

*Routledge Studies in Management, Organizations and Society*

# **FLEXIBLE HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT AND VOCATIONAL BEHAVIOUR**

**THE EMPLOYABILITY MARKET ORIENTATION MODEL**

Anna Pawłowska



# Flexible Human Resource Management and Vocational Behaviour

The Employability Market Orientation (EMO) model, which is more extensive than traditional approaches in the field of personal marketing, along with a questionnaire for its measurement, makes the employee “anti-fragile” behaving as a micro-entrepreneur (workpreneur). It achieves high levels of employability and marketability and low job insecurity. This attitude has consequences for employers such as low employee loyalty and commitment. Thus, HR specialists will be able to develop adequate solutions and methods, reducing the effects of retention. The EMO questionnaire contained in the book will allow them to diagnose such attitudes.

This book guides readers through the world of the rules of the contemporary labour market with the end of life-long employment, encouraging to have a proactive attitude by both the employee and the employer. Its originality lies in the fact that it focuses on employees who can be adopted, not being victims of flexible human resource management. It is written in an objective manner, supported by reliable research with advanced statistical analysis, and will be of value to researchers of management, the labor market, career counselling, sociologists and work psychologists. Proposed indicators of often imprecise concepts such as mobility and professional flexibility are explored. These concepts will help scholars to conduct research on new phenomena and develop theories of modern organization with disappearing borders and transactional relations.

**Anna Pawłowska** is an Associate Professor of Management at the University of Warsaw, Poland. Her scientific interests and practice activities are related to psychological aspects of human resources management, entrepreneurship and freelance. She managed international projects dedicated contemporary labour market, which resulted in writing this monograph.

## **Routledge Studies in Management, Organizations and Society**

This series presents innovative work grounded in new realities, addressing issues crucial to an understanding of the contemporary world. This is the world of organized societies, where boundaries between formal and informal, public and private, local and global organizations have been displaced or have vanished, along with other nineteenth century dichotomies and oppositions. Management, apart from becoming a specialized profession for a growing number of people, is an everyday activity for most members of modern societies.

Similarly, at the level of enquiry, culture and technology, and literature and economics, can no longer be conceived as isolated intellectual fields; conventional canons and established mainstreams are contested. *Management, Organizations and Society* addresses these contemporary dynamics of transformation in a manner that transcends disciplinary boundaries, with books that will appeal to researchers, students and practitioners alike.

Recent titles in this series include:

### **Business meets the Humanities**

The Human Perspective in University-Industry Collaborations

*Edited by Martina Skrubbelttrang Mahnke, Mikka Nielsen, Matilde Lykkebo Petersen, and Lise Tjørring*

### **Business Groups and Strategic Coopetition**

*Edited by Wioletta Mierzejewska and Patryk Dziurski*

### **Flexible Human Resource Management and Vocational Behaviour**

The Employability Market Orientation Model

*Anna Pawłowska*

### **Knowledge Communication in Global Organisations**

Making Sense of Virtual Teams

*Nils Braad Petersen*

# **Flexible Human Resource Management and Vocational Behaviour**

The Employability Market Orientation  
Model

**Anna Pawłowska**



ROUTLEDGE

**Routledge**

Taylor & Francis Group

NEW YORK AND LONDON

First published 2023  
by Routledge  
605 Third Avenue, New York, NY 10017

and by Routledge  
4 Park Square, Milton Park, Abingdon, Oxon, OX14 4RN

*Routledge is an imprint of the Taylor & Francis Group, an informa business*

© 2023 Anna Pawłowska

The right of Anna Pawłowska to be identified as author of this work has been asserted in accordance with sections 77 and 78 of the Copyright, Designs and Patents Act 1988.

The Open Access version of this book, available at [www.taylorfrancis.com](http://www.taylorfrancis.com), has been made available under a Creative Commons Attribution-Non Commercial-NoDerivatives (CC-BY-NC-ND) 4.0 International license. Funded by University of Warsaw.

*Trademark notice:* Product or corporate names may be trademarks or registered trademarks, and are used only for identification and explanation without intent to infringe.

*Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data*  
A catalog record for this title has been requested

ISBN: 978-1-032-36029-4 (hbk)

ISBN: 978-1-032-36033-1 (pbk)

ISBN: 978-1-003-32993-0 (ebk)

DOI: 10.4324/9781003329930

**To my brother Gregory Szaro for inspiration**



**Taylor & Francis**

Taylor & Francis Group

<http://taylorandfrancis.com>

# Contents

<i>List of Figures</i>	xii
<i>List of Tables</i>	xiv
<b>1 Introduction</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 <i>Research assumption and approach</i>	2
1.2 <i>Terminology and research, cognitive and practical objectives: adopted theses</i>	5
1.3 <i>Monograph structure</i>	8
1.4 <i>Original contribution of the monographs to science</i>	10
1.5 <i>A few words to the Reader</i>	11
1.6 <i>A brief for those overloaded with information</i>	11
<i>Note</i>	15
<i>References</i>	15
<b>2 Employee and the way of performing the personnel function</b>	<b>18</b>
<i>References</i>	20
<b>3 Flexible human resource management: Choice or necessity?</b>	<b>21</b>
3.1 <i>Organisational context shaping relations with employees: The role of strategic adaptation of the organisation to the environment</i>	21
3.2 <i>The reistic concept of work in flexible human resource management</i>	22
3.3 <i>Segmentation of workforce according to Ch. Handy: core and peripheral workers</i>	25
3.4 <i>Selected approaches to the consequences of flexible human resource management: the views of neo-luddites and anti-luddites, and flexicurity</i>	27
<i>Notes</i>	28
<i>References</i>	29

<b>4 New employer–employee relations: The transactional, instead of relational, psychological contract</b>	32
4.1 <i>The concept and types of psychological contracts</i>	32
4.2 <i>Main components of the psychological contract and changes occurring in them</i>	35
4.2.1 <i>Job (in)security</i>	35
4.2.2 <i>Vocational (un)training</i>	38
4.2.3 <i>Employee (dis)loyalty</i>	39
4.3 <i>Consistency of obligations and expectations within a psychological contract as a condition for the effective cooperation of the employer and the employee</i>	41
Notes	43
References	43
<b>5 Expectations towards the employee: Adaptation, flexibility and mobility</b>	47
5.1 <i>Approach to employee adaptation</i>	47
5.2 <i>The concept and types of flexibility</i>	48
5.3 <i>The concept and types of mobility</i>	49
References	51
<b>6 Professional development of an individual as an area where relationships with the employer are formed</b>	54
6.1 <i>The traditional approach to professional development – J. Holland, D. Super, E. Schein</i>	54
6.2 <i>Modern approaches to professional development</i>	56
6.3 <i>New forms of employee activity in the changing labour market</i>	58
6.3.1 <i>Independent career orientations: precariat, proteanism and boundaryless career</i>	58
6.3.2 <i>Typologies of careers and career orientations as an attempt to classify employees' behaviour</i>	61
6.3.3 <i>Selected determinants of career orientation types</i>	63
References	64
<b>7 Employability, marketability and employability competences in the changing labour market</b>	67
7.1 <i>Savickas's career construction model as a determinant of the employee's adaptation process</i>	67
7.2 <i>Employability and marketability of the employee as solutions to job insecurity</i>	69

- 7.3 *Employability competences and their significance for the employee in a transactional psychological contract* 72
  - 7.3.1 *Employability competences in Polish studies* 74
  - 7.3.2 *Selected theories of employability competences in foreign studies* 76

Notes 80

References 80

## **8 Employability Market Orientation as the employee's response to the rules of the changing labour market** 83

- 8.1 *Employee as a micro-entrepreneur in the labour market* 83
- 8.2 *Extrapolation of the marketing perspective to the employee level* 84
- 8.3 *Employability Market Orientation: basic assumptions and structure* 85
- 8.4 *Characteristics of respective competences of Employability Market Orientation* 88
  - 8.4.1 *Career exploration* 88
  - 8.4.2 *Vocational self-concept crystallisation* 90
  - 8.4.3 *Career planning* 92
  - 8.4.4 *Career strategy implementation* 92
  - 8.4.5 *Future time perspective* 93
- 8.5 *Cognitive flexibility as a determinant of Employability Market Orientation* 94
- 8.6 *Hypothetical model of adaptation to the changing labour market based on Employability Market Orientation from the perspective of a transactional psychological contract* 98

Notes 100

References 100

## **9 Selected determinants of Employability Market Orientation and its relationship with the criteria of adaptation to the changing labour market: Research report** 103

- 9.1 *Methodological assumptions and a survey of sales staff and civil servants* 103
  - 9.1.1 *Research questions and schema* 103
  - 9.1.2 *Sales staff and civil servants as the surveyed groups* 105
  - 9.1.3 *Verified hypotheses* 106
  - 9.1.4 *Method of analysis and presentation of findings* 110

9.2	<i>Diagnostic tools and indicators used in the research</i>	112
9.2.1	<i>Cognitive flexibility: Dimensions of cognitive alternatives and cognitive control</i>	112
9.2.2	<i>Job insecurity</i>	114
9.2.3	<i>Employability</i>	117
9.2.4	<i>Professional flexibility</i>	120
9.2.5	<i>Boundaryless career</i>	120
9.2.6	<i>Savickas's career adapt-abilities scale (CAAS)</i>	122
9.3	<i>Employability Market Orientation operationalisation and evaluation of the reliability of the diagnostic questionnaire: Relationship with socio-demographic variables</i>	124
9.4	<i>Psychological contract, cognitive alternatives and cognitive control versus Employability Market Orientation</i>	134
9.5	<i>Relationship of Employability Market Orientation with job insecurity and employability</i>	142
9.6	<i>Employability Market Orientation as an alternative to Professional Flexibility and Boundaryless Career</i>	148
9.7	<i>Verification of the EMO-based path model of adaptation to the changing labour market: Comparison with the predictivity of Savickas's Career Adapt-Abilities Scale</i>	152
9.8	<i>Profile of an employee with Employability Market Orientation</i>	157
9.9	<i>Discussion of results</i>	159
9.10	<i>Sources of limitations to the inference based on the presented research schema: Future research suggestions</i>	164
	<i>Notes</i>	167
	<i>References</i>	168

<b>10</b>	<b>Managing employees with Employability Market Orientation: A challenge for human resource management</b>	<b>171</b>
10.1	<i>What starts with laughter...?</i>	171
10.2	<i>Loss of the exclusivity privilege</i>	172
10.3	<i>Employability: ignore or accept...</i>	173
10.4	<i>Rules of employability in the personnel policy</i>	173
10.5	<i>The business basket of competences of an organisation and temporality of the relation with the employee</i>	174
10.6	<i>Creating employer image: employer branding</i>	175
10.7	<i>Investing in an employee for the current, but ... also a future, employer</i>	176
10.8	<i>A new culture of management...?</i>	177
	<i>Notes</i>	178
	<i>References</i>	178

<b>11 What about the employee? A slightly subjective conclusion</b>	180
<i>Note</i>	181
<i>References</i>	181
<b>12 Glossary of diagnosed variables</b>	182
<b>13 Statistical annex</b>	185
13.1 <i>Descriptive statistics of the diagnosed variables</i>	185
13.2 <i>Significance of differences between mean values of the diagnosed variables</i>	187
13.3 <i>Correlations among the studied variables</i>	188
13.4 <i>Distributions of results for the respective Employability Market Orientation scales</i>	191
13.5 <i>Factor analysis of Employability Market Orientation</i>	194
13.6 <i>Coding of selected variables</i>	195
13.7 <i>Data from the linear regression analysis of socio-demographic variables and Employability Market Orientation</i>	195
13.8 <i>Data from linear regressions verifying the respective hypotheses</i>	196
 <i>Index</i>	 205

