectations regarding career management will also influence these perceptions.

In conclusion, the first aim of this research was to investigate the role of PECMP in influencing organisational commitment, job satisfaction and ultimately turnover intentions within the NZDF. Research reviewed earlier (e.g. Arnold & Mackenzie Davey, 1999; Crabtree 1996, Herriot et al., 1994) provides support that PECMP may influence commitment. As job satisfaction is also an attitudinal outcome, it is likely that PECMP will also influence this. It is proposed, with some support from past research (Crabtree, 1996), that this occurs within the NZDF through the social exchange; specifically as organisational career management displays organisational support for employees and fulfills the conditions of the psychological contract within the spans of a relational social exchange. Finally, research reviewed (e.g. Hom et al., 1992; Griffeth et al., 2000; Meyer et al., 2002) provides strong support that in turn, organisational commitment, and to a somewhat lesser degree, job satisfaction will have a negative relationship with turnover intentions.

Considering that turnover intentions have been shown to be the best predictor of actual turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000), overall this study argues that providing career management that is perceived as effective by employees will ultimately reduce voluntary turnover. The second aim of this research was to identify variables that are related to PECMP. Few studies (e.g. Herriot et al., 1994) have completed such research, however the above review of literature from other fields suggests 13 variables that may be related. The next chapter outlines the hypotheses for this study. Following this, the method for testing these hypotheses is outlined.

Chapter 3: Study Hypotheses

The aim of the present research is: 1) to investigate the relationship of perceptions of the effectiveness of career management practices (PECMP) to organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions, and; 2) to identify variables that are related to PECMP in the New Zealand Defence Force (NZDF). Based on these aims and the research reviewed in the previous chapter, the following hypotheses were developed.

Organisational Support Theory (OST) and Psychological Contract Theory suggest that providing organisational career management will influence attitudes towards one's employing organisation, especially in a relational social exchange (Blau, 1967) like that encouraged in the NZDF. Organisational career management is considered a discretionary practice, and as such OST would argue that such practices portrays organisational support for the employee. Perceived Organisational Support (POS) has been found to have positive employee outcomes such as increased affective commitment which is likely to occur through the reciprocal norm (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Research (e.g. Crabtree, 1996) suggests that it is the perceptions of career management rather than practices per se that influence employee attitudes such as commitment and satisfaction

Considering Psychological Contract Theory, research shows that employees do expect organisational career management (Arnold & Mackenzie Day, 1994; Sturges et al., 2000; Parry & Proctor-Thomson, 2003) and the NZDF, with is emphasis on long term careers, is likely to foster expectations of organisational career management. Therefore providing career management fulfills pre-employment expectations and more broadly fulfills the psychological contract; avoiding negative attitudinal outcomes of a breach such as reduced commitment and turnover (Robinson et al., 1994; Turnley & Feldman, 1999). In addition, career management may increase continuance commitment as it increases the perceived sacrifice of leaving the NZDF. Considering the above, it is proposed that:

1) PECMP will be positively correlated with affective commitment, continuance commitment and job satisfaction.

A number of military and civilian studies reviewed in the previous chapter have found that continuance commitment, affective commitment and job satisfaction are negatively correlated with withdrawal cognitions such as turnover intentions (e.g. Hom et al., 1992; Griffeth et al., 2000; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002; Tremble et al., 2003). Research (e.g. Jaros, 1997; Sturges et al., 2002) has also confirmed the often assumed direction of causality that commitment and satisfaction precede turnover intentions. It is therefore proposed that:

2) Affective commitment, continuance commitment and job satisfaction will be negatively related to turnover intentions.

3) PECMP will be negatively related to turnover intentions; however this relationship will be mediated by affective commitment, continuance commitment and job satisfaction.

Both Beck and Wilson (1992) and Hom et al. (1992) suggest that in monopoly organisations, such as the Police Force and the military, the sometimes limited portability of skills may mean that employees who are not affectively committed remain with the organisation due to high continuance commitment. That is, they perceive low opportunities for alternative employment and/or perceive a high sacrifice of leaving the organisation which results in a feeling one 'needs' to stay with the organisation. As the sample for this research is military, it is therefore proposed that:

4) Continuance commitment will moderate the relationship between affective commitment and turnover intentions

A review of research revealed that commitment to both the organisation and one's career influences turnover intentions and that an interaction effect occurs (Chang, 1999; Goulet

& Singh, 2002; Hackett et al., 2001). As mentioned above, the military is a monopoly organisation – you can only practice the 'profession of arms' within the military. If personnel define their career as the military and not by the job or trade they hold within the military (e.g. engineer, medic), then due to the monopoly status, career commitment and organisational affective commitment would be one in the same. It is therefore proposed that:

5) Affective commitment will be significantly higher for those who define their career by membership of the NZDF or Service than those who define their career by their trade or branch, and

6) How personnel define their career (NZDF/Service or trade/branch) will moderate the relationship between affective commitment and turnover intentions.

If personnel define their career in terms of the military and not their trade, then career opportunities outside the NZDF are extremely limited due to the monopoly status of the organisation. This means that perceptions of 'needing' to stay in the organisation are likely to be higher for this group of personnel. It is therefore proposed that:

7) Continuance commitment will be higher for those who define their career by membership of the NZDF or Service than those who define their career by their trade or branch.

The second aim of this research was to identify variables that are related to PECMP in the NZDF. The previous chapter reviewed past research and literature from the career management and other organisational behaviour disciplines. This review was focused around 12 possible variables. Based on this and a consideration of psychological contract theory, in particular met expectations, the following is proposed:

8) The following variables will be positively correlated with PECMP:
   a) Perceived level of fairness of the career management practices,

b) Perceived availability of information about career management practices,
c) Perceived sufficient feedback about career management decisions,
d) Perceived supervisor support for career development,
e) The perception of whether or not one has a satisfactory career plan that will eventuate,
f) Perceived level of personal input into career management,
g) Perception of whether the NZDF treats career development as important,
h) Perceptions of future career success within the NZDF,
i) The perceived degree of alignment between the performance appraisal system and career management practices,
j) A belief of whether or not they are given appropriate and sufficient training to progress their careers,
k) The level of positive attitude towards ones career manager,
l) The level of satisfaction with past career development, and
m) Whether expectations regarding career management practices have been met.

Career preferences change overtime and as such it is essential that organisations give employees sufficient opportunities to voice these preferences (Saunders & Fogarty, 2001). Within the NZDF this is likely to be achieved via the career manager. It is therefore proposed that:

9) Higher satisfaction with the amount of contact with a career manager will be related to higher satisfaction with that career manager.

Considering that the NZDF has frequent job rotations that often involve lateral rather than hierarchical moves, it is hypothesised that:

10) Those who define their career more laterally will show higher levels of satisfaction with career development and higher levels of PECMP than those who define their career hierarchically.

The next chapter outlines the methodology used for testing these hypotheses.

Chapter 4: Methodology

Hypotheses have been developed to examine New Zealand Defence Force (NZDF) personnel's perception of the effectiveness of career management practices and the outcomes of these perceptions. Ethical approval for this research was given by both Massey University and the NZDF in December 2005. This chapter outlines the research design, the population/sample, the measures used and the procedure undertaken to administer the measures.

Research Design

A cross-sectional correlational design was used (Spector, 1981). This is purely observational and all measurements were taken at one point in time using a survey (Spector, 1981). This design was chosen for its ease of administration, its ability to measure the perceptions, opinions and attitudes of a large sample of people and because it facilitates generalisation and validity (Crabtree, 1996). Common limitations of this design are internal validity problems and its inability to infer causal relationships (Crabtree, 1996). Although causality cannot be determined, multiple regression was also used for analyses as it was assumed, based on the literature review, that certain variables were caused or preceded by others (Spector, 1981).

Population/Sample

The population was uniformed Regular Force (RF) members of the NZDF who were based in a number of locations in New Zealand or overseas. The total population size as at 1 April 2006 was 8879. This included personnel from the Navy, Army and Air Force. The sample was randomly selected from this population using the random case selection function of SPSS (2006). Macros used by the NZDF when randomly selecting the sample resulted in personnel with less than three months tenure or less than three months left to serve not being included in the random selection process for the sample. Data was collected over a six month period, beginning October 2005. Approximately 207 surveys were sent per month and over a six month period the questionnaire was sent to a random sample of 1243 RF personnel. The survey was

also sent to an additional 317 NZDF civilian personnel, however, this group was not included in the present study.

Measures

The NZDF Ongoing Attitude Survey (OAtS) is a self-report questionnaire designed to monitor the opinions of NZDF personnel about a range of matters relating to employment in the NZDF. This includes perceptions of supervisors, senior leaders, remuneration, training and morale. The NZDF has been implementing this survey with 240 personnel (RF and civilian staff) per month since April 2003. Thirty-five of the existing questions from the OAtS were used for the present research. In addition, 28 questions were developed by this researcher to be inserted into the final 'topical' section of the survey. These questions, based on the literature review, were measures of more specific variables relating to career management practices. Using the OAtS process allowed access to a large sample and prevented over- surveying the NZDF population which may have occurred if a separate survey process was used for this research. A disadvantage of using the OAtS process was the inability of the author to design the structure of the survey.

The sixty three items used for this research were closed ended. Fifty-eight of the items had a four point likert scale response format. For 57 of those questions the four points were: 1=strongly agree, 2=mostly agree, 3=mostly disagree, and 4=strongly disagree. The remaining item (measuring job satisfaction) was also rated on a four point likert scale: 1=excellent, 2=good, 3=satisfactory and 4=poor. The mean of the item-response for each variable was used as the score for that variable. Following the reversal of some items, this resulted in a range of scores from one, indicating a negative response, to four, indicating a positive response on the variable. The remaining four questions had a categorical response format.

Items developed specifically for this research were based on the literature review. Sample items were piloted on a small sample of NZDF RF personnel for ease of use and interpretation. Responses from this pilot were used to slightly amend questions to increase interpretation. The following variables were measured (final items for each

variable, including indicating those items developed specifically for this research (individually identified), are shown in Appendix A)

Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Career Management Practices (PECMP)

Items (n=2) assessed the extent to which participants perceived career management practices in the NZDF to be effective. One question already existed in the OAtS and one was developed specifically for this research. Both questions were measured on the four point likert scale and a mean of the two items created a score on this variable. The items showed a correlation of 0.49 and the scale had a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.65. A sample item is: "career management practices in the NZDF are effective".

Affective and Continuance Commitment

Twenty items from the OAtS that were designed to measure commitment were subjected to principal components analysis (PCA) using SPSS (2006). Although the wording has been slightly amended, 11 of these questions reflect questions from the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (n=15) developed by Porter and Colleagues in 1974 (Mowday et al., 1979). The remaining nine questions used were developed by the NZDF to reflect either affective or continuance commitment.

Prior to performing PCA, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of .3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was .88, exceeding the recommended value of .60 (Kaiser, 1974) and the Barlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix.

Two components were extracted, explaining 32% and 10% of the variance respectively. An inspection of the screeplot revealed a clear break after the first and second component. The unrotated solution, presented in Table 1, shows simple structure (Thurstone, 1947); both components showed a number of strong loadings and all variables loading substantially on only one component. The item loadings clearly show a differentiation between affective commitment (component 1) and continuance commitment (component 2) in accordance with the definitions of Meyer and Allen (1991). These reflect a 'want' and a 'need' to remain with the organisation.

Items across the item loading on each factor were averaged to create a composite score for affective commitment (n=16) and continuance commitment (n=4), with higher scores representing higher commitment.

Job Satisfaction

A single existing item from the OAtS was used to assess job satisfaction. This item was "considering everything how would you rate your satisfaction in your current job?". This was rated on the four point likert scale where 1 = excellent and 4 = poor, which was reversed for analysis.

Turnover Intentions

Items (n=4) assessed the extent to which individuals were intending on leaving the NZDF in the next 12 months. These items were existing items in the OAtS and were rated on the four point likert scale. A mean of the items was used as a score and the scale had good internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha = .84). A sample item is "I will probably leave the NZDF in the next 12 months".

Career Definition

One item, specifically developed for this research, asked how participants defined their career. Response options were 1) the NZDF or Service (referring generally to the military); and 2) trade or branch.

Fairness

Items (n=4) assessed the extent to which participants felt the career management system was fair. Three items were developed for this research and one already existed in the OAtS. All items were rated on the four point likert scale and a mean of the items was used for a score on this variable. The scale showed good internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha = .79). Sample items are: "decisions are made based on clear criteria" and "career management decisions are fair".

Table 1
Factor Loadings for Principal Components Analysis of Commitment Showing Loadings Over .3

Item	Component	
	1	2
I speak highly of the NZDF to my friends*	0.76	
I think I am doing something worthwhile for my country by being in the NZDF*	0.70	
The NZDF is the best possible organisation to work for*	0.70	
I am extremely glad I chose to join the NZDF over other jobs I was considering at the time*	0.68	
The future prospects of the NZDF are good*	0.68	
I am willing to put in effort beyond that normally expected in order to help the NZDF be successful*	0.66	
I understand how I contribute to the NZDF's mission*	0.64	
I really care about the future of the NZDF*	0.64	
Deciding to join the NZDF was a definite mistake on my part	0.63	
I find that my values and the NZDF values are very similar*	0.60	
Being in the NZDF gives me a sense of belonging to one big family*	0.61	
I feel there is not much to be gained by staying in the NZDF	0.60	
I would rather work for a different organisation as long as the type of work and pay was similar	0.58	
I understand the mission, goals and objectives of the NZDF*	0.56	
I feel very little loyalty towards the NZDF	0.50	
Often I find it difficult to agree with NZDF policies on important matters relating to its employees	0.46	
There are currently better than usual opportunities for alternative employment for me.		0.77
Were I to leave the NZDF I would have a good chance of getting a similar job in another organisation.		0.74
In the NZDF, the more you do the more you are expected to do*		0.49
I only stay because I don't think I would find as good a job outside the organisation*		0.32

Note: *Items have been reversed coded

Information

Two items developed for this research measured the extent to which participants believed they were informed about the career management system. Items were assessed on the four point likert scale and a mean of the items was used as a score on this variable. These items were moderately correlated (r=.67) and the scale showed good internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha = .80). A sample item is: "I have access to information and documentation on career management systems and processes".

Feedback

Items (n=2) measured the extent to which feedback on career management decisions was sufficient. One item already existed within the OAtS and one was developed for this research. Items were rated on the four point likert scale and the mean of the two items was used as a score on this variable. These items were moderately correlated (r=.58) and the scale had good internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha = .73). A sample item, developed for this research, is: "I receive sufficient feedback on career management decisions affecting me".

Supervisor Support

Two items measured the extent to which participants felt their immediate supervisor was supportive of their career development. One of these items already existed in the OAtS and the other was developed for this research. These items were moderately correlated (r=.61) and therefore the mean across the two items was used for a score on this variable. The scale showed good internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha = .76). A sample item is: "my supervisor actively supports my career development".

Career Planning

Two items developed for this research measured the extent to which participants felt they had a satisfactory career plan within the NZDF and were confident that this would materialise. These items were rated on the four point likert scale and the mean of the items was used as a score for this variable. These items were moderately correlated (r=.57) and the scale showed good internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha = .72). A sample item is: "I am satisfied with my career plan for my future in the NZDF".

Personal Input

Four items developed for this research measured the extent to which participants felt they had input into their career development. All items were rated on the four point likert scale and the mean of the items was used as a score on this variable. The scale had good internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha = .71). Sample items are: "I have input into the direction of my career" and "my needs and aspirations are considered when decisions are made".

Organisational Value

One item, developed for this research, measured the extent to which participants felt the NZDF valued their career development. This was rated on the four point likert scale and was "my career development is treated as important by the NZDF".

Future Career Development

Two existing items in the OAtS measured the extent to which participants felt they had good future career opportunities. Items were responded to on the four point likert scale and a mean of the items was used as a score for this variable. These items were moderately correlated (r=.45) and showed acceptable internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha = .62). A sample item is: "my promotion prospects are good".

Performance Management

One item, developed for this research, assessed the extent to which participants perceived there was alignment between the performance management system and the career management system. This was rated on the four point likert scale and was "I see clear links between the performance appraisal system and career management".

Training

Items (n=4) assessed the extent to which training was perceived to have been adequate to progress one's career. Two items already existed in the OAtS and two were developed for this research. A mean of the items was used as a score on this variable and the scale had acceptable internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha = .66). A sample item is: "I have been given adequate training to progress my career".

Career Manager Satisfaction

Two items developed for this research measured the participants' satisfaction with their career manager. The items were both rated on the four point likert scale and the mean of the items was used as a score for this variable. These items were strongly correlated (r=.84) and the scale showed excellent internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha = .91). A sample item is: "I have confidence in the abilities of my career manager".

Contact with Career Manager Satisfaction

One item, specifically developed for this research, asked how many times in the last 12 months participants' had had contact with their career manager. Response options were none, 1-2 times, 3-4 times and 5 or more times.

Perception of Contact with Career Manager

One item, following 'contact with career manager', questioned whether participants' thought the number of contacts with their career manager was too few, just right or too many.

Career Development Satisfaction

Items (n=3) measured the extent to which participants felt satisfied with their career development in the NZDF to date. Two items were developed for this research and one already existed in the OAtS. All three items were rated on the four point likert scale and the mean of the items was used as a score on this variable. This scale had good internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha = .79). A sample item, developed for this research, is: "at present, I am equal or ahead of what seems to be normal career progression in the NZDF".

Met Expectations

One item, developed for this research, assessed the extent to which participants felt that their career had been managed as they expected when they joined the NZDF. This was rated on the four point likert scale and was "my career has been managed as I expected when I joined the NZDF".

Career Success Definition

One item, specifically developed for this research, asked how participants defined their career success. Response options were the hierarchical representations of 'pay progression' or 'promotion' and the lateral representation of 'other factors such as work/life balance, enjoyment and variety'

Demographic Characteristics

Demographic information was collected by linking the participants' Service numbers with the NZDF personnel system. Participant's gender, age, tenure in the NZDF and current salary were recorded. In addition, the following information was collected.

Service.

Participants were classified as belonging to either the Royal New Zealand Navy, the New Zealand Army or the Royal New Zealand Air Force. For simplicity these are referred to as the Navy, the Army and the Air Force.

Rank group.

Military personnel each hold a rank indicating their position within the hierarchy of the NZDF. The names of these ranks differ across the three Services. A common convention within the NZDF is to refer to Army ranks only and place an 'E' in brackets to indicate equivalent; as such this refers to the particular Army rank and equivalent level in the Navy and Air Force. Generally ranks are divided into commissioned ranks (those that hold the Sovereign's commission) and non-commissioned ranks. Participants in this research were divided into one of six rank groups: New Entrant (Private (E)); Junior Non Commissioned Personnel (Lance Corporal (E) and Corporal (E)); Senior Non Commissioned Personnel (Sergeant (E) to Warrant Officer (E)); Junior Officer (Officer Cadet to Captain (E)); Middle Level Officer (Major (E) and Lieutenant Colonel (E)); and Senior Officer (Colonel (E) or higher).

Trade group.

This indicates one's occupational grouping within the NZDF. Participants were categorised as combat trade, for example gunner, rifleman, diver and signalman; support trade, for example, supply, chef, firefighter, driver and administrators;

technical trade, for example armourer, carpenter, electrician and plumber; or officer, for example chaplain, pilot, medical officer or general officer.

Relationship status.

Participants were classified as either married/defacto or single/divorced/separated.

Ethnic group.

Based on the self-reported ethnic group, participants were grouped as New Zealand Maori or Non-Maori. Non-Maori included New Zealand European, Pacific Islander, Asian and Other European.

Procedure

Survey Administration

Each week a random sample of uniformed RF members of the NZDF are sent the OAtS. A paper copy is sent to personnel located overseas, on a ship or to those who do not show an email address on the NZDF system. For paper copies, a self-addressed prepaid envelope is included to return the survey. The remaining participants are sent the survey via email. Through the email, participants link to the survey on the intranet and submit the completed survey on line. Each survey includes a cover letter from the Chief of the Defence Force (CDF) explaining what the survey is for, the possible uses of the data (including for research), the benefits of completing the survey (for example, it guides future human resource policy and practice) and an encouragement to complete the survey. A copy of this is provided at Appendix B.

Respondents are asked to supply their NZDF employee number. This is used to link each respondent to their demographic details held on the NZDF personnel computer system. Following the link, the employee number is deleted, meaning that participants cannot be identified. This is explained in the cover letter and respondents are assured of confidentiality.

Following the CDF cover page, an instruction sheet is included which outlines how to mark and change answers. The cover page also includes a statement about the importance of accurately reflecting their attitudes and an explanation that questions are aimed at the workplace, larger command or NZDF as a whole level and respondents should consider this when answering. The instructions page also outlines where results will be published on the NZDF intranet. A copy of this instruction page is provided at Appendix C.

Analysis

Responses were collated by the NZDF into an SPSS (2006) database, which included demographic information sourced from the NZDF personnel system and handed to this researcher in April 2006. Where appropriate, items were recoded for ease of interpretation, with higher scores representing a higher level of the variable. A list of the final items, including which items were reverse coded, is provided in Appendix A.

Analysis was completed using SPSS (2006) and used correlation, regression, analysis of variance (ANOVA) and independent samples t-tests (t-test). The next chapter outlines the results of the study. The chapter begins with a description of the final sample.

Chapter 5: Results

Sample Description

Four hundred and forty six responses were received over the data collection period, representing a response rate of 35.9% (and representing 5 % of the total population of NZDF Regular Force members). Table 2 displays the personal demographics of the sample and the population, expressed as percentages. Table 3 displays demographics related to the NZDF of the sample and the population, expressed as percentages.

Table 2
Distribution of Personal Demographics of the Final Sample and Population

Variable	Sample (%)[a]	Population (%)[b]
Gender		
Male	78.0	83.7
Female	22.0	16.3
Age		
Less than 17 years	.4	1.6
18 - 24 years	28.0	36.8
25 - 34 years	32.3	31.2
35 - 44 years	26.7	22.1
45 - 54 years	11.0	7.4
55 - 64 years	1.6	.9
Ethnicity		
Maori	16.6	18.0
Non-Maori	74.0	74.7
No Ethnicity Reported	9.4	7.3
Relationship Status		
Married/Defacto	59.0	52.5
Single/Divorced/Separated	38.8	47.4
Not Reported	2.2	.1

[a] Total sample size is 446; [b] Total population size is 8879

Table 3

Distribution of Demographics Related to the NZDF of the Final Sample and Population

Variable	Sample (%)[a]	Population (%)[b]
Service		
Navy	24.0	22.3
Army	38.0	51.1
Air Force	37.0	26.6
Tenure		
3 – 11 months	11.0	13.3
1 - 2 years	9.9	10.4
3 - 4 years	18.2	22.7
5 - 8 years	14.6	16.4
9 - 12 years	11.9	10.4
13 - 15 years	6.7	4.9
16 - 20 years	16.4	12.2
20 + years	11.4	9.6
Rank		
New Entrant	28.0	35.3
Junior NCO	13.2	18.7
Senior NCO	32.5	25.3
Junior Officer	11.9	11.3
Middle Level Officer	12.3	8.5
Senior Officer	1.3	.9
Trade		
Combat	10.0	23.4
Officer	24.4	19.8
Support	39.0	31.9
Technical	25.3	22.9
No Trade Reported	.4	2.1

[a] Total sample size is 446; [b] Total population size is 8879

Note. NCO= Non-Commissioned Officer

Data Screening

Prior to the main analyses, data was screened for accuracy of data entry, missing values and fit between variable distributions and assumptions of multivariate analysis. Turnover intentions was positively skewed. Remaining variables with the exception of continuance commitment, organisational value and met expectations were negatively skewed. Square root transformations considerably reduced skewness for turnover intentions, job satisfaction, information, feedback, career manager satisfaction, career planning, future career development, performance management and training. Logarithmic transformations also reduced the skewness for affective commitment, perceptions of the effectiveness of career management practices (PECMP), fairness, supervisor support, personal input and career development satisfaction. When reporting descriptive statistics, untransformed means and standard deviations are reported for ease of interpretation. When negatively skewed variables are reflected before transformation, interpretation of scores becomes counter-intuitive. Any tests of significance are undertaken on transformed variables and reported as such. Accordingly, signs have been reversed in tables in the case of correlations.