# Figures

7.1	Employee's Professional Life in the Changing Labour Market (Compiled by the Author)	70
8.1	Hypothetical Model of an Employee's Adaptation to the Rules of a Transactional Psychological Contract and the Changing Labour Market (Compiled by the Author)	99
9.1	Schema of the Research Procedure (Compiled by the Author)	104
9.2	Distributions of Results for the Cognitive Alternatives Scale in the Surveyed Group	113
9.3	Distributions of Results for the Cognitive Control Scales in the Surveyed Group (the Survey Results)	114
9.4	Distribution of Results for the Job Insecurity (JI) Indicator Obtained by the Surveyed Persons (the Survey Results)	117
9.5	Distribution Of Results For The Employability (MAE) Indicator In The Total Group Surveyed (the Survey Results)	119
9.6	Frequency Distribution for the Professional Flexibility (PF) Indicator (the Survey Results)	121
9.7	Frequency Distribution for the Boundaryless Career (BC) Indicator (the Survey Results)	123
9.8	Distribution of Standardised Results Obtained in the EMO Questionnaire in the Total Group Surveyed (the Survey Results)	129
9.9	Interaction of Gender and Education Versus Employability Market Orientation (the Survey Results)	132
9.10	Interaction of Age and Education Versus Employability Market Orientation (the Survey Results)	132
9.11	Interaction of Age and Education Versus Career Exploration (CE) – EMO Scale (the Survey Results)	132
9.12	Interaction of Gender and Education Versus Vocational Self-Concept Crystallisation (VSCC) – EMO Scale (the Survey Results)	133
9.13	Interaction of Type of Employment Contract and Education Versus Employability Market Orientation (the Survey Results)	133
9.14	Distribution of Standardised Results Obtained in the EMO Questionnaire, Divided into Sales Staff (the Survey Results)	134

9.15	Distribution of Standardised Results Obtained in the EMO Questionnaire, Divided into Civil Servants (the Survey Results)	134
9.16	Interaction of the Workplace and Gender Versus Career Exploration (CE) – EMO Scale (the Survey Results)	136
9.17	Path Chart of Model A – EMO-Based Model of Adaptation to the Changing Labour Market (the Survey Results)	154
9.18	Path Chart of Model B (Rejected) – CAAS-Based Model of Adaptation to the Changing Labour Market (the Survey Results)	155
9.19	A Descriptive Model of Employee Adaptation in an Organisation Based on a Traditional Relational Psychological Contract (Compiled by the Author)	155
9.20	A Model of Employee Adaptation to the Changing Labour Market Based on a Transactional Psychological Contract (Compiled by the Author)	156
13.1	Distributions of Results for the Career Exploration Scale (the Survey Results)	191
13.2	Distributions of Results for the Future Time Perspective Scale (the Survey Results)	192
13.3	Distributions of Results for the Career Planning Scale (the Survey Results)	192
13.4	Distributions of Results for the Career Strategy Implementation Scale (the Survey Results)	193
13.5	Distributions of Results for the Vocational Self-Concept Crystallization Scale (the Survey Results)	193

# Tables

4.1	Comparison of the Employer-Employee Relations Depending on the Type of Psychological Contract (Compiled by the Author of this Monograph and on the Basis of Sullivan 1999, p. 457–484)	34
4.2	Summary of Employee Expectations and Obligations in Respective Types of Psychological Contracts (Compiled By the Author)	42
8.1	Summary of the Marketing Approach, Employability Market Orientation and the Career Competence Model of J. Akkermans, V. Brenninkmeijer and M. Huibers (Compiled by the Author of this Monograph and on the Basis of Kotler 2000; Akkermans et al. 2015)	87
9.1	Research Questions, Hypotheses and Variables used in the Research on Employability Market Orientation (Compiled by the Author)	109
9.2	Summary of Diagnosed and Controlled Variables used in the Research Process (Compiled by the Author)	111
9.3	Items in the Cognitive Flexibility Questionnaire – Dimensions of Cognitive Alternatives (CFIA) and Cognitive Control (CFIC) (Compiled by Author on the Basis of J.P. Dennis and J.S. Vander Wal (2010)	112
9.4	Items of the Job Insecurity (JI) Indicator (Compiled by the Author)	116
9.5	Items of the Employability (MAE) Indicator (Compiled by the Author on the Basis of R.W. Griffeth, R.P. Steel, D.G. Allen, and N. Bryan 2005; R.C. Wanberg, L. M. Hough, and Z. Song 2002)	119
9.6	Items of the Professional Flexibility (PF) Indicator (Compiled by the Author)	121
9.7	Items of the Boundaryless Career (BC) Indicator (Compiled by the Author)	122
9.8	Scales in the Employability Market Orientation Questionnaire (Compiled by the Author)	125

9.9	Items of the Career Exploration (CE) Scale (Compiled by the Author and on the Basis of C.M. Van der Heijde and B.I.J.M. Van der Heijden 2006; S.A. Stumpf, S.M. Colarelli and K. Hartman 1983)	126
9.10	Items of the Vocational Self-Concept Crystallisation (VSCC) Scale (Compiled by the Author and on the Basis of Quint and Kopelman Scale as Cited in: Q. Weng and J.C. McElroy 2010)	126
9.11	Items of the Career Planning (CP) Scale (Compiled by the Author and on the Basis of J. Koen and U-Ch. Klehe, A.E.M. Van Vianen, J. Zikic and A. Nauta 2010; R.C. Wanberg, L.M. Hough and Z. Song 2002)	127
9.12	Items of the Career Strategy Implementation (CSI) Scale (Compiled by the Author and on the Basis of R.W. Griffeth, R.P. Steel, D.G. Allen and N. Bryan 2005)	127
9.13	Items of the Future Time Perspective (FTP) Scale (Compiled by the Author and on the Basis of S.A. Stumpf and K. Hartman 1984; S.A. Stumpf, S.M. Colarelli and K. Hartman 1983)	128
9.14	Cronbach's Alpha for Individual Scales in the Employability Market Orientation Questionnaire and the Total EMO Scale (the Survey Results)	128
9.15	Descriptive Characteristics of Relationships Between Socio-Demographic Variables Versus Employability Market Orientation and Individual Scales Based on Linear Regression Results (the Survey Results. Only Statistically Significant Relationships are Shown)	131
9.16	Research Schema for Verification of Hypotheses 1 and 2 Regarding Determinants of Employability Market Orientation (Compiled by the Author of this Monograph)	135
9.17	Descriptive Characteristics of Relationships Between the Workplace (Sales Staff Versus Civil Servants), EMO and Individual Scales, Based on the Results of Linear Regression (the Survey Results. Only Statistically Significant Relationships are Shown)	137
9.18	Descriptive Characteristics of Relationships Between Cognitive Alternatives (Dimension of Cognitive Flexibility), EMO and Individual Scales, Based on the Results of Linear Regression (the Survey Results. Only Statistically Significant Relationships are Shown)	139
9.19	Descriptive Characteristics of Relationships Between Cognitive Control (Dimension of Cognitive Flexibility), EMO and Individual Scales, Based on the Results of Linear Regression (the Survey Results. only Statistically Significant Relationships are Shown)	143

9.20	Research Schema for Verification of Hypotheses 3 and 4 (Compiled by the Author)	145
9.21	Descriptive Characteristics of the Relationship Between Job Insecurity (JI) and EMO, Based on the Results of Linear Regression (the Survey Results. Only Statistically Significant Relationships are Shown)	145
9.22	Descriptive Characteristics of the Relationship Between Employability and EMO, Based on the Results of Linear Regression (the Survey Results. Only Statistically Significant Relationships are Shown)	146
9.23	Comparison of Pearson R Correlation Coefficients for Selected Variables Divided into Civil Servants and Sales Staff (the Survey Results. Only Statistically Significant Relationships are Shown)	147
9.24	Research Schema for Verification of Hypotheses 5a, 5b, 5c (Compiled by the Author of this Monograph)	148
9.25	Descriptive Characteristics of Relationships Between Professional Flexibility (PF), EMO and Individual Scales: Job Insecurity (JI) and Employability (MAE), Based on the Results of Linear Regression (the Survey Results. The Remaining EMO Scales are Ignored Because No Relationship has been Found with PF. Only Statistically Significant Relationships are Shown)	150
9.26	Research Schema for Verification of Hypotheses 6a, 6b, 6c (Compiled by the Author of this Monograph)	152
9.27	Descriptive Summary of Relationships Between Boundaryless Career (BC), Employability Market Orientation and Individual Scales, Based on the Results of Linear Regression (the Survey Results. The Remaining EMO Scales are Ignored Because No Relationship has been Found with PF. only Statistically Significant Relationships are Shown)	153
9.28	Parameters of the Tested Models (the Survey Results)	154
9.29	Summary of Hypotheses and Results of their Verification (the Survey Results)	163
13.1	Frequency Distribution and Percentage Share of Men And Women in the Total Group Surveyed as well as Among Sales Staff and Civil Servants (the Survey Results)	185
13.2	Frequency Distribution and Percentage Share of People with Bachelor's Degree or Lower Level of Education and Master's Degree or Higher Level of Education in the Total Group Surveyed as well as Among Sales Staff and Civil Servants (the Survey Results)	185

13.3	Frequency Distribution and Percentage Share of People at a Given Age in the Total Group Surveyed (the Survey Results)	186
13.4	Descriptive Statistics of the Diagnosed Variables in the Total Group Surveyed (the Survey Results)	186
13.5	Descriptive statistics of the Respective EMO Scales in the Total Group Surveyed (the Survey Results)	187
13.6	Significance of Differences Between Mean Values of the Diagnosed Variables in the Surveyed Groups of Sales Staff and Civil Servants (the Survey Results)	187
13.7	Pearson Coefficients of Correlation Between the Diagnosed Variables and Demographic Variables and Workplace (Sales Staff Versus Civil Servants) (the Survey Results)	188
13.8	Contingency Table of Pearson Correlation Coefficients for the Diagnosed Variables (the Survey Results)	189
13.9	Pearson Coefficients of Correlation Between Employability Market Orientation and Demographic Variables, as Broken Down into the Groups of Sales Staff and Civil Servants (the Survey Results)	190
13.10	Pearson Coefficients of Correlation Between Employability Market Orientation and the Diagnosed Variables, as Broken Down into the Groups of Sales Staff and Civil Servants (the Survey Results)	190
13.11	Pearson Coefficients of Correlation Between the Diagnosed Variables and the Dimensions of Savickas's Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (the Survey Results)	190
13.12	Cronbach's Alphas for the Respective Items of the EMO Questionnaire (the Survey Results)	194
13.13	Cronbach's Alphas for the Respective Scales of the EMO Questionnaire (the Survey Results)	195
13.14	Coding of Selected Variables – Summary (Compiled by the Author)	195
13.15	Standardised Beta Coefficients of Linear Regression for Socio-Demographic Variables and EMO (the Survey Results)	195
13.16	Standardised Beta Coefficients of Linear Regression for the Variables: Psychological Contract (Workplace: Sales Staff Versus Civil Servants) and EMO (the Survey Results)	196
13.17	Standardised Beta Coefficients of Linear Regression for the Variables: Cognitive Alternatives (Dimension of Cognitive Flexibility) and EMO (the Survey Results)	197
13.18	Standardised Beta Coefficients of Linear Regression for the Variables: Cognitive Control (Dimension of Cognitive Flexibility) and EMO (the Survey Results)	198