Checks for multivariate outliers revealed 10 cases that met the $p<.001$ criterion of Mahalanobis Distances. These cases were deleted and the remaining 436 cases were retained (see Appendix D for a description of outliers). A number of variables had missing values of five percent or higher. Further analysis revealed that missing data was random. Throughout analyses, missing data has been deleted listwise. All other multivariate assumptions were met (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Table 4 displays descriptive data for the variables used in this study.

Table 4
Means and Standard Deviations for Research Variables

Variable	N	Mean	SD	Range
PECMP	400	2.65	.03	1.00-4.00
Affective Commitment	411	3.16	.02	1.13-4.00
Continuance Commitment	421	1.99	.03	1.00-3.50
Job Satisfaction	424	2.98	.04	1.00-4.00
Turnover Intentions	425	2.05	.04	1.00-4.00
Fairness	396	2.62	.03	1.00-4.00
Information	402	2.80	.05	1.00-4.00
Feedback	400	2.47	.04	1.00-4.00
Supervisor Support	401	2.87	.03	1.00-4.00
Career Planning	397	2.46	.04	1.00-4.00
Personal Input	404	2.74	.03	1.00-4.00
Organisational Value	403	2.41	.04	1.00-4.00
Future Career Development	422	2.51	.04	1.00-4.00
Performance Management	402	2.44	.04	1.00-4.00
Training	399	3.06	.03	1.00-4.00
Career Development Satisfaction	401	2.72	.03	1.00-4.00
Career Manager Satisfaction	400	2.53	.04	1.00-4.00
Met Expectations	402	2.44	.04	1.00-4.00

Note. N = the number of valid cases for that variable

Analysis

Hypothesis 1 predicted that PECMP would be positively correlated with affective commitment, continuance commitment and job satisfaction. Table 5 reports the Pearson product moment coefficients for these variables and demographic variables. With the exception of the relationship between affective and continuance commitment, all correlations were significant. Table 5 shows that PECMP was significantly correlated with affective commitment, continuance commitment and job satisfaction, such that higher PECMP was related to higher affective commitment, continuance commitment or job satisfaction. It was therefore concluded that findings in the present study provided support for hypothesis 1.

Table 5
Pearson Product Moment Correlations Between Turnover Intentions, PECMP, Commitment, Satisfaction and Demographics (N= 436)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Turnover Intentions	1							
2. PECMP	-.46**	1						
3. Affective Commitment	-.53**	.44**	1					
4. Continuance Commitment	-.22**	.16**	-.03	1				
5. Job Satisfaction	-.47**	.44**	.40**	.15**	1			
Demographics								
6. Age	-.11*	.09	.40**	-.16**	.19**	1		
7. Tenure	.05	-.01	.26**	-.11*	.11*	.64**	1	
8. Salary	-.03	.02	.31**	-.24**	.16**	.75**	.63**	1

*p<.05; **p<.01

Hypothesis 2 predicted that affective commitment, continuance commitment and job satisfaction would have a negative relationship with turnover intentions. A hierarchical regression analysis was undertaken to test hypothesis 2 (Table 6). Prior to regression, analysis of variance (ANOVA), independent samples t-tests (t-test) and correlations were used to identify possible demographic control variables when turnover intentions was the dependant variable (DV). Turnover intentions did not differ significantly across ethnicity, gender, relationship status, rank group, Service or trade. Tenure and annual salary did not show a significant correlation with turnover intentions, however age did (see Table 5). As such, age was used as a control variable when turnover intentions was the DV.

At step one of the regression, turnover intentions was regressed on age as a control variable. At step one, age alone explained 1 % of variance (adjusted R^2) in turnover intentions, $F(1,402) = 5.12$, $p<.05$ The three predictors were entered into the regression at step two. After step two, with the addition of affective commitment, continuance commitment and job satisfaction, total variance explained in turnover intentions was 39% (adjusted R^2), $F(4,399) = 64.96$, $p<.001$. The three predictors accounted for 38% unique

variance in turnover intentions when controlling for age. The R^2 change when entering the three predictors after age was significant $F(3,399) = 83.86$, $p<.001$.

Inspection of *Betas* (see Table 6) show age was related to turnover intentions at step one and remained related at step two. At step two, affective commitment showed a strong significant relationship with turnover intentions such that greater affective commitment was linked to lower turnover intentions (*Beta*=-.46). Continuance commitment showed a small but significant relationship with turnover intentions, with greater continuance commitment associated with lower turnover intentions (*Beta*=-.16). Job satisfaction showed a moderate significant relationship with turnover intentions, such that greater job satisfaction was related to lower turnover intentions (*Beta*=-.28). It was concluded that findings in the present study provided support for hypothesis 2.

Table 6
Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Turnover Intentions Showing Standardized Regression Coefficients (Beta), R and Adjusted R^2 (N=404)

Predictors	**Step 1**	**Step 2**
Age	-.11*	.10*
Affective Commitment		-.46***
Continuance Commitment		-.16***
Job Satisfaction		-.28***
R	.11*	.63***
Adjusted R^2	.01*	.39***

*p<.05 ***p<.001

Hypothesis 3 predicted that PECMP would be negatively related to turnover intentions; however this relationship would be mediated by affective commitment, continuance commitment and job satisfaction. A series of hierarchical multiple regressions were used to test the mediating affect of affective commitment, continuance commitment and job satisfaction on the relationship between PECMP and turnover intentions. Three regression equations were performed for each of the proposed mediators (Baron & Kenny, 1986). First, the mediator was regressed on the IV (PECMP), second the DV

(turnover intentions) was regressed on the IV. Third, the DV was regressed onto both the IV and mediator. According to Baron and Kenny, the criteria for mediation are (1) the IV affects the mediator, (2) the IV affects the DV, and (3) the mediator affects the DV. If these three conditions exist in the predicted direction then the affect of the IV on the DV must be less in the third regression than in the second regression. Perfect mediation would occur if the IV had no affect when the mediator was controlled (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

Table 7 shows the three regression analyses to test the mediating effect of affective commitment. In the first analysis, affective commitment was regressed on age as a control variable at step one. PECMP was entered into the analysis at step two. Inspection of *Betas* shows age was related to affective commitment and remained related at step two. At step two, PECMP showed a strong relationship with affective commitment, such that greater PECMP was linked to increased affective commitment (*Beta*=.40).

Columns four and five show the results of the second regression analysis for testing the mediation effect of affective commitment. At step one turnover intentions was regressed onto age as a control variable. PECMP was entered into the analysis at step two. Inspection of *Betas* show age was related to turnover intentions at step one, however, this association was not present at step two. At step two, PECMP showed a strong relationship with turnover intentions, such that greater PECMP was linked to lower turnover intentions (*Beta*=-.45).

The third regression presented in Table 7 shows the relationship between PECMP and turnover intentions when controlling for age and affective commitment. *Betas* at step one and step two show that age was related to turnover intentions and this relationship was maintained at step two. When entered at step two, PECMP and affective commitment both showed a significant relationship with turnover intentions (*Betas* = -.28 and -.45 respectively), such that increased PECMP and affective commitment were associated with decreased turnover intentions. Standardized beta coefficients for PECMP with, and

without, controlling for affective commitment are shown in columns seven and five of Table 7 respectively. In the second analysis, without affective commitment in the regression, the *Beta* for PECMP was -.45. However, it is possible to compare this with the *Beta* shown in analysis three, when controlling for affective commitment, where the *Beta* for PECMP was -0.28. Although column five and seven show that both *Betas* for PECMP were significantly different from zero, the observed reduction in magnitude when controlling for affective commitment suggests partial mediation was present (Baron & Kenny, 1986). It was concluded that findings in the present study provided support that affective commitment mediated the relationship between PECMP and turnover intentions.

Table 7
Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses Assessing Affective Commitment as a Mediator of the Relationship Between PECMP and Turnover Intentions Showing Standardized Regression Coefficients (Beta), R and Adjusted R^2

	Outcomes of Regression Analyses					
	Affective Commitment ($N = 384$)		**Turnover Intentions** ($N = 398$)		**Turnover Intentions** ($N = 382$)	
Predictors	**Step 1**	**Step 2**	**Step 1**	**Step 2**	**Step 1**	**Step 2**
Age	.41***	.37***	-.11*	-.07	-.11*	.11*
PECMP		.40***		-.45***		-.28***
Affective Commitment						-.45***
R^2 Change	.17***	0.16***	.01*	.20***	.01*	.35***
Adjusted R^2	.17***	0.33***	.01*	.21***	.01*	.35***

* p <.05 ** p < .01 *** p < .001

Table 8 shows the three regression analyses to test the mediating effect of continuance commitment on the relationship between PECMP and turnover intentions. In the first analysis, continuance commitment was regressed on age as a control variable at step one. PECMP was entered into the analysis at step two. Inspection of *Betas* shows age was

related to continuance commitment at step one and remained related at step two. PECMP showed a small relationship with continuance commitment, such that greater PECMP was linked to greater continuance commitment (*Beta*=.17).

Table 8
Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses Assessing Continuance Commitment as a Mediator of the Relationship Between PECMP and Turnover Intentions Showing Standardized Regression Coefficients (Beta), R and Adjusted R^2

	Outcomes of Regression Analyses					
	Continuance Commitment ($N = 395$)		**Turnover Intentions** ($N = 398$)		**Turnover Intentions** ($N = 395$)	
Predictors	**Step 1**	**Step 2**	**Step 1**	**Step 2**	**Step 1**	**Step 2**
Age	-.15**	-.17**	-.11*	-.07	-.11*	-.10*
PECMP		.17**		-.45***		-.42***
Continuance Commitment						-.18***
R^2 Change	.02**	.03**	.01*	.20***	.01*	.23***
Adjusted R^2	.02***	.05**	.01*	.21***	.01*	.24***

* p <.05 ** p < .01 *** p < .001

The second regression is the same as for testing the mediation effect of affective commitment and is shown in columns four and five of Table 8. The third regression presented in Table 8 shows the relationship between PECMP and turnover intentions when controlling for age and continuance commitment. *Betas* show that age was related to turnover intentions at step one and remained at step two. When entered at step two, PECMP and continuance commitment both showed a significant relationship with turnover intentions (*Betas* = -.42 and -.18 respectively), such that increased PECMP and continuance commitment were associated with decreased turnover intentions. Standardized beta coefficients for PECMP with, and without, controlling for continuance

commitment are shown in columns seven and five of Table 8 respectively. In the second analysis, without continuance commitment in the regression, the *Beta* for PECMP was -.45. In the third analysis, with continuance commitment in the regression, the *Beta* for PECMP was -.42. The reduction in magnitude when controlling for continuance commitment was small (-.03) and did not provide adequate support that continuance commitment mediated the relationship between PECMP and turnover intentions.

Table 9 shows the three regression analyses to test the mediating effect of job satisfaction on the relationship between PECMP and turnover intentions. In the first analysis, job satisfaction was regressed on age as a control variable at step one. PECMP was entered into the analysis at step two. Inspection of *Betas* shows age was related to job satisfaction at step one and remained related at step two. PECMP showed a strong relationship with job satisfaction, such that greater PECMP was linked to greater job satisfaction (*Beta*=.42).

The second regression is the same as for testing the mediation effect of affective commitment and continuance commitment and is shown in columns four and five of Table 9. The third regression presented in Table 9 shows the relationship between PECMP and turnover intentions when controlling for age and job satisfaction. The *Beta* at step one shows that age was related to turnover intentions, however, this relationship did not remain at step two. When entered at step two, PECMP and job satisfaction both showed a significant relationship with turnover intentions (*Betas* = -.31 and -.34 respectively), such that increased PECMP and job satisfaction were associated with decreased turnover intentions. Standardized beta coefficients for PECMP with, and without, controlling for job satisfaction are shown in columns seven and five of Table 9 respectively. In the second analysis, without job satisfaction in the regression, the *Beta* for PECMP was -.45. However, it is possible to compare this with the *Beta* shown in analysis three, when controlling for job satisfaction, where the *Beta* for PECMP was -0.31. Although column five and seven show that both *Betas* for PECMP were significantly different from zero, the observed reduction in magnitude when controlling for job satisfaction suggests partial mediation was present (Baron & Kenny, 1986). It

was concluded that findings in the present study provided support that job satisfaction mediated the relationship between PECMP and turnover intentions.

Table 9
Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses Assessing Job Satisfaction as a Mediator of the Relationship Between PECMP and Turnover Intentions Showing Standardized Regression Coefficients (Beta), R and Adjusted R^2

	Outcomes of Regression Analyses					
	Job Satisfaction ($N = 400$)		**Turnover Intentions** ($N = 398$)		**Turnover Intentions** ($N = 398$)	
Predictors	**Step 1**	**Step 2**	**Step 1**	**Step 2**	**Step 1**	**Step 2**
Age	.19***	.15**	-.11*	-.07	-.11*	-.02
PECMP		.42***		-.45***		-.31***
Job Satisfaction						-.34***
R^2 Change	.03***	.18***	.01*	.20***	.01*	.29***
Adjusted R^2	.03***	.21***	.01*	.21***	.01*	.30***

* p <.05 ** p < .01 *** p < .001

Overall, the results of this study (Tables 7-9) showed partial support for hypothesis 3. PECMP was negatively related to turnover intentions. The relationship was partially mediated by affective commitment and job satisfaction. However, the results did not provide satisfactory support that continuance commitment mediated the relationship between PECMP and turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that continuance commitment would moderate the relationship between affective commitment and turnover intentions. A hierarchical regression analysis was undertaken to test Hypothesis 4 (Table 10). At step one of the regression, age was entered as a demographic control. Age alone explained 1% of the variance (adjusted R^2) in turnover intentions $F(1,405) = 5.21$, $p<.05$. At step two, affective

commitment and continuance commitment were entered. After step two, total variance explained in turnover intentions was 32% (adjusted R^2), $F(3,403) = 65.96$, $p<.001$. Affective and continuance commitment accounted for 31% unique variance in turnover intentions when controlling for age. The R^2 change when entering affective and continuance commitment after age was significant, $F(2,403) = 95.13$, $p<.001$. An interaction term, generated by multiplying the deviation scores of continuance commitment and affective commitment, was entered at step three. After step three, with the interaction term, the two commitment variables and age entered, total variance explained in turnover intentions was 33% (adjusted R^2), $F(4,402) = 49.84$, $p<.001$. The R^2 change after entering the interaction term was not significant, $F(1,402) = 1.30$, $p>.05$. It was therefore concluded that the present study did not provide support for hypothesis 4.

Table 10
Hierarchical Regression to Test the Moderating Effect of Continuance Commitment on Affective Commitment and Turnover Intentions, Showing Standardized Regression Coefficients (Beta), R and Adjusted R^2 (N=407)

Predictors	**Step 1**	**Step 2**	**Step 3**
Age	-0.11*	0.08	0.08
Affective Commitment		-0.57***	-0.56***
Continuance Commitment		-0.20***	-0.20***
Interaction Term			-0.05
R	0.11*	0.57***	0.58***
Adjusted R^2	0.01*	0.32***	0.33***

*p<.05 **p<.01 ***p<.001

Hypothesis 5 stated that affective commitment would be significantly higher for those who defined their career by membership of the NZDF or Service than those who defined their career by their trade or branch. The means and standard deviations for the career definition variable are provided in Table 11. A t-test was used to examine differences in group means on affective commitment. In these analyses, an F test of sample variances was carried out. If the probability of F was >.05, then it was assumed sample variances were equal and pooled variance estimates were used. If the probability of F was <.05 then it was

assumed sample variances were unequal and separate variance estimates of t were used (Snedecor & Cochran, 1979). Statistical significance was assessed using two-tailed tests with alpha set at 0.05. As predicted in hypothesis 5, those who defined their career as the NZDF showed significantly higher levels of affective commitment than those who defined their career as their trade or branch ($t(349)=7.12$, $p<.001$).

The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was 0.12. The effect size "reflects the proportion of variance in the DV that is predictable from knowledge of the levels of the IV" (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, p. 54). Where "statistical significance testing assesses the *reliability* of the association between the IV and DV ... [the] effect size measures *how much* association there is" (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, p. 54). An effect size of 0.12 represents a large effect (Cohen 1988, in Tabachnick & Fiddell, 2007) and means that 12% of the variance in affective commitment can be explained by whether personnel define their career as the NZDF or as their trade or branch. Supplementary analysis revealed that 83.49% of those with a technical trade defined their career as their trade or branch, opposed to 49.69% for support trades, 36.27% for officers and 54.55% for combat trades. This suggests that those with a technical trade are more likely than the other trade groups to define their career as their trade or branch, as opposed to the NZDF.

Table 11
Means and Standard Deviations for Affective Commitment for Career Definition Groups

	Career Definition				
	Trade or Branch (N=220)		**NZDF (N=171)**		
	M	SD	M	SD	F
Affective Commitment	3.02	.44	3.32	.40	*

*p<.05

Hypothesis 6 predicted that career definition would moderate the relationship between affective commitment and turnover intentions. Hierarchical regression was used to test Hypothesis 7 (Table 12). Career definition was dummy coded so that 0 represented 'trade or branch' and 1 was 'NZDF or Service'. An interaction term was created by multiplying affective commitment by career definition. At step one of the regression, age was entered

as a demographic control variable. Age alone explained 1% of the variance (adjusted R^2) in turnover intentions, $F(1,387) = 5.48$, $p<.05$. At step two, affective commitment and career definition (dummy coded) were entered. After step two, total variance explained in turnover intentions was 29% (adjusted R^2), $F(3,385) = 53.80$, $p>.001$. Affective commitment and career definition accounted for 29% unique variance in turnover intentions when controlling for age. The R^2 change was significant, $F(2,385) = 76.89$, $p<.001$. Columns three and four show that affective commitment had a strong relationship with turnover intentions, such that greater affective commitment was linked to decreased turnover intentions. At step three, the interaction term of affective commitment and career definition was entered. After step three, total variance explained in turnover intentions remained at 29% (adjusted R^2), $F(4,384) = 40.25$, $p<.001$. The interaction term did not account for any unique variance in turnover intentions. The R^2 change after entering the interaction term was not significant, $F(1,384) = .01$, $p>.005$. Columns three and four of Table 12 show that career definition was not a significant predictor of turnover intentions in step two or three. Column four shows that the interaction effect was also not significant. As such, it was concluded that the findings of this study did not support hypothesis 6.

Table 12
Hierarchical Regression to Test the Moderating Effect of Career Definition on Affective Commitment and Turnover Intentions, Showing Standardized Regression Coefficients (Beta), R and Adjusted R^2 (N=389)

Predictors	**Step 1**	**Step 2**	**Step 3**
Age	-0.12*	0.12*	0.12*
Affective Commitment		-0.58***	-0.58***
Career Definition		-0.01	0.00
Affective Commitment X Career Definition			-0.01
R	0.12*	0.54***	0.54***
Adjusted R^2	0.01*	0.29***	0.28***

*p<.05 **p<.01 ***p<.001

Hypothesis 7 predicted that continuance commitment would be higher for those who defined their career by membership of the NZDF than those who defined their career by their trade. The means and standard deviations for career definition are provided in Table 13. A t-test was used to examine differences in group means on continuance commitment, in the same way as used to test hypothesis 5. As the probability of F was >.05 it was assumed sample variances were equal and pooled variance estimates were used (Snedecor & Cochran, 1979). Statistical significance was assessed using two-tailed tests with alpha set at 0.05. There was no significant differences in the level of continuance commitment by how participants defined their career ($t(400)=-.36$, $p>.05$). Therefore it was concluded that the present study did not provide support for hypothesis 7.

Table 13
Means and Standard Deviations for Continuance Commitment By Career Definition Group

	Career Definition				
	Trade or Branch (N=222)		**NZDF (N=180)**		
	M	SD	M	SD	F
Continuance Commitment	1.97	.51	1.99	.54	NS

Note. NS= not significant at the p>.05 level

Hypothesis 8 predicted that 13 IV's would be correlated with PECMP. Table 14 shows Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients for PECMP, the 13 IV's, age, tenure and annual salary. All 13 IV's showed significant ($p<0.01$) medium to large correlation's with PECMP, such that increased levels of the IV's was related to increased levels of PECMP. A standard multiple regression was then performed to investigate the relationship of each IV to PECMP when controlling for the other IVs.

Prior to regression, ANOVA, t-tests and correlations were used to identify possible demographic control variables when PECMP was the DV. PECMP did not differ significantly across ethnicity, gender, relationship status, rank group, Service or trade group. Tenure, age, and annual salary did not show a significant correlation with PECMP (see Table 14). Therefore, no demographic control variables were entered into the regression.

Table 14

Pearson Product-Moment Correlations of PECMP as the DV, IVs and Demographic Variables (N=436)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
DV																	
1. PECMP	1																
IVs																	
2. Career Manager	.65**	1															
3. Supervisor Support	.44**	.45**	1														
4. Fairness	.80**	.64**	.43**	1													
5. Information	.36**	.45**	.28**	.39**	1												
6. Future Career Development	.42**	.36**	.32**	.35**	.13**	1											
7. Training	.48**	.38**	.44**	.47**	.35**	.23**	1										
8. Feedback	.74**	.67**	.45**	.74**	.43**	.39**	.41**	1									
9. Personal Input	.69**	.64**	.42**	.68**	.48**	.30**	.50**	.67**	1								
10. Career Development Satisfaction	.73**	.53**	.42**	.62**	.30**	.48**	.50**	.64**	.56**	1							
11. Planning	.72**	.69**	.44**	.71**	.36**	.42**	.47**	.69**	.62**	.65**	1						
12. Performance Management	.56**	.52**	.28**	.59**	.37**	.25**	.31**	.53**	.52**	.46**	.60**	1					
13. Organisational Value	.71**	.67**	.42**	.70**	.39**	.37**	.47**	.68**	.62**	.58**	.69**	.53**	1				
14. Met Expectations	.69**	.58**	.37**	.62**	-.32**	-.40**	.41**	.62 **	.55**	.65**	.71**	.51**	.61 **	1			
Demographics																	
15. Age	0.09	.14**	0.04	.12*	.37**	-.23**	.14**	0.07	.20**	0.05	0.00	.12*	0.08	0.07	1		
16. Tenure	-0.01	-0.02	-0.00	-0.00	.24**	-.20**	0.09	0.03	0.1	-0.01	-.10*	-0.07	-0.01	-0.08	.64**	1	
17. Annual Salary	0.02	0.10	0.04	-0.03	.32**	-.12*	0.07	0.04	.14**	0.04	.-11*	-0.00	-0.00	-0.01	.75**	.63**	1

** p<.01 * p<.05

A standard multiple regression was performed with PECMP as the DV (Table 15). The thirteen IVs were entered. The 13 IV's explained 77% of variance (adjusted R^2) in PECMP, $F(15, 341) = 81.86$, $p<.001$. Inspection of *Betas* show information, supervisor support, career manager, career planning, future career development, performance management and training showed no relationship with PECMP. Fairness showed a strong relationship with PECMP, such that increased perceptions of fairness regarding career management practices was linked with increased PECMP (*Beta*=.34). Career development satisfaction showed a moderate relationship with PECMP, such that increased career development satisfaction was linked to increased PECMP (*Beta*=.23). Feedback, organisational value, personal input and met expectations showed small relationships with PECMP, such that higher scores on these variables was linked to increased PECMP (*Betas* = .08, .10, .10 and .12 respectively).

Table 15
Summary of Standard Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting PECMP, Showing Standardised Regression Coefficients (Beta), R and Adjusted R^2 (N=357)

Predictors	**Step 1**
Fairness	.34***
Information	-.02
Feedback	.08*
Organisational Value	.10*
Supervisor Support	.01
Career Manager	.07
Career Planning	.01
Personal Input	.10**
Career Development Satisfaction	.23***
Future Career Development	.01
Performance Management	.01
Training	-.01
Met Expectations	.12**
R	**.88*** **
Adjusted R^2	**.77*** **

*p<.05 **p<.01 ***p<.001

Hypothesis 9 predicted perception of contact with a career manager would be related to career manager satisfaction, such that more positive perceptions of the contact would be related to increased career manager satisfaction. Table 16 shows a cross tabulation between how many times in the last 12 months participants had had contact with their career manager (self-reported) and participants' satisfaction with this contact. As can be seen in Table 16, 1-2 times in the previous 12 month period was the most desirable amount of contact with a career manager, followed by 3-4 times. A large 42.7% of the sample had not had any contact with their career manager in the last 12 months. Unsurprisingly, 88.4% of these people felt that this was too few contacts.