13.19	Standardised Beta Coefficients of Linear Regression for the Variables: Job Insecurity (JI) and EMO (the Survey Results)	199
13.20	Standardised Beta Coefficients of Linear Regression for the Variables: Employability (MAE) and EMO (the Survey Results)	200
13.21	Standardised Beta Coefficients of Linear Regression for the Variables: Professional Flexibility (PF) and EMO (the Survey Results)	200
13.22	Standardised Beta Coefficients of Linear Regression for the Variables: Professional Flexibility (PF) and Job Insecurity (JI) (the Survey Results)	201
13.23	Standardised Beta Coefficients of Linear Regression for the Variables: Professional Flexibility (PF) and Employability (MAE) (the Survey Results)	202
13.24	Standardised Beta Coefficients of Linear Regression for the Variables: Boundaryless Career (BC) and EMO (the Survey Results)	202
13.25	Standardised Beta Coefficients of Linear Regression for the Variables: Boundaryless Career (BC) and Job Insecurity (JI) (the Survey Results)	203
13.26	Standardised Beta Coefficients of Linear Regression for the Variables: Boundaryless Career (BC) and Employability (MAE) (the Survey Results)	204

# 1 Introduction

A changeable and uncertain environment makes organisations introduce principles of flexible management. In this way, they strive to shorten the time of response to customer needs so as to gain a competitive advantage. One of the effects of this approach is flexible human resource management with many consequences for employer-employee relations.

Research shows that the average working time at one employer is becoming shorter and, according to various sources, is 10–12 years and even around 3–4 years in the group of young people.<sup>1</sup> What is more, this holds true not only of flexible forms of employment but also of contracts of indefinite duration.

Researchers hold different views as regards the assessment of the scale of these phenomena. On the one hand, voices are saying that “the standard employee on an open-ended contract is by no means an endangered species” (Leighton et al. 2010). On the other hand, Beck claims that the “job for life has disappeared” (2000, as cited in: Morawski 2003). As G. Vielmetter argues, the requirement for workers’ flexibility will increase, resulting in the disappearance of traditionally understood long-term jobs in enterprises within 20 years. They will be replaced by short-term contracts (Hay Group 2011). According to CBOS data, within the last five years, nearly one-third of professionally active adult Poles (31%) have changed jobs twice on average (Boguszewski 2013). Ch. Kolmar (2021), citing the American Bureau of Labor Statistics, states that “workers change jobs on average every 4.2 years, and the average person changes jobs 12 times in their lifetime”.<sup>2</sup>

The situation is becoming urgent for many economic and social reasons. The ensuing problems are reflected in the European Union directives indicating their importance. The sixth report on economic, social and territorial cohesion emphasises that one of the factors of economic development is the flexibility and adaptability of human capital. “This makes it easier for an economy to shift to new opportunities as the market evolves” (European Commission 2014, p. 204).

The discussed issues are still new, and relevant Polish research works so far are insufficient. Therefore, a clear need arises to systematise the terminology and theoretical approaches that will serve both to achieve research goals and to

## 2 Introduction

formulate recommendations supporting solutions to these new practical management problems. This also justifies research on employee behaviour in the changing labour market, notably in the face of the ever frequently signalled end of the dominant position of the employer and the rise of the so-called employee's market. The findings of that research are presented in this monograph.

### 1.1 Research assumption and approach

One of the effects of the introduction of flexible human resource management is a change in employer–employee relations that has shifted towards a new transactional psychological contract. In this situation, the employee loses, first of all, a sense of job security and care of professional development, which was guaranteed by the traditional relational contract. This provokes much controversy in both academic and journalistic discourse. The emerging research polemics and trends in various fields seem to be dominated by a more or less emotional perspective evaluating the circumstances in the world of work.

Psychology relatively broadly analyses the negative effects of this situation on individuals that arise primarily from the loss of job security and related stress (Klonowicz 2001). Sociological studies depict social risks related to the rise of the precariat, a new social group particularly affected by short-term employment (Rudnicki 2014; Standing 2014).

A critical approach to the rules of flexible management is becoming visible. It often presents employees as victims of rapacity of profit-oriented enterprises. The employee is depicted as a passive object influenced by management processes that are expected to adapt by accepting even unfavourable conditions. There are also attempts to point to those responsible for the emerged problems, with a clear tendency to blame employers who are called upon to conclude more long-term contracts as other arrangements are harmful to employees. In response to these allegations, the American sociologist R.B. Reich proposes to stop looking for the guilty ones in corporations and among managers because the reason is

in *here*, in our own appetites, in what we want to buy, in the great deals we want to get. People [...] view on their satellite televisions all the gadgets and glitter of middle-class American life, and say: *We want that*. And quickly, please.

(2002, p. 240, as cited in: Morawski 2003)

In his opinion, it is consumers who force enterprises to adopt such an approach and flexibly respond to their changing and still unmet needs.

If this is the case, the sole focus on employers, their decisions and management method as a source of problems raises doubts. Perhaps it should be presumed that the situation is objectively complex and requires mutual adaptation of both employers and employees. Hence, it can be assumed that the employee also undertakes certain activities in response to existing circumstances and it is

not necessarily passive subordination or the role of a victim. This conjecture formed the basis for the research presented in this monograph.

I was inspired to choose a research perspective on employee behaviour in response to flexible management by N.N. Taleb's publication (2013). He analyses the reactions to variability and unpredictability. According to him, fragility is a feature of individuals who cannot tolerate randomness, uncertainty and chaos. The opposite is **antifragility** that "is beyond resilience or robustness. The resilient resists shocks and stays the same; the antifragile gets better" (Taleb 2013).

From this perspective, the aforementioned studies on the negative effects of short-term employment verify the level of employee fragility and strive to answer the questions: how stressed are employees; how much will they endure; how long will they be able to cope with it? The concept of antifragility directs thinking towards seeking adaptive behaviours, yet the point is not simple adaptation but creation of something new and more beneficial. It is assumed that "[s]ome things benefit from shocks; they thrive and grow when exposed to volatility, randomness, disorder, and stressors and love adventure, risk, and uncertainty" (Taleb 2013). N.N. Taleb claims that this is the position of a self-employed person who can cope better in the labour market than a "fragile" permanent employee whose income is more vulnerable to shocks and who will be practically unemployable having attained the age of 50. These issues are also the subject of interest in this monograph.

In the previous relationship with the employer, based on security and durability for life, employees were fairly certain about what could happen. Currently, their professional situation is highly unpredictable. Hence, what is most important is one's attitude, namely how "fragile" or rather antifragile one is.

Individuals may respond to the volatility of the labour market in a variety of ways and, depending on interpretation, behave differently, experiencing various stress levels. Psychologists know this phenomenon well. It is explained, for example, by Ellis's rational emotive theory, whereby it is not the situation but its interpretation by the individual that is the source of stress (2008). Therefore, N.N. Taleb suggests "using, rather than suffering from, random events, unpredictable shocks, stressors, and volatility" (2013, p. 26). This means that in a new transactional relationship with the employer, the employee can develop an adaptive and beneficial behaviour pattern.

These considerations have underpinned the search for employees who do well in new relations with the employer based on more or less short-term employment and enjoy a changing labour market. They are likely to undertake situation-specific behaviour that probably matters to human resource management processes. Perhaps such behaviour will make it necessary to change both the existing organisational behaviour theory and the hitherto standard solutions, methods and tools used to perform the personnel function.

The problem is that the existing management theory lacks models and terminology that would allow these behaviours to be identified and diagnosed in a satisfactory manner with account being taken of the rules of short-term

employee-employer relations. Some clues can be found in theories of professionalism (Macdonald 1995), yet they refer to the situation voluntarily chosen by the individual. Current circumstances make individuals face the facts that they cannot directly influence.

**Accordingly, the main objective** of this monograph is to identify employee behaviours that are a response to the changes in relations with employers, to develop a theoretical framework, to clarify the terminology for their analysis and to design a diagnostic tool. Afterwards, within the research procedure, it will be checked whether there are people who reveal such a behaviour pattern and what might determine this pattern. This will make it possible to assess whether the developed questionnaire can differentiate employees in terms of this variable. These behaviours will be treated as adaptation to the changing labour market and as an important factor in the performance of the personnel function. Therefore, this will be followed by an analysis of their relevance for solutions used in human resource management.

The chosen line of analysis is justified by the fact that management sciences relatively broadly explore organisational problems associated with flexible management. The perspective of the employee is much less frequently analysed, with prevailing randomness of terminology and theoretical approaches. This is often referred to the issues of employability, flexibility or mobility of employees, quite arbitrarily defined depending on the perspective adopted by the researcher.<sup>3</sup> Meanwhile, taking into account the employee's response to flexible management seems to be important when the method of performing the personnel function is designed and cannot be disregarded.

The theoretical basis of this monograph is interdisciplinary. The problems discussed are referred to as human resource management with the use of knowledge of organisational behaviours, in particular as regards the psychological contract between the employer and the employee. The monograph focuses on how individuals shape their relationships with their employer. Therefore, it builds upon knowledge of psychology of professional development of individuals, yet only as regards their functioning within organisations and work environments, disregarding aspects related to, for example, private life.

It should be clearly emphasised that the approach presented in this monograph focuses on identification of employee adaptive behaviour in the deductive model (Nowak 2011, p. 163) and empirical verification of the designed model. A scientific approach that should objectively and impartially analyse data has been adopted, in conjunction with scientific inference. At the same time, judging the identified phenomena is avoided. The terminology stresses its **descriptive** function so that it serves only cognitive purposes, with a maximally limited **expressive** function involving the speaker's attitude towards the subject and a maximally limited impressive function associated with the influence on attitudes (Nowak 2011). This is important and difficult because the described phenomena, as mentioned previously, arouse many emotions since they are not neutral from the point of view of the value system. This does not mean, however, that

I deny the existence of areas of disagreement that are difficult and require solutions. I assume that the possible generation of solution proposals will be even more efficient if the analysis of the situation is more strongly grounded in facts rather than judgements that should be left to work ethicists and specialists in corporate social responsibility. From the point of view of management theory, the research process is carried out in the area of organisational behaviour in accordance with the functionalist paradigm and the use of quantitative and confirmatory path analyses.

## 1.2 Terminology and research, cognitive and practical objectives: adopted theses

The inference and research procedure in the monograph will focus on entities that perform activities commissioned by the **employer**, regardless of the legal form or the existence of an employment relationship, as this may also apply to self-employed persons. Formal and legal definitions are disregarded, hence terms such as “worker,” “employee” and “the employed” are used interchangeably. However, I will be inclined to use the term employee, as suggested by P. Leighton et al. (2010), because an employee is a “skills supplier” in line with trends in today’s labour market.

It was also assumed that all kinds of employer-employee interactions occur in the **labour market**, and this will be a notion used in a narrower meaning than in macroeconomics. The choice of an adjective that would reflect the sense of phenomena occurring in contemporary employee-employer relations in the labour market proved to be particularly difficult. Some authors studying this subject use such terms as: uncertain, unpredictable or short-term labour market. However, these have an assessing and evaluating component and accentuate the unilateral properties of the labour market. That is why the term “changing labour market” was chosen as more neutrally describing the nature of phenomena. The issues addressed are the subject of interest relevant to the organisational behaviour theory. The notions “organisation” and “enterprise” are used as synonyms.

The relationships between individuals and employers refer to the functioning of individuals in the area of **professional development**. As further explained in more detail, this evokes various associations, for example, as regards professional career. It is very important to precisely define this notion and establish the scope of its meaning. The basis for the research process and presented analysis was provided by the definition put forward by A. Baňka, who treats a career as a “continuous learning process resulting in an accumulated set of life experiences, positions, professional roles, tested each time by objective criteria of attractiveness and demand in the labour market.” It is simultaneously assumed that career is “owned by an individual, not a profession or organisation” (Baňka 2006, p. 75). This is a different approach from the classical understanding of a career as climbing the levels of the organisational structure present in the organisational theory.

## 6 Introduction

The terms “personnel function,” “human resource management” and “human capital management” are used interchangeably. Nevertheless, “personnel function” is used when the issues described refer more to “decisions related to people, aimed at achieving organisational goals and meeting the needs (development) of employees” (Listwan 1999, p. 7). Human capital management refers to the economising trend in management and serves to emphasise the importance of employees in achieving business goals and building competitiveness of an enterprise. The concept of “human resource management” is the most generalised one and is used to broadly characterise the processes implemented in relation to the social subsystem of organisations.

Taking into account all these issues, under the presented research approach, the answers to the following questions were sought:

- Is there a pattern of employees’ behaviour that is their adaptive response to flexible human resource management and related changeability of the labour market? A particular emphasis is on the activity of employees caused by a change of the psychological contract from a relational to transactional one resulting in them losing the previously guaranteed job security and support in professional development.
- Are there individuals in the labour market who follow this adaptive pattern and what triggers it?
- Is it possible to build a model of employee adaptation to the changing labour market?
- What meaning, if any, can this behaviour pattern have for how human resources are managed?

These questions were answered thanks to empirical research, which enabled the attainment of the following **cognitive objectives**:

- The importance of higher order employability competences (a type of metacompetences) relevant to coping with the realities of the changing labour market and going beyond the skills necessary in a given job was identified and highlighted, which allows analysing employee behaviour in relations with employers as part of a transactional psychological contract.
- The marketing perspective was extrapolated to the employee level. In effect, a behaviour pattern based on a set of employability competences strictly related to dealing with problems in the changing labour market was identified. The resulting behaviour pattern was termed **Employability Market Orientation (EMO)** of the employee.<sup>4</sup>
- A questionnaire was developed to diagnose Employability Market Orientation, and its reliability was assessed. It was found that the tool differentiated respondents, confirming its diagnostic utility.
- A relationship was established between Employability Market Orientation and cognitive flexibility consisting of individuals’ ability to find alternative solutions and interpretations and control the situation in which they found

themselves. To that end, the Cognitive Flexibility Inventory (CFI) of Dennis and Vander Wal (2010), adapted specifically to Polish conditions, was used. It covered two scales of Cognitive Alternatives and Cognitive Control.

- A relationship between Employability Market Orientation and the concepts of “professional flexibility” and “boundaryless career,” commonly found in theory and research, was demonstrated.
- A model of employee adaptation to the changing labour market based on Employability Market Orientation, employability, marketability, job insecurity and cognitive flexibility was designed. The model was subsequently verified by means of confirmatory path analysis.
- A comparative analysis of the EMO-based adaptation model was performed in relation to Savickas’s Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS) existing in foreign publications and adapted to Polish conditions specifically for that purpose. The path analysis revealed that the EMO-based model was better fitted.
- The significance of the empirically confirmed pattern of employee behaviour was examined according to the Employability Market Orientation model for the human resource management process.

In addition, attaining the above objectives involved the necessity to systematise and define a number of concepts and develop indicators related to the discussed issues, which also constitutes achievement of the monograph. Such notions as: flexibility, mobility and professional adaptation, job insecurity, career competences and employability competences, employability and marketability were clarified or newly defined. The following indicators were developed and verified: job insecurity, employability, marketability, professional flexibility and transactional psychological contract. Moreover, two English-language diagnostic tools were adapted to Polish conditions: Cognitive Flexibility Inventory (CFI) of J.P. Dennis and J.S. Vander Wal and Savickas’s Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS).

All this provides a systematised methodological basis that can be used in further research on phenomena occurring in the changing labour market, both at the organisational and individual level.

The research procedure and the set objectives attained on the basis of obtained data allowed the following main theses of the monograph to be formulated:

- There are employees who display Employability Market Orientation.
- The developed questionnaire diagnosing Employability Market Orientation has satisfactory parameters that confirm its usefulness and differentiating capacity in terms of the diagnosed feature.
- No relationship has been established between age and gender and Employability Market Orientation, and the relationship with education is very weak.
- Cognitively flexible people are more capable of adopting Employability Market Orientation.

## 8 *Introduction*

- Employability Market Orientation increases employability and marketability, which simultaneously play a mediating role in lowering insecurity of the employee.
- The EMO-based model of adaptation to the changing labour market has correct fit indices in the confirmatory path analysis. In contrast, the alternative model based on Savickas's Career Adapt-Ability Scale (CAAS) was rejected due to the lack of fit. Thus, it is legitimate to state that the developed EMO model is a contribution to knowledge about the functioning of individuals in the changing labour market.
- The behaviour pattern making up EMO provides grounds for verifying the usability of many solutions normally applied in human resource management at the strategic and operational levels. In addition, it questions some assumptions of existing organisational behaviour theories, such as loyalty, attachment, organisational commitment and civic behaviours.

The **practical objectives** accomplished in the research procedure can be formulated as follows:

- The identification of people exhibiting EMO allows a better understanding of and an adequate response to emerging new phenomena, such as employee disloyalty. In consequence, employer-employee relations can be modified, and organisational efficiency can be enhanced, thereby improving organisational competitiveness based on human capital and adjusting the management process to new behaviours of employees.
- The developed EMO questionnaire can be used for diagnostic purposes by employees responsible for managing people, labour market organisations and individual employees to expand their self-knowledge.
- The proposed model of adaptation to the changing labour market may support incentive schemes for professional development of individuals and counteract potential socio-psychological problems. It indicates the sources of factors that increase employee efficiency.

### 1.3 **Monograph structure**

The monograph opens with the indication of the importance of analysing employee behaviours for human resource management. It is a determinant that should be taken into account when designing the personnel function.

Subsequently, the conditions and rules under which contemporary organisations operate are outlined on the environmental side. That part seeks to determine whether the changing labour market is the effect of deliberate actions of enterprises or a response to the situation more or less imposed by business realities and to what extent. A realistic concept of work that forms the basis for flexible human resource management is also presented. This approach resulted in the segmentation of employees, according to Ch. Handy. At the end of the

Chapter 2, the views of Neo-Luddites and Anti-Luddites on the effects of flexible human resource management are portrayed and flexicurity is described.

The Chapter 3 outlines the adopted basis for analysis of the described phenomena, namely the psychological contract. It presents definitions, types and the individual elements of the psychological contract, showing their changes (from relational to transactional) and ambiguity.

The further chapter addresses common expectations in the related literature concerning the employee in the changing labour market. That part clarifies concepts such as “adaptation,” “flexibility” and “mobility.”

The Chapter 5 discusses the professional development of individuals as an area where relations with the employer are formed. Traditional and modern approaches are compared, and new forms of employee activity in the changing labour market, for example, “precarity,” “proteanism” and “boundaryless career,” are addressed.

The next part refers to the specifics of the functioning in the changing labour market. The notions of “employability,” “marketability” and “employability competences” are introduced there. The investigation relied on the employee adaptation model according to Savickas’s career construction theory. Polish and foreign approaches to employability competences understood as higher-order meta-competences existing alongside job-related competences and conditioning the maintenance of employment in the changing labour market are reviewed.

The Chapter 7 introduces the concept of behaviour patterns termed EMO. It is the effect of the perception of an employee as a micro-entrepreneur in the labour market and the extrapolation of the marketing approach. The individual EMO competences such as career exploration, vocational self-concept crystallisation, career planning, career strategy implementation and future time perspective are characterised. In that chapter, the inference is also made, resulting in cognitive flexibility being selected as one of the determinants that trigger EMO. In addition, a model of employee adaptation to the changing labour market from a transactional psychological contract perspective is proposed.

Further chapters present the research schema for my own studies carried out among sales staff and civil servants and the justification for its choice. Subsequently, EMO, the diagnostic questionnaire, and EMO relationships with age, gender, education and type of employment contract are verified empirically. Moreover, the significance of cognitive flexibility, job insecurity and employability is demonstrated, together with the relationship with professional flexibility and a boundaryless career. The research part closes with a chapter presenting the results of verification of an EMO-based hypothetical model of adaptation to the changing labour market. The added value of the developed construct is also evinced in comparison with Savickas’s Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS). That part ends with reflections on the sources of limitations on inference based on the adopted research schema as well as the indications for further research.

The final part investigates the importance of EMO for building relationships with the employee, a challenge for human resource management in today's organisations. In the last chapter, I refer to the situation of an employee displaying EMO and to potential effects on various areas of employee functioning.

#### **1.4 Original contribution of the monographs to science**

The approach and results of my research presented in this monograph expand the knowledge about organisational behaviours and factors determining the manner of human resource management. They refer to current phenomena that are the source of multiple problems appearing in the organisation management practice. They allow the directions and ways of solving them to be indicated.

In the **theory-related** context, they provide a conceptual framework and model that can be used for further research on employee behaviour in the changing labour market, employability competences, development of relations under a transactional contract and efficient management. These findings help explain problematic behaviours of employees, such as a lack of loyalty and organisational commitment and modify them in line with the business needs of enterprises. They exemplify an interdisciplinary approach whereby different perspectives are applied to problems that have not been used so far, thereby broadening the spectrum of research possibilities and cognitive benefits.

At the **methodological** level, the research procedure resulted in the development of a tool diagnosing EMO. A model of adaptation to the changing labour market was designed. An approach was proposed to operationalize the discussed issues and develop indicators, for example, employability and marketability, job insecurity and a transactional psychological contract. The two foreign questionnaires mentioned before, adapted to the Polish conditions and concerning cognitive flexibility and professional adaptation, can be used in other research procedures.

The **empirical** contribution of the presented monograph is that it provides the research results on EMO in a group of sales staff members and civil servants employed in organisations with various psychological contracts. The significance of cognitive flexibility and demographic variables for forming employee adaptive behaviour was established. This can be used to design actions aimed at developing employee proficient behaviours with a view to management effectiveness.

Thus, a certain research area appeared, making it possible to analyse the consequences of EMO for the relation with the employer, the personnel function and a number of assumptions about organisational behaviours such as coping with job insecurity, stress, organisational commitment, etc. In a broader context, this supports organisational activity in building a competitive advantage driven by human capital. From the social point of view, the issues raised are so serious and timely that it seems necessary and urgent to undertake reliable, objective research in order to implement adequate remedial actions.