Table 16
Number of Contacts with a Career Manager in the Last 12 Months by Contact with Career Manager Satisfaction

	Contact with Career Manager Satisfaction		
Number of Contacts	**Too Few**	**About Right**	**Too Many**
None	153	19	1
1-2 Times	69	81	1
3-4 Times	2	49	0
5 or More Times	3	26	1

An ANOVA was undertaken to test for differences in career manager satisfaction across the three groups of personnel. Table 17 displays the means and standard deviations for the three groups. There was a statistically significant difference in satisfaction with career manager for the three groups, $F(2,392)=62.84$, $p<.001$, with those perceiving the number of contacts as too many showing the highest level of career manager satisfaction, followed by 'about right' and then 'too few'. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test found that satisfaction with career manger was significantly different across all groups. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was 0.24. This showed that 24% of the variance in career manger satisfaction was attributable to the frequency of contact with career manager (Tabachnick & Fiddell, 2007). It was concluded that the current findings provided support for hypothesis 9.

Table 17
Means and Standard Deviations for Career Manager Satisfaction for Contact With Career Manager Satisfaction Groups

	Contact with Career Manager Satisfaction						
	Too Few (N=221)		About Right (N=171)		Too Many (N=3)		
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	F
Career Manager Satisfaction	2.19	.75	2.96	.59	3.17	.76	***

***p<.001

Hypothesis 10 predicted that those who defined their career more laterally would show higher levels of career development satisfaction and PECMP than those who defined their career hierarchically. A lateral definition was defined as 'other factors such as work/life balance, enjoyment and variety'. Hierarchical definitions were defined as 'pay progression' or 'promotion'. Descriptive data for the career success definition variable found that 35.3% of the sample reported promotion as their number one indicator of career success. Pay progression was reported by 14.7% of respondents, 43.6% reported the lateral definition and 6.4% did not respond. Means and standard deviations for the three groups of career success definition across career development satisfaction are shown in Table 18 and PECMP in Table 19. ANOVA was used to test hypothesis 10. Contrary to prediction, neither variable differed significantly across career success definition - career development satisfaction, $F(2, 397) = 1.46$, $p>.05$; PECMP $F(2, 395) = 2.57$, $p>.05$. Therefore it was concluded that findings in the present study do not provide support for hypothesis 10.

The following chapter discusses the findings of the current study.

Table 18

Means and Standard Deviations for Career Development Satisfaction for Career Success Definition Groups

	Career Success Definition						
	Promotion (N=152)		**Pay Progression (N=63)**		**Lateral (N=185)**		
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	F
Career Development Satisfaction	2.64	.75	2.69	.55	2.79	.58	NS

Note. NS= not significant at the $p<.05$ level

Table 19

Means and Standard Deviations for PECMP for Career Success Definition Groups

	Career Success Definition						
	Promotion (N=153)		**Pay Progression (N=62)**		**Lateral (N=183)**		
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	F
PECMP	2.54	.71	2.69	.58	2.72	.65	NS

Note. NS= not significant at the $p<.05$ level

Chapter 6: Discussion

The first aim of this study, using a New Zealand Defence Force (NZDF) sample, was to investigate the relationship of perceptions of the effectiveness of career management practices (PECMP) with organisational commitment (affective and continuance), job satisfaction and turnover intentions. The second aim of this research was to identify features of the career management system that influenced how personnel in the NZDF perceived the effectiveness of career management. This study also investigated four other career related areas. The first was the effect of how personnel define their career on affective and continuance commitment. The second was the influence of career definition on organisational commitment (affective and continuance) and turnover intentions. The third was the relationship between career definition and career development satisfaction and PECMP. The fourth was the relationship between contact with a career manager and attitudes towards that career manager. The results, implications and limitations of this study will now be discussed.

Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment, Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intentions

The results of this study showed an almost zero correlation between continuance commitment and affective commitment. This confirms the difference, found in past research (e.g. Meyer et al., 2002), between an emotional attachment or a *want* to stay with the NZDF and a cognitive attachment to the NZDF or a felt *need* to stay with the NZDF. Levels of affective commitment were found in this study to be high (M=3.16, SD=.02), demonstrating a high level of emotional attachment to the NZDF. Continuance commitment levels were low (M=1.99, SD=.03), demonstrating a low perceived 'need' to stay with the NZDF. At the time of this study, the unemployment rate in New Zealand was low. This may be why continuance commitment was low as "commitment often decreases when the job market is favorable" (Sturges et al., 2002, p. 743) due to the increased employment opportunities outside the organisation.

Also consistent with past research (Meyer et al., 2002), the correlation between job satisfaction and affective commitment was strong (r=.40), however not strong enough

to consider either construct redundant. This highlights that, although related, there is a difference between the stable and global emotional attachment to the organisation of commitment and the more unstable and specific task related construct of job satisfaction (Mowday et al., 1979).

Consistent with past research, using both military and civilian samples (e.g. Griffeth et al., 2000; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002; Tremble et al., 2003) and as hypothesised, affective commitment, continuance commitment and job satisfaction were negatively related to turnover intentions in the NZDF. The size and direction of the *Betas* in regression analysis suggested that intentions to leave the NZDF will be lower when personnel feel the costs associated with leaving the NZDF are high, when personnel have high job satisfaction and, most importantly, when personnel *want* to stay in the NZDF. Past research (Griffeth et al., 2000; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002) has also found that a global and more stable emotional attachment to the organisation has a stronger relationship to people's willingness to stay with an organisation than feeling a need to stay and a more specific emotional response to the specific task environment (Mowday et al., 1979). However, despite affective commitment showing the strongest relationship with turnover intentions, the results also confirm the claim that both forms of commitment and job satisfaction should be considered when understanding and managing employee behaviour (Allen, 2003; Meyer et al., 2002).

The military, along with the Police Force, has been defined as a monopoly organisation (Beck & Wilson, 1992; Hom et al., 1992). This is because the profession of arms cannot be practiced anywhere except the military. This may result in limited portability of skills to civilian organisations, resulting in decreased perceptions of alternative employment options for military personnel. As such, Beck and Wilson and Hom et al. have suggested that members of monopoly organisations may remain with an organisation despite low levels of affective commitment, due to a perceived need to remain with the organisation (continuance commitment). This suggestion had not been tested in previous studies and was not confirmed in this study, showing that those who are low on affective commitment do not intend to stay in the NZDF because of a perceived need to stay. This is discussed below.

Although continuance commitment did not moderate the relationship between affective commitment and turnover intentions, it was, along with affective commitment and job satisfaction a significant predictor of turnover intentions. This suggests that personnel concurrently consider their want and perceived need to remain with the NZDF when making decisions about leaving. However, this conclusion is based on the assumption that continuance commitment is a predictor of turnover intentions which can not be determined due to the cross-sectional nature of the study.

Past research, using longitudinal studies, confirms the direction of higher affective commitment leading to decreased turnover intentions (Jaros, 1997; Sturges et al., 2002). However results regarding continuance commitment are mixed and appear attributable to measurement. For example, Whitener and Walz (1993) found that turnover intentions mediated the relationship between continuance commitment and actual turnover, suggesting that continuance commitment precedes turnover intentions. Griffeth et al. (2000) measured *general* withdrawal cognitions and found that this preceded continuance commitment. It is possible that in this study, continuance commitment did not moderate the relationship between affective commitment and turnover intentions as the turnover intentions variable in this study was a general measure of withdrawal.

In this study, turnover intentions measured whether participants intended leaving the NZDF in the next 12 months. It is possible that participants intend to leave but have not yet sought and evaluated alternative employment options. Therefore, those who do not want to remain with the NZDF due to a low emotional attachment (affective commitment) may intend to leave in the next 12 months (perhaps a general withdrawal cognition). This withdrawal cognition may then lead them to seek and evaluate alternative employment options. After they have evaluated alternative employment options they may conclude that despite low affective commitment, they have to remain in the NZDF due to a high need to stay (continuance commitment). Therefore, continuance commitment may moderate the relationship between turnover intentions (as measured in this study) and actual turnover, not the relationship between affective commitment and turnover intentions. As such, despite this study finding that continuance commitment does not moderate the relationship between affective commitment and turnover intentions, personnel with low affective

commitment could still remain in the NZDF because of high continuance commitment. The differentiation between general withdrawal and more specific turnover intentions needs to be refined in future research.

Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Career Management Practices

Limited research has studied the relationship between organisational career management and organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Results investigating whether or not an employee has actually experienced a career management practice are mixed and are limited by the use of graduate populations. These studies provide mixed support for the idea that receiving one or more organisational career management practices influences employee attitudes, such as commitment (Sturges et al., 2000; Sturges et al., 2002; Sturges et al., 2005).

The present study sought to investigate the role of *subjective* perceptions of career management practices on employee attitudes. It was hypothesised that PECMP would be related to higher affective and continuance commitment and job satisfaction. The results of this study found that *perceptions* of the effectiveness of organisational career management practices have a relationship with employee attitudes such as satisfaction and commitment. This study therefore highlights the importance of the subjective environment when trying to understand and manage employee attitudes and behaviours. PECMP showed equal large positive relationships with affective commitment and job satisfaction. This suggests that effective career management influences the global and stable response to the NZDF as a whole, in addition to the reaction to the more day to day task specific environment represented by job satisfaction (Mowday et al., 1979). Alternatively, it is possible that those who are more emotionally attached to the NZDF and have higher job satisfaction (developed through other avenues), in turn, perceive the career management practices as more effective.

This study was based on the premise that the military functions within a relational social exchange. This is characterised by a long-term, open ended relationship with a reciprocal concern for the other party and is made up of components more than those related to money (Robinson et al., 1994). This includes organisational career paths,

long term employment and development opportunities (Robinson et al., 1994). Although Perceived Organisational Support (POS) was not measured within this study, it is possible that the relationship found between PECMP and affective commitment is due to the perception that providing career management practices (a discretionary practice) indicates POS by showing a concern for the employee's welfare and meeting employee obligations within the relational exchange. This was the case in Crabtree's (1996) study of perceptions of career management practices, where perceptions were found to be positively related to POS. However as her research was correlational, Crabtree concluded that her result raises the question of causality – do positive perceptions of career management lead to increased perceptions of organisational support or does perceiving the organisation as supportive lead to better perceptions of career management practices? This question equally applies in this research.

An alternative, or concurrent, explanation of the results is that providing positive career management experiences meets the subjective terms and conditions of the psychological contract. Through its values, the NZDF emphasises loyalty and commitment and generally portrays long term career opportunities. It is likely that the NZDF fosters expectations of receiving organisational career management and due to the relational social exchange, where the contract is the socio-emotional obligations of the relationship, it is likely to result in decreased commitment if the contract is perceived to be breached (Robinson et al., 1994). Although this study did not explicitly investigate the psychological contract, considering a relational exchange, it is likely that providing effective career management maintains the psychological contract and as such maintains an emotional commitment to the NZDF.

PECMP also showed a small positive correlation with continuance commitment; however this relationship was significantly less than those for affective commitment and job satisfaction. Continuance commitment is the recognition that individuals are staying with the organisation because of the cost of leaving (Allen, 2003). Although the outcomes of a career management system, i.e. promotion and development, may be tangible, the system itself is not and these outcomes are often not guaranteed. Therefore, personnel may not perceive an effective career management *system* as a cost of leaving the NZDF. Additionally, personnel may assume that a career

management system is part of every organisation and therefore do not see it as a cost of leaving the NZDF as they assume they will receive organisational career management in every organisation they are a member of.

One previous study has investigated the role that perceptions of career management play in influencing continuance commitment (Crabtree, 1996). Crabtree's study showed no relationship between career management perceptions and continuance commitment. Crabtree attributed this result to the fact that "career management practices represent specific programs to encourage involvement of the employee in the organization" (p. 188). As such, if an employee is considering leaving an organisation and is only staying because of the perceived cost of leaving, then they may have neutral attitudes towards career management programs or may not even be aware of them (Crabtree, 1996). This may also be the reason that PECMP was not related to continuance commitment in this study.

PECMP was significantly related to turnover intentions; however this relationship was partially mediated by affective commitment and job satisfaction. This study therefore concludes that although PECMP had a direct relationship with intentions to leave the NZDF, it is likely that career management may have reduced turnover intentions more via its influence on an emotional attachment to the NZDF and through its relationship to job satisfaction, which in turn decreases intentions to leave the NZDF.