The book can provide an inspiration to both theoreticians and practitioners, notably in human resource management and labour market institutions. Furthermore, the monograph is addressed to employees increasingly challenged by the changing labour market.

### **1.5 A few words to the Reader**

In the end, I would like to address a few words to the **Readers** of this monograph. The described phenomena and problems concern virtually every labour market participant, meaning that each of us has our own opinions about this subject. Nonetheless, it should be realised that such opinions developed within professional socialisation processes and are culturally programmed with reference to the realities of the world of work that existed a dozen and more years ago. Nowadays, this world is governed by completely different rules that can be difficult to understand and especially to accept.

Hence, the presented content may seem controversial. This is mainly because it is contrary to habitual mental patterns formed by the experiences of previous generations and causes cognitive dissonance. It may raise natural objections and be hard to accept at the initial stage, yet after a deeper reflection, it may prove interesting in the context of its controversial nature and perhaps provide inspiration to embark on a new adventure with the labour market. I would find it a very rewarding effect of the approach proposed in this book.

### **1.6 A brief for those overloaded with information**

G. Vielmetter claims that traditionally understood long-term jobs in enterprises will disappear within 20 years as they will be replaced by short-term contracts (Hay Group 2011). The Polish Public Opinion Research Center (CBOS) data show, in turn, that within the last five years, nearly one-third of professionally active adult Poles (31%) have changed jobs twice on average (Boguszewski 2013). The main reason behind this is the introduction of flexible human resource management principles in enterprises. Therefore, a volatile and uncertain environment makes organisations shorten the response time to customer needs to gain competitive advantage.

Management literature pays relatively much attention to making human resource management more flexible. However, publications mostly stress negative consequences such as the rise of the precariat. Nonetheless, employees' reaction to this new situation is poorly addressed, and adaptive behaviours are even less studied. Meanwhile, it is on relevant knowledge that the adequacy of the applied methods and the effectiveness of management actions depend, and these are reflected as initial employee behaviours that the organisation needs to remain in the market at the smallest personnel risk. Therefore, knowledge about what is happening to employees in response to flexible management must not be ignored.

Presently, we are going through the post-Fordism era that – being more adequate to market rules – is becoming the applicable management system. As claimed by J. Rymaniak (2012), we are, therefore, dealing with a reistic concept of work. Work takes on the organisational dimension, and its role is to achieve the primary goal of a market organisation, namely profit. Work thus serves to generate such effects that foster the attainment of business goals of the enterprise. What is particularly important is that if these goals are achieved, the organisation's ability to create employment is maintained.

This relationship between the characteristics of the environment, the rules of competitiveness, the customer's needs and the enterprise's offer directly necessitates flexible management of work and, thereby, of its providers, that is employees. Therefore, as F. Civelli notes, the labour market is transforming into the **competence market** (as cited in: Sienkiewicz 2009, p. 67). This is resulting in new employer-employee relations. The introduction of the principles of flexible human resource management "turned upside down" the rules that underlay the existing relations between the employer and the employee, first of all in terms of the content of the psychological contract.

Along with the progressive pursuit of organisational flexibility, the traditional relational contract is disappearing while a relationship based on transactional rules is becoming more and more apparent. The changes concern, in particular, three basic elements of psychological contracts: job security, training process and employee loyalty.

Job insecurity is nowadays becoming a permanent element of the employer-employee relation. The use of the hire-and-fire principle by organisations (Giddens 2004) is a manifestation of the progressive externalisation of employees. It involves a shift of responsibility for updating and developing professional competences from the organisation to the employee. And a response to this process is the disappearance of the traditional form of employee loyalty to the organisation for the sake of loyalty towards the profession and the work performed.

The key to efficient cooperation between the employer and the employee is to understand the change of psychological contracts, to identify mutual expectations and commitments, accept this situation and generate new ways of building mutual relations. Consistency in this area seems to particularly matter so that enterprises can reduce personnel risk and, building on their human capital, establish a competitive position in the market. Employees can, therefore, be expected to reveal a new behaviour pattern that is an adaptation to flexible management and the resulting changing labour market. What seems of particular importance here is professional development of individuals, which directly concerns their relations with employers.

An attempted approach to this problem includes issues such as flexibility, mobility and adaptation, and finally, the rise of the precariat, patterns of a protean and boundaryless career, and on the part of science – the generation of various typologies. However, an in-depth analysis indicates that these approaches

do not fully grasp the occurring phenomena and are burdened with definitional imperfections.

That is why it is worth taking a closer look at professional development of individuals. Employees' activity in the organisation depends on how they identify with their professional roles and what elements constitute the scenario of functioning at the workplace, which is contained in cognitive structures. This further determines the course of cooperation with the employer.

As argued by M.L. Savickas et al. (2009), we are facing a crisis and obsolescence of the concepts of professional development formulated in the 20th century. Their fundamental weakness is that they are rooted in the assumption that one's personality is stable and invariable and that employment is secure within a closed, limited organisation following the principles of a relational psychological contract.

Hence, a new understanding of **career** is proposed as defined by A. Bańka, who treats a career as a "continuous learning process resulting in an accumulated set of life experiences, positions, professional roles, tested each time by objective criteria of attractiveness and demand in the labour market". It is simultaneously assumed that career is "owned by an individual, not a profession or organisation" (Bańka 2006, p. 75).

Accordingly, attempts have been made to identify employee behaviours that could be considered an adaptation to flexible human resource management and the resulting changing labour market. The career construction model by M.L. Savickas (Savickas and Porfeli 2012) can be helpful in this respect. It covers four elements of professional development of individuals: adaptivity, adaptability, adapting and adaptation, signifying that professional identity is formed based on the ability to adapt to a series of changes when moving from school to work and from one profession or employment to another. It is assumed that in this situation, uncertainty is reduced and a job can be found by building employability, and marketability on the basis of a competence portfolio. All this makes up one's career capital. In order to accumulate it, employees, having to relatively frequently look for work interrupted by periodic unemployment, must launch a set of specific actions that go beyond their job responsibilities. This activity is permanent and is also undertaken when they do have a job.

Certain higher-order **competences** called **employability** competences are necessary to this end. The problem is that it is difficult to identify and operationalise them and, above all, not to confuse them with professional and transferable competences. In order to achieve this goal, however, the marketing approach was extrapolated to the level of an employee who is treated as a micro-enterprise in the labour market, as suggested, for example, by A.K. Koźmiński (2008).

Thereby, a marketing-designated set of behaviours related to the professional functioning of individuals was developed, termed **EMO**.<sup>5</sup> It is a behaviour pattern ensuing from higher-order employability competences that go beyond those necessary to perform job responsibilities. It serves to build employability and marketability of the employee, ultimately leading to job insecurity reduction.

It is specific to relations with employers based on the rules of a transactional psychological contract and adaptable to the changing labour market. It includes competences associated with Career Exploration (CE), Vocational Self-Concept Crystallisation (VSCC), Career Planning (CP), Career Strategy Implementation (CSI) and Future Time Perspective (FTP).

The proposed approach to the analysis of employee behaviour has been researched among sales staff and civil servants (300 people in total).

The operationalisation and evaluation of the reliability of the Market Employment Orientation Questionnaire showed that it has satisfactory psychometric parameters.

The research aimed at indicating the determinants triggering EMO made it possible to establish that EMO is independent of gender and age but is more likely to be triggered by people with lower education. EMO also proved to be most dependent on individual psychological differences in one's cognitive flexibility determined by Cognitive Alternatives and Cognitive Control. Organisational impacts framing a psychological contract are not significant.

The obtained data confirm the adaptive function of EMO as it is associated with **high Employability** and – thanks to its mediation – **lower Job Insecurity**.

At the same time, it was found that alternative constructs such as traditionally understood professional flexibility and boundaryless career do not meet these criteria, which is interesting as it contradicts quite common beliefs in this respect.

The **EMO-based** model of employee adaptation to the changing labour market proposed on the basis of theoretical analyses and my own research results **has satisfactory fit indices**, contrary to that relying on Savickas's Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS). The latter has to be rejected due to insufficient levels of these indices.

The conducted analyses established that some employees display behaviours involving adaptation to the rules of flexible human resource management and related transactional psychological contract resulting in the changing labour market.

Employees are prepared to lose their job by managing themselves in a fashion similar to a micro-enterprise in the labour market. This situation does not disorganise them as they are “resilient to shocks,” that is antifragile, as N.N. Taleb (2013) would put it.

Thus, this questions some studies that present unambiguously negative approaches to these phenomena. At the same time, however, it is expected that employee behaviours resulting from EMO may generate new types of problems for business managers who will have to respond with some action. In effect, this will be reflected in how the personnel function is performed at all three levels: political, strategic and operational.

For example, good communication with employees in the internal and external labour market (employer branding) is necessary.

The HR department must perform the role of a strategic partner securing the business basket of organisational competences when the relationship with employees is potentially temporary, thereby ensuring that the organisation operates in a stable manner in the market. This ensues from a change in employees' loyalty formula, attachment and organisational commitment.

In particular, if an employee exhibits EMO, it will be necessary to adjust the leadership style. This means that the competences of an employee as a micro-enterprise can be efficiently used in cooperation understood as a mutual exchange of benefits rather than an effect of instructions and hierarchy as it used to be under a relational psychological contract.

The above discussion is merely a selection from a wide range of possible scenarios. There is no doubt, however, that numerous phenomena are emerging in the area of human resource management. Accordingly, many previous assumptions, principles and rules have become outdated. Their continued application and *a priori* treatment as effective poses a great risk, all the greater that it regards specific personnel risk.

## Notes

- 1 Retrieved from: [http://www.rynekpracy.pl/artukul.php/typ.1/kategoria\\_glowna.10/wpis.522](http://www.rynekpracy.pl/artukul.php/typ.1/kategoria_glowna.10/wpis.522); <http://weblog.infopraca.pl/2011/05/ile-razy-zmienisz-prace-w-zyciu/>; <http://hrstandard.pl/2013/08/27/srednia-dlugosc-zatrudnienia-w-najwiekszych-koncernach/#more-26816>. (accessed: 20.09. 2015).
- 2 An attempt to systematise behaviours similar to those that will be discussed in this monograph was made by P. Bohdziewicz (2008).
- 3 An interesting review of various approaches to employability is provided by the dedicated special issue of *Zarządzanie Zasobami Ludzkimi* 2015, 6(107).
- 4 The research project on this topic was awarded a distinction in the competition of the University Technology Transfer Centre, University of Warsaw.
- 5 It is my own proposal.

## References

- Bańka, A. (2006). Kapitał kariery – uwarunkowania, rozwój i adaptacja do zmian organizacyjnych oraz strukturalnych rynku pracy. [Career capital – conditions, development and adaptation to organizational and structural changes in the labor market]. In Z. Ratajczak, A. Bańka, & E. Turska (Eds.), *Współczesna psychologia pracy i organizacji. [Contemporary psychology of work and organization]*. Katowice: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego, 59–117.
- Boguszewski, R. (2013). *Mobilność i elastyczność zawodowa Polaków. Komunikat z badań. [Poles' professional mobility and flexibility. research report]*. BS/11/2013. Warszawa: CBOS.
- Bohdziewicz, P. (2008). *Kariery zawodowe w gospodarce opartej na wiedzy (na przykładzie grupy zawodowej informatyków)*. [Careers in the knowledge-based economy (on the example of the professional group of IT specialists)]. Łódź: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego.
- Dennis, J.P., & Vander Wal, J.S. (2010). The cognitive flexibility inventory: Instrument development and estimates of reliability and validity. *Cognitive Therapy & Research*, 34, 241–253. doi: 10.1007/s10608-009-9276-4.

- Ellis, A. (2008). *Głębokie uzdrawianie emocji. [Deep healing of emotions]*. Kraków: Wydawnictwo Zielona Sowa.
- European Commission (2014). *Investment for jobs and growth. Promoting development and good governance in EU regions and cities. Sixth report on economic, social and territorial cohesion*. Brussels: European Commission.
- Giddens, A. (2004). *Socjologia. [Sociology]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Hay Group (2011). Building the new leader. Leadership challenges of the future revealed. Retrieved from <http://www.haygroup.com/Leadership2030/> (accessed: 12.12.2016).
- Klonowicz, T. (2001). *Stres bezrobocia. [Stress of unemployment]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Instytutu Psychologii PAN, SWPS.
- Kolmar, Ch. (2021). Average number of jobs in a lifetime (2022): All statistics. Retrieved from <https://www.zipppia.com/advice/average-number-jobs-in-lifetime/> (accessed: 10.01.2022).
- Koźmiński, A.K. (2008). *Koniec świata menedżerów. [End of the managers world]*. Warszawa: WAIp.
- Leighton, P., Syrett, M., Hecker, R., & Holland, P. (2010). *Nowoczesne formy zatrudnienia. [Modern forms of employment]*. Warszawa: Oficyna a Wolters Kluwer business.
- Listwan, T. (1999). *Zarządzanie kadrami: podstawy teoretyczne i ćwiczenia. [Human resources management: theoretical foundations and exercises]*. Wrocław: Wydawnictwo Akademii Ekonomicznej im. Oskara Langego.
- Macdonald, K.M. (1995). *The sociology of the professions*. London: Sage Publications.
- Morawski, W. (2003). Niepewność w świecie pracy. Sondażowe badania konsekwencji globalizacji. [Uncertainty in the world of work. Surveys of the consequences of globalization]. In K. Dokańtor, K. Konecki, & W. Warzywoda-Kruszyńska (Eds.), *Praca. Gospodarka. Społeczeństwo. [Work. Economy. Society.]*. Łódź: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego. 40–52.
- Nowak, S. (2011). *Metodologia badań społecznych. [Methodology of social research]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Ratajczak, Z. (2007). *Psychologia pracy i organizacji. [Work and organizational psychology]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Rudnicki, J. (2014). Koncepcja przyszłościowego modelu kariery zawodowej. [The concept of the future model of professional career]. *Edukacja Ekonomistów i Menedżerów*, styczeń–marzec, [Education of Economists and Managers, January–March,]. 31, 43–57.
- Rymaniak, J. (2012). Elastyczność jako wymiar reistycznej koncepcji pracy. [Flexibility as a dimension of a reistic concept of work]. In S. A. Witkowski, & M. Stor (Eds.), *Sukces w zarządzaniu kadrami. Elastyczność w zarządzaniu kapitałem ludzkim. Volume 2. Problemy zarządczo-psychologiczne, [Success in human resources management. Flexibility in managing human capital. Volume 2. Management and psychological problems]*. Wrocław: Uniwersytet Ekonomiczny, 44–52.
- Savickas, M.L., Nota, L., Rossier, J., Dauwalder, J.P., Duarte, M.E., Guichard, J., Soresi, S., Van Esbroeck, R., & van Vianen, A.E.M. (2009). Life designing: A paradigm for career construction in the 21st century. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 75, 239–250.
- Savickas, M., & Porfeli, E. (2012). Career Adapt-Abilities Scale: Construction, reliability, and measurement equivalence across 13 countries. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 80, 661–673.
- Sienkiewicz, Ł. (2009). Elastyczność zawodowa Polaków jako determinanta decyzji zatrudnieniowych. [Professional flexibility of Poles as a determinant of employment decisions]. In M. Juchnowicz (Ed.), *Postawy Polaków wobec pracy w zarządzaniu kapitałem*

- ludzkim. [*Poles' attitudes towards work in human capital management*]. Kraków: Oficyna Wolters Kluwer Polska, 67–92.
- Standing, G. (2014). *Prekariat. Nowa niebezpieczna klasa*. [*The precariat. A new dangerous class*]. Warszawa: PWN.
- Taleb, N.N. (2013). *Antykruchłość. O rzeczach, którym służą wstrząsy*. [*Antifragility. About things that are used by shocks*]. Warszawa: Kurhaus.

## 2 Employee and the way of performing the personnel function

Among many types of risk in organisational management, the personnel risk is identified as specific. Its specificity derives from the fact that it concerns people who are one of organisational resources but simultaneously have their subjectivity and autonomy. This causes high unpredictability of employees' reactions and behaviours that hinders a real assessment of economic benefits achievable with their help (Lipka 2002). It can, therefore, be stated that efficient human resource management involves reducing this risk by selecting methods, tools and procedures so as to trigger expected actions of employees that are necessary to attain business objectives.

The examination of the evolution of approaches to the performance of the personnel function reveals that, over time, modifications have been made to how the organisation selects instruments for influencing employees and how the role of this resource in building a competitive advantage is perceived. It can be noted that employees are becoming more important, with a greater focus on an increasingly subjective approach. Initially, relationships were based on coercion and power. Subsequently, an approach began to develop that sought to understand the mechanisms of one's functioning within an organisation so as to include such mechanisms in the applied adequate impact instruments that would help achieve the desired effect, such as expected behaviours of employees. The emergence of the philosophy of human resources or the organisation's social potential led, *inter alia*, to the introduction of Management by Objectives (MBO), on the basis of knowledge, for example, about one's motivation for work. Creation of the human resource management process, therefore, takes into account and adapts to individuals' characteristics to a greater or lesser extent. In turn, this reduces personnel risk and increases organisational efficiency.

Another aspect that has evolved over the years is the economisation of human resource management. It results in an approach consistent with the philosophy of human capital, now treated as a competitive factor, which is a consequence of strategic adaptation to the environment (Hatch 2002). The organisation strives to obtain a set of competences that are not available to competitors and guarantee its survival in the market by satisfying customer needs (Obłój 2010).

The characteristics of the environment and the way in which the organisation decides to frame its relations with it determine the performance of the personnel function.

In response to the volatility and uncertainty of the environment in terms of complexity and pace, new rules have now emerged based on the pursuit of flexibility to make the time of the organisation's response to changing customer needs as short as possible, allowing a competitive advantage. A new role of the human resource department has arisen; it has become a strategic and business partner with tasks including adjusting employees' potential and qualifications to the organisation's needs in a way that permits economic goals to be achieved efficiently.

It should be noted, however, that this process applies to people who – as mentioned above – are autonomous and has its consequences. People are a different resource than money, which can be easily affected by all kinds of impacts. Management literature pays relatively much attention to making human resource management more flexible. Nonetheless, employees' reaction to this new situation is rather rarely studied and examined. Meanwhile, as mentioned above, for example, the effectiveness of organisational management impacts, indicated by the fact that the organisation will finally receive behaviours that it needs to remain in the market, depends on the adequacy of its impacts on employees' characteristics, value system and preferred motivators.

Therefore, knowledge about what is happening to employees in response to flexible management must not be ignored. What is of particular importance here is the professional development of individuals, which directly concerns their relations with employers, all the more so because it is reinforced by a number of social phenomena that cause, for instance, changes in value systems, for example, work-life balance.

Ignoring this knowledge may make the applied human resource management approaches, tools and methods outdated and incorrect. They may be ineffective, possibly even leading to dysfunctional employee behaviors for the organisation. These include, for example, employee loyalty, which is being increasingly signalled by employers as a serious problem (Świątek-Barylska 2013).

A shortage of knowledge about employees and mechanisms governing their behaviour may result in incomprehension of what is happening and increase personnel risk up to the level of reducing survival chances for the enterprise. The significance of this is further strengthened by the fact that many data indicate that the labour market is evolving towards the employee's market. Neglecting it while designing the human resource management process seems to be contrary to the pro-efficiency logic.

Accordingly, this monograph seeks to check what happens to those who directly experience the effects of flexible human resource management and what recommendations may ensue from this knowledge for boosting the efficiency of this process. Such an activity can be treated as a method of managing personnel risk of the organisation. The starting point here is the analysis of the

organisation's situation and implementation of management flexibility, along with the effects that this generates in employer–employee relations.

First and foremost, however, it involves the search for answers to the questions of whether flexible management is a choice or necessity and whether any attempts to limit these processes go against economic efficiency.

## **References**

- Hatch, M.J. (2002). *Teoria organizacji. [Organization theory]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Lipka, A. (2002). *Ryzyko personalne szanse i zagrożenia zarządzania zasobami ludzkimi. [Personal risk, opportunities and threats to human resource management]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Poltext.
- Oblój, K. (2010). *Pasja i dyscyplina strategii. Jak z marzeń i decyzji zbudować sukces firmy? [Passion and discipline of strategy. How to build a company's success from dreams and decisions?]*. Warszawa: Poltext.
- Świątek-Barylska, I. (2013). *Lojalność pracowników współczesnych organizacji. Istota i elementy składowe. [Employees loyalty of contemporary organizations. The essence and components]*. Łódź: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego.

# 3 Flexible human resource management

## Choice or necessity?

### 3.1 Organisational context shaping relations with employees: The role of strategic adaptation of the organisation to the environment

Put simply, it may be assumed that under free market conditions, the existence of a workplace is conditional upon the existence of an organisation that creates and finances this place. As long as the organisation operates in the market, it can continue offering jobs. Upon its demise, the workplace disappears. Employment opportunities may thus be presumed to depend on whether the enterprise has an economic justification for running its business and whether existing workplaces generate a profit that allows the enterprise to survive in the market. To this end, a strategic adaptation of the organisation to the environment is indispensable (Hatch 2002). Therefore, as A.L. Kalleberg (2009) argues, it is necessary to comprehend the changing organisational context shaping relations with employees.

Contemporary organisations are, quite specifically, faced with progressive volatility and unpredictability of their business environment. In terms of pace and complexity, these changes occur continuously, periodically or incidentally (Juchnowicz and Wojtczuk-Turek 2007).

It results in what A.K. Koźmiński (2013) terms generalised uncertainty. K.M. Eisenhardt and D.N. Sull note (as cited in: Osbert-Pociecha 2008) that enterprises are not able to avoid uncertainty; they have to “immerse,” as it were, in it. Consequently, to effectively compete in the market, they are forced to take actions in response to this phenomenon.

The reasons for this changeability are multifold, from globalisation to the development of modern technologies. Also, there are social changes underway. They concern the customer,<sup>1</sup> that is the figure of key significance for the existence of the enterprise, and are manifested in the evolution of the customer’s needs and expectations. While pursuing business goals, enterprises compete with each other to meet these needs and expectations. They use a variety of methods and areas to gain an advantage over other players in accessing customers, whose number is constantly growing due to the relatively declining costs of entering the market. Increasingly, “being competitive means maintaining

customers' interest and loyalty that allow the organisation to exist, and clients set higher and higher standards because new standards are becoming attainable owing to international competition" (Strykowska 2002, p. 16). Such activities determine the organisation's survival, thus ensuring the existence of the workplace. The strategic adaptation of the organisation to the environment is becoming crucial for employability, and delays in this regard may produce effects threatening the stability of the enterprise and, consequently, the workplace.