Continuance commitment did not mediate the relationship between PECMP and turnover intentions. This result is consistent with the found small correlation between PECMP and continuance commitment, demonstrating that how personnel perceive career management does not influence their perceived need to stay with the NZDF and suggesting that effective organisational career management practices are not generally considered a cost of leaving an organisation.

It has been suggested (Hom et al., 1992; Griffeth et al., 2000) that by the time employees get to specific withdrawal intentions, such as turnover intentions, interventions to curb turnover may prove fruitless. Therefore organisations should focus on ways of increasing organisational commitment and job satisfaction. This study demonstrates that this can be achieved by focusing on fostering perceptions of

effective career management. In turn, the results of this study show that if affective commitment and job satisfaction is increased, then intentions to the leave the NZDF are likely to decrease.

Definition of Career

The results of this study show that just over 50% of the sample defined their career as their trade or branch as opposed to the military or the NZDF. This suggests that these people construe the NZDF as an organisation to practice their trade, as opposed to a career in itself. As such, they may be less likely to perceive the NZDF as a monopoly organisation and more likely to differentiate between career and organisational commitment. It is recognised however that personnel could define their career as their trade or branch and that trade or branch could not be able to be applied outside the military. Further analysis found that those in the technical trades (arguably more easily applied outside the military) are more likely to define their career as their trade or branch than those who are in the support trades, combat trades or who are officers.

Just fewer than 50% of the sample defined their career as the military ('the NZDF or the Service'). It is likely that these people would perceive a monopoly situation, as the career of 'military' cannot be practiced outside the military. Due to the monopoly, this group is also likely to show little differentiation between career and organisational commitment. However, contrary to prediction, continuance commitment, the felt 'need' to stay with the NZDF was not higher for those who defined their career by membership of the NZDF or Service then it was for those who defined their career by their trade or branch. This finding does not support the idea that defining your career in terms of the NZDF or Service creates a monopoly situation that results in a perceived lack of alternative employment options. This result may also be influenced by the strong labour market in New Zealand at the time of the study which may mean that career opportunities for military personnel are more readily available. As the study did not measure perceived portability of skills to other organisations it can not be empirically determined, however the results do suggest that one can define their career in terms of the military, yet still see their skills as portable to other organisations.

As hypothesised, affective commitment was significantly higher for those who defined their career by membership of the NZDF than for those who defined their career by their trade or branch. It is possible that affective commitment is higher because it represents commitment to the NZDF as both an organisation and a career. It is also possible that if you are affectively committed to the NZDF as an organisation then you come to define your career by it. Contrary to prediction, career definition did not moderate the relationship between affective commitment and turnover intentions, showing that the relationship between a 'want' to stay with the NZDF and intention to leave the NZDF is not stronger for those who define their career by the NZDF or Service.

The results of the study show that if personnel define their career in terms of the military (NZDF or Service) then they are likely to be more affectively committed to the NZDF, but not less likely to leave the NZDF because of how they define their career. However, the results did show that those who have higher affective commitment are less likely to intend to leave the military. Therefore the results suggest that affective commitment mediates the relationship between career definition and turnover intentions, as in, if you define your career as the NZDF then you have higher levels of affective commitment which leads to decreased intentions to leave the NZDF.

Overall, the results of this study show that encouraging personnel to define their career in terms of the military will increase an emotional attachment to the NZDF but is unlikely to make personnel feel they need to stay with the organisation due to an inability to find alternative employment. This result has implications for the military due to strong negative relationship found between affective commitment and turnover intentions in this study.

Antecedents of Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Career Management Practices

The results of this study found that participants have a moderate level of positive perceptions of the effectiveness of career management practices in the NZDF (M=2.65, SD = .03). Thirteen independent variables (IV's) proposed to relate to

PECMP were investigated. Combined they explained 77% (adjusted R^2) of the variance in PECMP.

The results of this study show that greater perceptions of effective career management are likely to occur when: career management is perceived as fair, when personnel feel satisfied with their past career development, when personnel feel their career has been managed as they expected when they joined the NZDF, when personnel feel they have input into their career development, when personnel perceive the NZDF values their career development and when sufficient feedback is given about career management decisions.

Fairness was the largest contributor to PECMP (*Beta*=.34). This is consistent with Herriot et al. (1994) who also found that fairness was the strongest predictor of perceptions of career management. This was expected as career management involves the allocation of resources and rewards that are likely to have a long-term effect on the career, and often lives, of personnel (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997).

Consistent with Kidd's (1998) dynamic model of the career, satisfaction with past career development (arguably an outcome of the career management system) was a significant predictor of attitudes towards the system (*Beta*=.23). Salary, an objective measure of career success (Judge et al., 1994) showed no correlation with past career development satisfaction or PECMP. Rank also did not show a relationship with PECMP. These findings confirm that subjective measures of career success do not necessarily correlate with objective measures and that subjective measures are often superior for predicting attitudinal outcomes, in this case PECMP (Heslin, 2003; Seibert et al., 1999). This result also shows that past experiences with the system shapes current attitudes towards it.

Met expectations regarding career management was also a significant predictor of PECMP (*Beta*=.12). This result demonstrates that if the NZDF is going to develop expectations around career management, they must be met. No past research could be found that investigated the relationship between expectations and career management practices, however, as expectations form part of the psychological contract (Robinson,

1996), it is possible that the relationship between met expectations and PECMP is operating through maintenance of the psychological contract.

The fourth significant predictor of PECMP was whether personnel feel they had input into their career development (*Beta*=.10). No past research had investigated the role of the level of input into career management on perceptions of the career management practices, however it had been suggested in literature that individuals are willing to take on a more self-management role regarding their career (Brousseau et al., 1996). This study suggests that individuals do want to have a say in their own career management and also shows that despite the military culture of 'service' and putting the NZDF before self, to foster positive perceptions about the career management system, employees need to feel they have sufficient input into their own career development.

The fifth significant predictor was personnel perceiving that the NZDF values their career development (*Beta* = .10). Similar results were found by Herriot et al. (1994) where employee perceptions that the organisation viewed training and development opportunities as important was a significant predictor of satisfaction with career management. The results of this study demonstrate that an organisation must show that they support and value personnel's career development. This may be because it is a sign of perceived organisational support, within Organisational Support Theory (Rhoades et al., 2001). Within this concept of social exchange, demonstrating support for career development is important in an organisation, such as the NZDF, that is based on a relational exchange where career development and resulting career paths are central to this form of social exchange (Robinson et al., 1994).

The final significant predictor was feedback regarding career management decisions (*Beta*= .08). This result demonstrates that providing feedback about career management decisions must form part of the career management system. The results show a strong positive correlation between fairness and feedback (r=.74). As such, providing sufficient feedback may help to increase fairness perceptions, as providing feedback may help to demonstrate procedural fairness in the career management system (Greenberg, 1990; Farmer et al., 2003). Additionally, providing feedback may be desirable so that personnel understand the system and its outcomes and are

therefore able to form perceptions about how effective it is. Finally, as career management decisions are likely to have an impact on the lives of personnel and often their families, feedback may simply be important for individuals to know where they stand and possibly plan their future.

Contrary to the hypotheses, the remaining seven IV's were not significant predictors of PECMP. These were satisfaction with the career manager, supervisor support for career development, the extent to which participants felt they were informed about the career management system, perceptions of future career opportunities, having a satisfactory career plan, whether training was adequate to progress their career and seeing a link between career management and performance management. These seven IVs showed significant medium to large zero-order correlations with PECMP, however, they did not contribute significantly to the regression. This suggests that the relationship between these seven IV's and PECMP was mediated by or made redundant by the relationship between PECMP and those six IV's that were significant predictors of PECMP.

Career manager satisfaction may be operating through fairness, personal input and past career development satisfaction. In relation to fairness, career managers could be the distributors of discretionary rewards and may demonstrate, or not, procedural and/or distributive fairness in the system (Wayne et al., 1997). Regarding, personal input, career managers have the potential to allow or not allow personnel to have input into career decisions that affect them (Hutchinson, 1997). Finally, career managers may be viewed as the person responsible for generating satisfactory or unsatisfactory past career development. Therefore, although career manager satisfaction was not a significant predictor, the importance of career managers should not be over looked when fostering positive perceptions towards organisational career management practices. This is supported by the strong positive correlations found between career manager satisfaction and the three variables mentioned above (r=.64, .64 and .53 respectively).

Supervisor support for career development (like career manager) could also be influencing PECMP through other significant predictors in the regression, such as fairness. Alternatively, as the NZDF has a specific career manager, supervisor

support may not play such as important role as it would within in organisation where career management and resulting opportunities may be more in the control of the supervisor.

Providing information about career management practices has been consistently stated in literature to be important in a career management system, however few, if any, empirical tests have been conducted (Kram & Brager, 1996). The results of this study found that information showed a moderate correlation with PECMP (r=.36), however it was not a significant predictor in the regression. It may be that even if personnel are informed about the existence of career management practices, it is how these are actually implemented that is most important in predicting attitudes about its effectiveness. For example, perceptions about fairness and career development satisfaction may mediate or make redundant the relationship between information and PECMP. Just knowing what practices exist appears not to be enough to influence attitudes towards how effective the system is. However providing information about career management should not be overlooked as it displays to personnel, especially those who are new to the organisation, that they do exist and it may also allow a base for individuals to make judgments such as those about fairness.

Future career development and having a satisfactory career plan that would materialise were also not significant multivariate predictors of PECMP however they showed moderate to large significant bivariate correlations with PECMP (r=.42, .72, respectively). The results of this study therefore show that what has happened in the past (career development satisfaction) is more important for predicting attitudes than what personnel perceive may happen in the future. This may be because what has happened in the past is an objective measure of whether the organisation will deliver on its plans and expectations of its people.

External fit of other human resource functions with career management (sufficient training to develop ones career and seeing a link between career management and performance management) were also not significant predictors of PECMP in the regression analysis, although they both showed moderate bivariate correlations with PECMP (r=.48 & .56 respectively). This result is inconsistent with suggestions that external fit is required for career management practices to be viewed successfully by

personnel (Baird & Mexohoulam, 1988; Kram & Brager, 1992). This may be because personnel in the NZDF see training and performance management as distinct from career management. Alternatively, these relationships may be mediated by or made redundant by other variables in the regression such as fairness. For example, if a link can be seen between performance management and career opportunities then this may result in increased perceptions of fairness.

In conclusion, the results of this study suggest that when organisations provide feedback on career management decisions, show support for an individual's career development, deliver on their promises, allow personnel to have a say in their own career development and, most importantly, are seen to be fair in their career management, personnel will view the career management system as more effective. Additionally career management will be viewed as more effective if individuals are satisfied with their past career development. These features are greater contributors to perceptions of effectiveness than providing information about career management, having supervisor support for career development, having satisfactory career managers, providing career plans and future career development opportunities and demonstrating a link between career management, performance management and training. However, it is suggested here that these other features should not be over looked.

The results of this study show areas that organisations can focus on to maintain and/or increase perceptions of career management effectiveness. This, in-turn, is likely to increase commitment and satisfaction and ultimately reduce intentions to leave the organisation and actual turnover. Only one previous study (Herriot et al., 1994) could be found that had completed similar research. However, future research should explore this area further as the results demonstrate that PECMP relates to organisational attitudes such as commitment, satisfaction and turnover intentions.

Contact with Career Manager

The results of this study found that those people who were more satisfied with the amount of contact they had had with their career manager had more positive attitudes towards that career manager. No past research could be found that investigated this

relationship. The hypothesis was formed based on literature that suggested career preferences and goals change overtime (Saunders & Fogarty, 2001) and that perceived sufficient contact demonstrates to personnel that their career preferences are being heard and demonstrates that the NZDF values the career development of the individual.

This study was also based on the idea that as career preferences and goals are individual, perceptions of satisfaction with career manager contact would also be individual. As such the above result was based on whether participants thought the contact they had had with their career manager in the past 12 months was 'too few', 'just right' or 'too many'. The study then objectively asked how many contacts had occurred in the past 12 months. The results of a cross tab between satisfaction with contact and number of contacts suggests that satisfactory contact with a career manager is a minimum of one-to-two times per year.

Attitude towards the career manager was not a significant multivariate predictor of PECMP in this study. However, it has been argued above that career managers are important personnel in influencing attitudes towards career management and that the relationship between career manager and PECMP is made redundant by other variables such as fairness, personal input and career development satisfaction. As perceived satisfactory contact with a career manager influences attitudes towards that career manager, organisations should ensure that career managers make sufficient contact with personnel. The results of this study, although restricted to the NZDF sample, suggest that this is a *minimum* of one-to-two times per year.

Definition of Career Success

Considering that the military is a strongly hierarchical based organisation (Jans, 2002), the results were somewhat surprising in that almost 45 percent of the sample defined their career success by the lateral definition of 'other factors such as work/life balance, enjoyment and variety'. Just thirty five percent defined their career success as promotion. This may be reflective of personnel joining and remaining in the military for variety and skills and training, rather than just hierarchical progression (Jans, 2002; New Zealand Defence Force, 2005a). It may also be reflective of the

frequent job rotations, often to functionally different roles, that occur in the NZDF that provide this variety and skill development (Jans, 2002). Regardless of what it is reflective of, it demonstrates that we cannot assume how personnel view career success, even in an organisation with a strong emphasis on hierarchy. Personnel viewing career success laterally, especially in an organisation that emphasises hierarchy may have positive outcomes for an organisation by avoiding the negative attitudes that can result from career plateauing that may arise when hierarchical progression is restricted within an organisation, due to a limited number of positions at each organisational level (Lemire et al., 1999).

Contrary to prediction, how personnel defined their career (laterally or hierarchically) was not related to levels of satisfaction with past career development or higher levels of PECMP. This may be because NZDF personnel seek (and perhaps get given) opportunities that fulfill their career anchors (Schein, 1992) or the way they perceive success. Alternatively, it is also possible that people may change how they define career success by what areas that they think they have been successful in. For example, those who feel they have been more successful with promotions may be more likely then those who feel they have not be successful, to define their career success as hierarchical. Those who feel they haven't been successful in promotions may then change their referent for career success to other factors such as variety and work/life balance. This may happen consciously or unconsciously.

Implications

The NZDF Ongoing Attitude Survey (New Zealand Defence Force, 2005b) found that in the year proceeding April 2005, 43.3% of the NZDF personnel surveyed were dissatisfied by the way their career had been managed. The findings of this study are beneficial as they go beyond this satisfaction score and demonstrate a clear link between this dissatisfaction and attitudes important to organisations such as affective commitment, job satisfaction and intentions to leave the NZDF. This provides support for an organisation to focus organisational resources on providing a career management system that is perceived as effective by personnel.

Although intentions and behaviors are not the same thing, past research has shown that turnover intentions are one of, if not the best, predictors of actual turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000). Therefore by fostering positive perceptions of effective career management, the NZDF is likely to reduce voluntary turnover. This would have significant financial savings to the NZDF (in terms of recruiting, training and other turnover costs), in addition to allowing them to maintain personnel in an operating environment where lateral recruitment is difficult, if not impossible.

Continuance commitment played a small role in turnover intentions in this research; this may be because of the strong labor market in New Zealand at the time of the study (Sturges et al., 2002). As, due to demographic trends such as the ageing workforce, the labour market in New Zealand is unlikely to significantly weaken in the near future, employers will be competing for employees (New Zealand Department of Labour, 2006). Therefore fostering affective commitment appears a good strategy for retaining employees. This study demonstrates that this can be achieved by fostering positive perceptions of effective career management practices. Although based on a military sample, the finding that organisations should provide career management practices that are perceived as effective by personnel also applies to civilian organisations. Past surveys completed using civilian samples, including using a New Zealand sample demonstrates that civilian personnel want career management practices provided by organisations (Arnold & Mackenzie Day, 1994; Hoffman, 1997; Sturges et al., 2000, Parry & Proctor-Thomson, 2003).

More broadly, the results of this study contradict the idea that organisational career management is not required or wanted (Baruch & Peiperl, 2000), by clearly demonstrating the role that effective career management practices can play in influencing employee attitudes towards the organisation. These findings do, however, confirm the idea that a collaborative approach between the employee and organisation is needed when managing careers, by showing organisational career management is likely to be perceived as more effective when personnel perceive they have input into their own career management.

The results of this study also show that if personnel can be encouraged to define their career in terms of the military, as opposed to trade they hold within the military, then

they will be more affectively committed to the organisation. This has limited implications for other organisations, with perhaps the exception of the Police Force, as few organisations would objectively have this monopoly status, where membership of an organisation can be a career in itself. This is especially relevant considering the new boundaryless concept of careers, where careers are allegedly no longer embedded in stable and hierarchical organisations with long term employment, but now span multiple employers (Arthur et al., 1999; Parry & Proctor-Thomson, 2003).

The results also demonstrate that we cannot assume how personnel will define their career success, even within an organisation with a strong emphasis on hierarchy. Additionally, as there was no relationship between objective and subjective measures of career success, it also highlights that assumptions can not be made by organisations about what employees want; this should be considered by all organisations when designing and implementing career management practices. This, combined with the finding that less than 50 percent of the sample defined their career by the military, demonstrates that the NZDF must continue, or find ways, to fulfill career aspirations not necessarily related to the core function of the military (profession of arms; Jans, 2002). This suggestion is consistent with the results of Chang (1999) who found that those individuals who had low affective commitment to the organisation but high career commitment intend to leave the organisation if the organisation does not satisfy their career needs or goals.

Although how one defines their career success (hierarchically or laterally) was not related to career development satisfaction or PECMP, this result highlights that organisations must be aware that individuals want different things in a career which must be fulfilled to have perceived success, especially considering that past career development satisfaction was a significant predictor of PECMP. Helping employees to portray career success laterally will generally allow an organisation more flexibility in fulfilling the career needs of each individual. Although it is possible that this could be achieved by developing an organisational culture that does not emphasise hierarchy, the results of this study show that even in a hierachical organisation, such as the military, lateral referents of success can be achieved. This may have been achieved by portraying the military as adventurous, full of variety and a provider of skill development opportunities (through job rotations).

The value of this study is that although it shows that perceived effective career management is important it also demonstrates what fosters these perceptions: fairness, organisational support for individuals' career development, delivering on promises, allowing personnel to have a say in their own career development, and providing satisfactory past career development. Although the seven other IV's (e.g. career manager, career planning and information) investigated in this study were not significant predictors of PECMP, they showed moderate to large positive and significant bivariate correlations with PECMP. It is likely that these variables are influencing PECMP via those predictors that were found to be significant and as such employee satisfaction with these components should not be overlooked by organisations. Future research, using path analysis, would be useful to investigate these possibly mediated relationships.

Fairness was clearly the biggest contributor to how individuals perceive career management practices. Fairness is a complex construct made up of distributive, procedural and interactional components (Farmer et al., 2003). As such, future research could investigate this variable, and its relationship to PECMP, further. For example, investigating whether the career outcome (distributive fairness) or the criteria that decisions are based on (procedural fairness) is more important at influencing PECMP. As this study was based on *perceptions*, it can be difficult to determine objectively how much of something is sufficient to generate positive perceptions, for example, how much feedback is necessary. Future research within the NZDF (and other samples) could investigate how much of each of these important variables is necessary to generate positive perceptions. However, it would probably be safe to assume that providing too much would not hurt.

Overall, these results provide areas for actions and can guide the underlying principles of an organisation's career management practices. For example, ensuring systems are fair and that the organisation is demonstrating that it values its people and their career development. Interestingly, the results are consistent with the current principles of career management articulated by the NZDF: partnership between the individual and the organisation; transparency, fairness and equitableness; based on merit; feedback; and continuous improvement (New Zealand Defence Force, 2000). However, the

mean scores on some of these variables were moderate: fairness (M=2.62, SD=.03) and personal input (M=2.74, SD=.03). Additionally the mean score on PECMP was also moderate (M=2.65, SD=.03).

Therefore, the results of the study show that having these principles is not enough. Additionally, as the information on career management variable was possibly mediated by other significant relationships in the regression where PECMP was the dependant variable, just providing information on how career management should function, is also not enough. The principles and/or information must be lived out within the organisation. As such, the results of this study provide evidence to the NZDF that they should ensure that their principles of career management are applied in the implementation of its career management practices. It also provides guidelines to other organisations on principles to use when designing career management practices, but more importantly, principles to use when implementing career management.

An additional implication of this study is that personnel require sufficient contact with their career manager (or, in other organisations, whoever is responsible for career management). The results clearly show that if personnel are dissatisfied with the amount of contact they have with a career manager then their attitudes towards that career manager drop. As the 'link' between the organisations career management system and the individual, it is important to maintain these positive attitudes. This study shows that sufficient contact is a *minimum* of one to two times per year.

Limitations

While the results of this study offer research to support the use of career management practices to increase commitment and satisfaction and reduce turnover intentions and demonstrates how positive perceptions of the effectiveness of career management can be achieved, the study has a number of limitations discussed below.

The generalizability of this study's results is constrained by the military sample which is a unique organisation (Jans, 1997) with a number of features different to civilian organisations. As such, the role that career management practices would play in

determining attitudes towards a civilian organisation cannot be determined. Future research could investigate the role of PECMP using a civilian sample. The cross-sectional design of this study prevents determining causality, which should also be addressed in future research. Some of the results have been based on a number of assumptions concerning causality. Throughout the above discussion a number of alternative explanations have been provided to highlight a possible reverse in the causal ordering of variables.

The following limitations also threaten the internal and external validity of the findings. All data was based on the participants responses to one survey instrument with almost all the questions rated on a four point likert scale. Therefore, common method variance is likely to be present and as such, correlations between variables may have been inflated. The study suffered from a relatively low response rate (35.9%). As such, the sample (only 5% of the population) may not accurately reflect the population and the sample is prone to 'volunteer bias' (Crabtree, 1996). For example, those who are low on affective commitment may not have taken the time to respond. Similarly, although 446 responses were received; a number of the analyses were conducted using smaller sample sizes due to missing data. Although missing data was random, the overall length of the survey may have been a contributor to the missing data due to generating survey fatigue.

A number of limitations regarding measurement of the variables are also present. Firstly, met expectations was measured in hindsight. To be an accurate measure of expectations, expectations must be measured at the beginning of employment (Meyer, 1997). Additionally, items measuring continuance commitment capture a lot of the low alternatives sub-scale and much less of the high sacrifices subscale of continuance commitment. It has been suggested that it is the sacrifice component, not the perceived alternatives that captures continuance commitment (Allen, 2003). Meta-analysis has shown that the sacrifice component is negatively related to turnover intentions, however, the perceived alternatives subscale is not (Meyer et al., 2002). As those who believed their education and skills could not easily transfer to another organisation had higher continuance commitment, it has been suggested that perceived alternative employment is an antecedent of, not part of, continuance commitment (Meyer et al., 2002).

In the current study, only two of the four items used to measure continuance commitment make a comparison of possible alternative jobs with their current job in the NZDF, therefore going some way to measuring the sacrifice component of continuance commitment. These items are: 'I have a good chance of getting a *similar* job in another organisation' and 'I only stay because I don't think I would find *as good a job* outside the organisation' (emphasis added). Additionally, the second of these two questions is the only one of the four that goes anyway towards measuring the essential component of continuance commitment – the awareness that *one is only staying in the organisation* because of the costs of leaving the organisation, not simply just awareness of the costs themselves (Allen, 2003). Therefore future research should focus on measuring the essential component of continuance commitment.

With further regard to commitment, this study did not measure normative commitment. This is a perceived *ought* to stay with the organisation and is often not measured in studies as it is considered to be subsumed by affective commitment (Jaros, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002). However, normative commitment may be an important component in military turnover as it may be related to patriotism and the family type culture encouraged by the military (Allen, 2003). Future research, using military samples, should measure the normative commitment variable. Finally, as identified in the discussion above, the construct of turnover intentions may have been measuring general withdrawal as opposed to specific turnover intentions which may have implications for the conclusions drawn from the data. Therefore, future research should consider this difference in constructs.

Conclusion

The aim of this study was two fold. First, to investigate the role that PECMP plays in influencing personnel attitudes of commitment (affective and continuance), job satisfaction and intentions to leave the NZDF. The second aim was to investigate variables that may serve to increase PECMP. Previous studies were initially reviewed and hypotheses developed. A cross-sectional methodology was then used to collect data which was analysed and interpreted.