In view of the relative accessibility of resources such as technology and capital, which have ceased to be differentiating features that give an advantage, there is no other solution for organisations but to look for alternative areas to help them gain a competitive advantage.

Currently, human resource management is becoming such an area, with the HR department taking on the role of a business partner (Pawłowska 2013). It is assumed that the offer can be currently tailored to the changing needs of the customer thanks to appropriate competences of enterprise employees. These competences must bring about such a bundle of employee actions that will culminate in response to market demand.

The traditional paradigm of organisation management was hallmarked by the "orientation towards the inside of the organisation, compliance with the principle of division of labour and specialisation, respect for the hierarchy, extensive control and formalisation of activities" and "focused mainly on promoting productivity and limiting losses" no longer works under these conditions (Osbert-Pociecha 2008, p. 9). As a work system, Fordism is based on employee tasks set in a top-down fashion. The complex middle management level served to ensure efficient control over compliance with procedures. Consequently, organisations were unable to quickly change and react to the developments in their environment. This system is well-suited for the mass production of standard goods. Presently, we are going through the post-Fordism era that – being more adequate to market rules – is becoming the applicable management system (Giddens 2004).

### **3.2 The reistic concept of work in flexible human resource management**

The current situation in the organisational environment necessitates quick actions, and this triggers the need to "dynamically develop competences (of employees), gain appropriate knowledge that determines a quick response to the opportunities (chances) appearing in the environment. Of particular relevance here is the capability for and ease of making changes – intuitively equated with flexibility" (Osbert-Pociecha 2008, p. 9).

The flexibility of an organisation is its ability to respond to various requirements of a competitive environment (Ekelund and Pluta 2012). Flexibility is considered to be an economic category, serving to counteract the risk and uncertainty in the organisation's operations. It is connected with the internal capability to react to new situations (responsive aspect) and to bring about changes in the proactive

sense (Wojtczuk-Turek 2012). These changes contribute to the adaptation of the internal structure and processes of the organisation adequately to modifications in the environment.

J. Rymaniak (2012) distinguishes four levels of flexibility analysis. The first level concerns the very essence of the concept, related to the organisation's ability to change and adapt, and the second one – the causes (environment, market and demand) that trigger this kind of activity. In turn, the third level refers to what flexibility concerns, such as resources, products and systemic mechanisms. The last, fourth aspect covers the conditions for achieving flexibility, such as time, quality and cost-effectiveness relations.

This monograph discusses the third level of flexibility of human resources. This is also related to the fact that presently the flexibility in human resource management has gained significance and has been linked to the better financial performance of the enterprise (Bhattacharya et al. 2005, as cited in: Ekelund and Pluta 2012).

This link is clear when analysing the mechanism of organisational adaptation to the demand reported by customers. A.K. Koźmiński (2013) describes it in the following way:

Competition enforces speed and flexibility of reactions to changes in demand, technology, market environment, legal regulations, government actions, etc. Such reactions translate into the necessity to 'regroup forces', i.e. quickly replace some human resources with others. The key to the success in the competitive struggle is, of course, the speed of such a manoeuvre: getting rid of certain groups of employees and acquiring other people instead. (...) Under competitive conditions, this means that enterprises maintaining human resources that are not absolutely necessary lose the costly competitive advantage and risk being eliminated from the market or taken over by a stronger player capable of quickly and effectively carrying out a deep reduction of employment (...).

As a consequence, work as such is perceived completely differently than before. According to the earlier anthropomorphic approach, work was attributed to and associated exclusively with the human being. Nowadays, as J. Rymaniak (2012) argues, we are dealing with a reistic concept of work that

is an organisational system of conversion (transformation) of measurable components used (i.e. human capital, machines, buildings, structures, equipment, raw materials) (...), implemented in physical space and within scheduled time, into products defined by orders, in accordance with their technological standards and order specifications.

Work takes on the organisational dimension, and its role is to achieve the primary goal of a market organisation, which is profit. Work, therefore, serves to generate such effects that foster the attainment of business goals of the enterprise.

What is particularly important is that if these goals are achieved, the organisation's ability to create employment is maintained.

This relationship between the characteristics of the environment, the rules of competitiveness, the customer's needs and the enterprise's offer directly necessitates flexible management of work and, thereby, of its providers, that is employees. In a narrower sense, these issues are reduced to a higher or lower demand for labour only. However, this is an oversimplification, as shown in the model by P.M. Wright and S.A. Snell (1998, as cited in: Ekelund and Pluta 2012). According to this model, the flexibility of the human resource management process refers to three related components. The first one is the ability of the entire human resource management system and its subsystems, such as recruitment and selection, remuneration, evaluation and training systems, etc., to respond to the employment needs of the organisation. It is about the ability to quickly modify procedures and methods used, to adapt and implement them. The response time of personnel services and the progress of human resource management processes determine the potential to develop an offer in response to the customer's needs, which becomes a source of competitive advantage for the enterprise.

The second component of flexible human resource management concerns the type and level of competences possessed by the human capital of the organisation. This aspect will be discussed in more detail later in this monograph. Finally, the third area is the cognitive-behavioural flexibility of employees, that is their repertoire of behavioural scripts, which employees can apply adequately to the evolving situation. They determine their capability to adapt, ability to respond and behave as required under given circumstances and in line with the employer's expectations (Bhattacharya et al. 2005, as cited in: Ekelund and Pluta 2012).

Juchnowicz and Wojtczuk-Turek (2007) as well as Ł. Sienkiewicz (2009) relate flexibility directly to employees, distinguishing four aspects of managing them. These embrace the functional aspect, decisive for the ability to perform various tasks and functions, and the financial one, which signifies employees' acceptance of fluctuations in the level of remuneration. For the considerations presented here, the quantitative and qualitative flexibility of human resource management is particularly meaningful.

From a quantitative point of view, flexibility of human resource serves to solve the problem of growing demand for labour in terms of productivity, which may arise from the increase in demand for the current offer of the enterprise. The quantitative flexibility of human resource management leads to the emergence of new forms of employment, such as outsourcing, work contracting, temporary employment contracts, part-time employment, odd jobs, on-call work, homeworking and telecommuting (Strykowska 2003).

The situation is somewhat different when the enterprise's offer expires and there is no demand for it. Then, the organisation needs to modify its offer, for example based on new technologies, in order to draw the customer's attention to it. To this end, appropriate, new employee skills are necessary. The organisation

may choose between two approaches: either the current employees will receive training, or they will be derecruited, and the organisation will subsequently acquire new people with required skills in the labour market. Time is an important criterion here. Organisations may not have enough time to develop new skills (Strykowska 2003). Furthermore, the training of the current workforce can be so cost-intensive that it will be economically unviable and bring down competitiveness. Here arises the aspect of the qualitative flexibility of human resource management, expressed by the organisation's capacity to update the competence portfolio of its employees.

M.Y. Mustapha and S.M. Bunian (2012, as cited in: de Guzman and Choi 2013) point to the general phenomenon of certain competences becoming out-of-date and the emergence of new ones as a consequence of challenges, a high rate of technological development and globalisation. Combined with shorter production cycles, more frequent strategy changes and activities of growing competition, certain competences are becoming unnecessary and obsolete. Therefore, as F. Civelli notes, the labour market is transforming into the competence market (as cited in: Sienkiewicz 2009).

It should, however, be borne in mind that enterprises' strategies, giving high potential to respond to uncertain and volatile market conditions, support their chances of surviving in the market. More importantly, as a consequence, the organisation is able to offer jobs, although probably not always the same ones and not for the same employees. Without this flexible approach, jobs could completely disappear along with the employer-enterprise.

### **3.3 Segmentation of workforce according to Ch. Handy: core and peripheral workers**

The described impacts do not, of course, equally affect all employees of the organisation. According to Ch. Handy, a specific segmentation of the workforce takes place in organisations. To illustrate this process, Ch. Handy uses a metaphor of a shamrock with leaves corresponding to individual groups of employees identified according to the criterion of their suitability in terms of achievement of business objectives of the enterprise (Obłój 2010; Świątek-Barylska 2013). The first group includes professionals and specialists, core workers who have knowledge about the organisation and the scope of competences that distinguish the organisation from the competition. This group comprises highly qualified managerial, specialist and technical staff. At the same time, it is the most valuable and the least numerous employee group whose retention is crucial for the organisation.

Contract workers are hired to perform secondary tasks that do not call for special skills. The third group comprises peripheral, flexible staff with low qualifications; their constant presence is not necessary for the enterprise to operate. They perform auxiliary functions and are relatively easily replaceable. This segment of employees of a given organisation is developing at an increasing pace. It is supported by the process of flattening organisational structures, which leads to

a decrease in the number of mid-level management jobs (Strykowska 2002). In addition, in many enterprises, turnover has increased at least four times over the last 10 years, while the number of employees in the core group has been halved. It emerges that if we break down the offered product or service into fundamental components, 80% of their value is contributed by people from outside the organisation (Handy 1998). Organisations may, therefore, be interested in long-term employment, but only of a select group of employees with core competences. They cannot ensure employment stability for others (Ratajczak 2007; Świątek-Barylska 2013).

Hence, human resource management in modern organisations entails, among others, a skilful determination of the number and quality of these groups-segments that make up the staff. These groups play different roles and have dissimilar attitudes towards the organisation. Therefore, they require the use of adequate management methods. Hence, the aforementioned necessity to take account of what is happening on the part of employees in developing the human resource management process so that these impacts are effective and bring the expected results in the form of required business behaviours. Activities in this area are also vital because flexibility, particularly in human resource management, raises new types of risk. This process cannot be escalated without limitations, and thus doubts appear about the optimal level of flexibility for maintaining the efficient operation of the organisation (Giermanowska 2013).

The question arises whether the described phenomena really exist and to what extent. According to EUROSTAT data for 2012 derived from the Labour Force Survey, temporary employees accounted, on average, for 13.7% of the total workforce in the European Union countries. The rate is the highest in Poland, where as much as 26.8% of workers are temporary employees. Other countries with a high rate of temporary employment are Spain (23.7%), Portugal (20.7%) and the Netherlands (19.3%). On the other hand, the lowest percentage of temporary employees is reported in Romania (1.7%), Lithuania (2.6%) and Estonia (3.5%).

Another proof corroborating the development of flexibility is the growing interest in the services of agencies specialising in employee leasing as well as seasonal, fixed-term, occasional, additional and temporary work. The image of these agencies has improved significantly in recent years (Leighton et al. 2010).

Moreover, according to the data from the Central Statistical Office (GUS), at the end of 2014, the number of self-employed Poles, that is persons who pay health insurance contributions for themselves only, increased to nearly 1.37 million, while in 2013, the number of self-employed stood at 1.1 million. This is deemed to be the result of the tendency for enterprises to increase their employment flexibility, which means departing from permanent employment.<sup>2</sup> What is more, according to the report by Hay Group, an international personnel consulting company, the requirement of employee flexibility will become more commonplace (Hay Group 2011). Not only flexible management of the organisation is the reason for these phenomena. G. Standing (2014, p. 95) refers to the data which indicate that a third of the employee turnover is brought about by

the establishment and winding up of enterprises. According to the Labour Market Monitor (Merson 2011), in Poland, almost one in three respondents changed their job within the 6 months preceding the survey, and in a third of cases, the change was due to the enterprise's restructuring, not the employee's personal initiative.