The results support the use of fostering positive perceptions towards organisational career management as a way to reduce turnover intentions, largely due to its positive relationship with affective commitment and job satisfaction. The results also provide empirical evidence for principles of career management practices to be applied in its implementation. These are fairness, allowing individuals to have input into their career development, demonstrating organisational support for career development, providing feedback about career management decisions and delivering on expectations generated around career management. Replicating this study and applying path analysis techniques is also likely to discover that other variables used in this study have a relationship with PECMP that is mediated by the above variables.

Additional findings of this study are that perceived sufficient contact with a career manager influences attitudes towards that career manager and that this contact is likely to be a minimum of one-to-two times per year. Additionally, in the case of the military, encouraging personnel to define their career as the military is likely to result in a higher level of emotional attachment to the organisation. Replicating this study using other military and civilian organisations will provide credibility for the importance of organisational career management to organisational outcomes and general principles for best practice career management.

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Appendix A: Survey Items

The following are the items for each variable used in this study.

(R) indicates that the item was reversed before analysis.

* indicates that the item was developed for this study; the remaining items already existed in the New Zealand Defence Force Ongoing Attitude Survey.

The following items were rated on a four point likert scale where:

1 = strongly agree; 2 = mostly agree; 3= mostly disagree; and 4 = strongly disagree.

Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Career Management Practices

I am satisfied with the way my career has been managed (R)

Career management practices in the NZDF are effective (R) *

Turnover Intentions

It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave the NZDF (R)

Within the past year I have considered leaving the NZDF to obtain employment elsewhere (R)

I am actively looking at leaving the NZDF in the next 12 months (R)

I will probably leave the NZDF in the next 12 months (R)

Affective Commitment

I speak highly of the NZDF to my friends (R)

I think I am doing something worthwhile for my country by being in the NZDF (R)

The NZDF is the best possible organisation to work for (R)

I am extremely glad I chose to join the NZDF over other jobs I was considering at the time (R)

The future prospects of the NZDF are good (R)

I am willing to put in effort beyond that normally expected in order to help the NZDF be successful (R)

I understand how I contribute to the NZDF's mission (R)

I really care about the future of the NZDF (R)

Deciding to join the NZDF was a definite mistake on my part

I find that my values and the NZDF values are very similar (R)

Being in the NZDF gives me a sense of belonging to one big family (R)

I feel there is not much to be gained by staying in the NZDF

I would rather work for a different organisation as long as the type of work and pay was similar

I understand the mission, goals and objectives of the NZDF (R)

I feel very little loyalty towards the NZDF

Often I find it difficult to agree with NZDF policies on important matters relating to its employees

Continuance Commitment

There are currently better than usual opportunities for alternative employment for me

Were I to leave the NZDF I would have a good chance of getting a similar job in another organisation

In the NZDF, the more you do the more you are expected to do (R)

I only stay because I don't think I would find as good a job outside the organisation (R)

Fairness

Career management decisions are fair (R) *

Career management decisions are based on merit (R) *

Decisions are made based on clear criteria (R) *

Training and career opportunities are allocated fairly (R)

Information

I am aware of career management systems and processes (R) *

I have access to information and documentation on career management systems and processes (R) *

Feedback

I receive sufficient feedback on career management decisions affecting me (R) *

Information on my career management has been adequate (R)

Supervisor Support

My supervisor actively supports my career development (R) *

My immediate supervisor has always shown an interest in my career development (R)

Career Planning

I am confident that what gets planned for my career in the NZDF will occur (R) *

I am satisfied with my career plan for my future in the NZDF (R) *

Personal Input

I have input into the direction of my career (R) *

My needs and aspirations are considered when decisions are made (R) *

I feel like I have no personal control over my career *

The fact that the Service's requirements will affect decisions made about my career is reasonable (R) *

Organisational Value

My career development is treated as important by the NZDF (R) *

Future Career Development

My promotion prospects are good (R)

My career opportunities are limited

Performance Management Link

I see clear links between the performance appraisal system and career management (R) *

Training

I am given adequate training to progress my career (R) *

I have been placed in roles for which I have the necessary skills and competencies (R) *

I have been given access to appropriate professional/technical training to develop my skills and knowledge to do my job (R)

My current positions utilizes my skills and training (R)

Career Manager Satisfaction

My career manager understands my career needs (R) *

I have confidence in the abilities of my Career Manager (R) *

Past Career Development Satisfaction

My career development has generally been good (R)

At present, I am equal to or ahead of what seems to be normal career progression in the NZDF (R) *

I am satisfied with my career development in the NZDF (R) *

Met Expectations

My career has been managed as I expected when I joined the NZDF (R)*

Job Satisfaction

The following item was rated on a four point likert scale where: 1 = excellent; 2 = good; 3 = satisfactory; and 4 = poor

Considering everything how would you rate your satisfaction in your current job? (R)

Contact with Career Manager

How many times in the last 12 months have you had contact with your Career Manager? *

Response Options = none, 1-2 times, 3-4 times, 5 or more times

Perceptions of Career Manager Contact

Was the number of contacts with your career manager …*

Response options = too few; about right; too many

Career Success Definition

What is your number one indicator of career success? *

Response options = promotion; pay progression; other factors such as work/life balance, enjoyment and variety

Career Definition

How do you define your career? *

Response options = trade or branch; being a member of the Service or NZDF

Appendix B: Survey Cover Letter

NEW ZEALAND DEFENCE FORCE ATTITUDE SURVEY

I have directed Personnel Branch to continue with the administration of the NZDF wide survey to monitor opinions about matters relating to employment in the NZDF. The survey asks you about your satisfaction with matters such as supervision, work conditions, career management, change and equity.

The information you provide will be used for two purposes:

- To assist in decision-making, regarding current management practice and policy decisions, relating to your employment.
- To monitor trends over time.

From time to time the survey information may be used to inform NZDF supported research conducted by internal and external researchers.

This survey is being sent out to all NZDF civilian and military personnel. Surveys will be sent out on a weekly basis, to different people each week, to ensure that nobody receives a survey more frequently than every three years.

In the survey you are asked to provide your Service Number. This will allow us to link your survey responses with a range of personal information (trade, service, age, length of service, etc) from the personnel information system (ATLAS) so that you do not have to provide this information yourself. This information will **not** include your name. This will allow us to determine whether there are differences in opinions or levels of satisfaction across sub-groups such as rank and trade. We also want to monitor trends in groups over time, for example, to track satisfaction levels with regard to various employment conditions and see how this effects retention.

While some of you may be concerned about providing information that identifies you, legislation prohibits us from publishing information that identifies you. Once your survey is linked with the required ATLAS data, your service number will be replaced with a code to ensure your anonymity. The way the data is stored, analysed and reported will prevent the identification of individuals, and at no time will data about individuals be reported.

I acknowledge that taking the time to complete this survey competes with other demands in your work place. I believe there is significant benefit in the conduct of this survey and I **strongly** encourage you to complete it. Your opinions are key to shaping effective future human resource policy and practice. I give you an assurance that the comments and information generated in response to survey questions will be listened to.

B.R. FERGUSON
Air Marshal
Chief of Defence Force

IT IS VERY IMPORTANT THAT YOU TAKE THE TIME TO COMPLETE THIS SURVEY HONESTLY AND THOUGHTFULLY.

This survey is administered in accordance with the Privacy Act (1993) and guidelines for research practice outlined in DFO 21/2002. The information collected from respondents will be treated strictly as "in-confidence". Data will not be reported in a manner whereby respondents can be identified. The information will be stored in a central database within Personnel Branch, HQ NZDF for further research as required.

Appendix C: Survey Instructions Page

Instructions

If you have access to the NZDF Intranet you may choose to fill this questionnaire in online at the following address:

http://ilp/FrameTool.asp?Target=http://dcsbhost/survey/O~AtS.htm

Please only fill out one questionnaire.

This is not a test. There are no right or wrong answers. It is very important that your answers accurately reflect your own experiences and opinions. When you answer the questions, please follow these three steps.

1. Each statement requires that you read it carefully and then decide which response best reflects how you feel about the statement.

2. Throughout this survey we are interested in your experiences and opinions across three overlapping areas within the NZDF; your immediate workplace/section, the larger Command group your workplace/section is controlled by, and the NZDF as a whole. You will find that the statements distinguish between these. When you answer statements, if you are asked about the NZDF, you should try to apply the statement to your knowledge of the organisation as a whole, remembering that your Service is part of that organisation.

3. Record your answers with a black or blue pen. Follow the instructions carefully on how to answer each question. When you are required to make a choice between answers, please completely darken the circle that corresponds with your response:

Like this: ● **Not like this** ⊘ **OR** ⊗ **OR** ⓵

For example: ① ② ● ④ **AND** ○ ○ ● ○ ○ ○ ○
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

If you make an error put a cross through it like this ● and then darken the circle that corresponds to your correct response.

Please note: Questions are printed on both sides of the questionnaire.

When you have finished answering the questionnaire return it in the self-addressed envelope that you received with the questionnaire. Do not fold the questionnaire, leave it A4 size, and do not staple the questionnaire together.

You will be sent a reminder if your completed survey is not received within one month after it was sent out. Please disregard this if you have already returned the survey.

The results of the survey and the outcomes generated will be published on the Pers Branch web site, on a quarterly basis. Your participation in this piece of research is greatly appreciated.

Appendix D: Outliers

The following 10 cases were removed from the analysis as they met the use of $p<.001$ criterion of Mahalanobis Distances.

Case One

Case one was a 19 year old Private (E) Field Engineer who had been in the New Zealand Defence Force (NZDF) for less than 1 year. He showed very low scores on career development satisfaction, future career development, met expectations and performance management. Despite this, he showed high scores on information, career manager satisfaction, fairness and personal input. He also showed a moderate score on perceptions of the effectiveness of career management practices (PECMP).

Case Two

Case two was a 22 year old Private (E) Electrician who had been in the NZDF less than one year. He had high scores on past career development satisfaction, personal input, fairness, met expectations and career planning. He also showed low scores on performance management, future career development, feedback, information and career manager.

Case Three

Case three was a 36 year old Sergeant (E) Administrator who had been in the NZDF for four years. He had low scores on fairness, personal input, past career development satisfaction, supervisor support, feedback, met expectations, and PECMP. However, he had high scores on information, career manager satisfaction, training, performance management and organisational value.

Case Four

Case four was a 26 year old Corporal (E) Diver who had been in the NZDF for seven years. He showed high scores on fairness, personal input, training, organisational

value, future career development, supervisor support, performance management, career planning, met expectations and PECMP. However, he also scored extremely low on career manager satisfaction.

Case Five

Case five was a 22 year old Lance Corporal (E) who had been with the NZDF for four years. He scored high on all variables expected to correlate with PECMP with the exception of fairness and met expectations which he scored moderately on. He also had a high score on PECMP.

Case Six

Case six was a 38 year old Warrant Officer (E) Aircraft Technician who had been with the NZDF for 21 years. He scored highly on fairness, training, career development satisfaction, future career development and supervisor support. He had low scores on career manager satisfaction, feedback, organisational value, career planning and met expectations.

Case Seven

Case seven was a 33 year old Lieutenant (E) who had been in the NZDF 13 years. He had low scores on fairness, career manager satisfaction information, feedback, organisational value, future career development, supervisor support, performance management, met expectations and PECMP. Despite this he showed an extremely high score on career development satisfaction.

Case Eight

Case eight was a 32 year old Sergeant (E) Rifleman who had been with the NZDF 11 years. He had low scores on fairness, personal input, feedback, organisational value, future career development, supervisor support, career planning and met expectations. He showed a moderate score on PCEMP and high scores on career manager

satisfaction, information, career development satisfaction and performance management.

Case Nine

Case nine was a 50 year old Warrant Officer (E) Administrator who had been in the NZDF for 19 years. He showed high scores on fairness, training, information, career development satisfaction and supervisor support. He also showed low scores on feedback, organisational value, future career development, performance management link, met expectations, career planning and PECMP.

Case Ten

Case 10 was a 33 year old Sergeant (E) Supply Quartermaster who had been in the NZDF for 13 years. He showed high scores on fairness, personal input, career manager satisfaction, feedback, information, performance management, organisational value and PECMP. He also showed low scores on met expectations, supervisor support and career planning.