Flexible human resource management is already a fact. The dynamics of the work environment is high, although not all are equally affected by its impacts. Also, opinions about the intensity and scope of these impacts may vary. Employees are probably responding to them as well. Social consequences are already being noticed and assessed differently, as signalled in the next chapter.

### **3.4 Selected approaches to the consequences of flexible human resource management: the views of neo-luddites and anti-luddites, and flexicurity**

The search for adaptive behaviours of employees, in a sense, depends on the overall assessment of flexible human resource management. If the assessment is negative, the search should be limited, while if this approach is deemed reasonable, it entails the need to look for adaptive solutions.

In the sociological trend, there are two exemplary polarised approaches to the effects of flexible human resource management. This is also the case when the views of neo-luddites and anti-luddites are compared.

According to J. Rifkin, a representative of neo-luddites, new technologies are displacing human work, as evidenced by the fact that unemployment is growing, and yet the overall productivity of enterprises is on the rise. Hence, Rifkin announces the end of work, which is becoming a rare good and the uncertainty of its possession is increasing. It brings about a number of unfavourable social phenomena and carries the risk of a revolt by the most affected parties. According to the Neo-Luddites, the activities of enterprises – culprits should be limited.

Meanwhile, the Anti-Luddite R.B. Reich claims that

paranoid populists who say global corporations and international capitalists are conspiring against us are deluded, possibly hallucinating. We – you and I and most Americans – are benefiting mightily from the new economy. We are reaping the gains of its new inventions, its lower prices, its fierce competition.

(2002, p. 8, as cited in: Morawski 2003)

Therefore, he postulates “the need to balance the requirements of the new work with the requirements of the new life under the conditions of the new economy” (Morawski 2003, p. 246). Hence, there is no unambiguous interpretation of these phenomena.

Seeking a compromise between business realities and employees' needs is a combination of social justice and organisational efficiency. Here appears the concept of flexicurity (a portmanteau of flexibility and security), as mentioned

by M. Juchnowicz (2012) and Ł. Sienkiewicz (as cited in: Juchnowicz 2014). It lends support to individuals who have trouble finding themselves in new realities of the labour market and simultaneously accepting the need to strive for organisational flexibility. Several ways of dealing with this situation have been worked out, which results in the development of various models of labour market within the European Union.

The continental model (France, Belgium) offers support for the unemployed, and the Mediterranean model (Spain, Italy and Greece) expands the pension system. The Anglo-Saxon model (Great Britain, Ireland and Portugal) offers assistance to the unemployed, but with weaker trade unions and decentralisation. In the Nordic system (Sweden, Denmark, Norway, Finland and the Netherlands), the system of assistance for the unemployed is highly developed, with a simultaneous, strongly enforced condition of their participation in the training process (Szaban 2011).

However, this does not change the fact that economic and legal support does not solve other socio-psychological problems. Seen from this perspective, employees are subject to the process of externalisation, they are being pushed into the external labour market, and the responsibility for maintaining employment and competence and professional development will be shifted from organisations to employees (Bańka 2006). This breaks the social ties of the workplace and violates the feeling of professional identity of individuals. Concerns about the consequences of this situation and the new resulting threats are expressed by U. Beck (Morawski 2003), who points out that individualisation can lead to social disintegration. R. Sennett (2006), warns against the loss of values, such as commitment and loyalty that are of significance for interpersonal relations.

The main source of such problems, in the opinion of M. Dobrzyński (2012), is neoliberalism, which spreads the conviction of the only right direction of economic development based on economic freedom and a self-regulating market. Consequently, short-term employees and the self-employed experience a lack of continuity and a lack of sense of work and remain in permanent danger.

Regardless of the assessment of these phenomena, there is no doubt that there have been changes in the work environment that should be taken into account. These changes may be analysed at various levels. This monograph focuses on the foundation of the employee-employer relationship, which is a psychological contract.

## Notes

- 1 Since it is the recipient of the enterprise's offer that is involved, the term "customer" is used in lieu of "consumer" although the latter – with their inclination to consumption and needs – is very important for the functioning of modern organisations and cannot be neglected.
- 2 Retrieved from: <http://biznes.onet.pl/praca/prawo-pracy/coraz-trudniej-o-etat/sg0p4>

## References

- Bańka, A. (2006). Kapitał kariery – uwarunkowania, rozwój i adaptacja do zmian organizacyjnych oraz strukturalnych rynku pracy. [Career capital - conditions, development and adaptation to organizational and structural changes in the labor market]. In Z. Ratajczak, A. Bańka, & E. Turska (Eds.), *Współczesna psychologia pracy i organizacji [Contemporary work and organization psychology]*. Katowice: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego, 59–117.
- De Guzman, B.A., & Ok Choi, K. (2013). The relations of employability skills to career adaptability among technical school students. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 82, 199–207.
- Dobrzyński, M. (2012). *Doktryna szoku jako inspiracja współczesnego zarządzania. [The shock doctrine as an inspiration for contemporary management]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe WZ UW.
- Ekelund, B.Z., & Pluta, P. (2012). Diversity icebreaker – trening elastycznego zarządzania różnorodnością. [Diversity icebreaker - training for flexible diversity management]. In S.A. Witkowski, & M. Stor (Eds.), *Sukces w zarządzaniu kadrami. Elastyczność w zarządzaniu kapitałem ludzkim. Volume 2. Problemy zarządczo-psychologiczne. [The success in human resources management. Flexibility in managing human capital. Volume 2. Management and psychological problems]*. Wrocław: Uniwersytet Ekonomiczny, 263–272.
- Giddens, A. (2004). *Socjologia. [Sociology]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Giermanowska, E. (2013). *Ryzyko elastyczności czy elastyczność ryzyka? Instytucjonalna analiza kontraktów zatrudnienia. [The risk of flexibility or the flexibility of risk? Institutional analysis of employment contracts]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Warszawskiego.
- Handy, Ch. (1998). *Wiek przezwyciężonego rozumu. [The age of the overcome reason]*. Warszawa: Business Press.
- Hatch, M.J. (2002). *Teoria organizacji. [Organization theory]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Hay Group (2011). Building the new leader. Leadership challenges of the future revealed. <http://www.haygroup.com/Leadership2030/> (accessed: 12.12.2016).
- Juchnowicz, M. (2012). *Zaangażowanie pracowników. Sposoby oceny i motywowania. [The employee engagement. The ways to evaluate and motivate]*. Warszawa: PWE.
- Juchnowicz, M. (2014). *Satysfakcja zawodowa pracowników. Kreator kapitału ludzkiego. [The professional satisfaction of employees. The creator of human capital]*. Warszawa: PWE.
- Juchnowicz, M., & Wojtczuk-Turek, A. (Eds.). (2007). *Elastyczne zarządzanie kapitałem ludzkim w organizacji wiedzy. [The flexible human capital management in the organization of knowledge]*. Warszawa: Difin.
- Kalleberg, A.L. (2009, February). Precarious work insecure workers: Employment relations in transition. *American Sociological Review*, 74(1), 1–22). doi: 10.1177/000312240907400101
- Koźmiński, A.K. (2013). *Zarządzanie w warunkach niepewności. [The management in conditions of uncertainty]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Leighton, P., Syrett, M., Hecker, R., & Holland, P. (2010). *Nowoczesne formy zatrudnienia. [Modern forms of employment]*. Warszawa: Oficyna a Wolters Kluwer business.
- Merson, M. (2011). Przygotowani do zmian i elastyczni na rynku pracy – pracownicy w badaniu Monitor Rynku Pracy Randstad. [Prepared for changes and flexible on the labor market - employees in the Randstad Labor Market Monitor survey]. <http://rynekpracy.org/wiadomosc/637386.html> (accessed: 15.01.2017).

- Morawski, W. (2003). Niepewność w świecie pracy. Sondażowe badania konsekwencji globalizacji. [The uncertainty in the world of work. Survey research on the consequences of globalization]. In K. Doktor, K. Konecki, & W. Warzywoda-Kruszyńska (Eds.), *Praca. Gospodarka. Społeczeństwo. [Work. Economy. Society]*. Łódź: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego, 40–52.
- Obłój, K. (2010). *Pasja i dyscyplina strategii. Jak z marzeń i decyzji zbudować sukces firmy? [The passion and discipline of strategy. How to build a company's success from dreams and decisions?]*. Warszawa: Poltext.
- Osbert-Pociecha, G. (2008). Elementy teorii elastyczności organizacji. [The elements of organization flexibility theory]. In R. Krupski (Ed.), *Elastyczność organizacji. [Organization flexibility]*. Wrocław: WUE, 55–65.
- Pawłowska, A. (2013). Potencjał społeczny organizacji i strategia personalna. [Social potential of the organization and personnel strategy]. In J. Bogdanienko, & W. Piotrowski (Eds.), *Zarządzanie. Tradycja i nowoczesność. [Management. Tradition and modernity]*. Warszawa: PWE, 329–347.
- Ratajczak, Z. (2007). *Psychologia pracy i organizacji. [Work and organization psychology]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Rymaniak, J. (2012). Elastyczność jako wymiar reistycznej koncepcji pracy. [Flexibility as a dimension of a reistic concept of work]. In S. A. Witkowski, & M. Stor (Eds.), *Sukces w zarządzaniu kadrami. Elastyczność w zarządzaniu kapitałem ludzkim. Volume 2. Problemy zarządczo-psychologiczne. [Success in human resources management. Flexibility in managing human capital. Volume 2. Management and psychological problems]*. Wrocław: Uniwersytet Ekonomiczny, 36–44.
- Sennett, R. (2006). *Korozyja charakteru. [The character corrosion]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Muza.
- Sienkiewicz, Ł. (2009). Elastyczność zawodowa Polaków jako determinanta decyzji zatrudnieniowych. [The professional flexibility of Poles as a determinant of employment decisions]. In M. Juchnowicz (Ed.), *Postawy Polaków wobec pracy w zarządzaniu kapitałem ludzkim. [Poles' attitudes towards work in human capital management]*. Kraków: Oficyna Wolters Kluwer Polska, 67–92.
- Standing, G. (2014). *Prekariat. Nowa niebezpieczna klasa. [The precariat. A new dangerous class]*. Warszawa: PWN.
- Strykowska, M. (2002). Zawód-praca-kariera. Dynamika zmian w funkcjonowaniu współczesnych organizacji. [The occupation-job-career. Dynamics of changes in the functioning of contemporary organizations]. In M. Strykowska (Ed.), *Współczesne organizacje – wyzwania i zagrożenia. Perspektywa psychologiczna. [Contemporary organizations – challenges and threats. The psychological perspective]*. Poznań: Wydawnictwo Fundacji Humaniora, 15–34.
- Strykowska, M. (2003). Adaptacja do przeobrażeń na rynku pracy. [The adaptation to transformations in the labour market]. In *Acta Universitatis Nicolais Copernici. Socjologia wychowania. [Acta Universitatis Nicolais Copernici. The sociology of education]*. 15 (360). Toruń: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu M. Kopernika, 3–12.
- Świątek-Barylska, I. (2013). *Lojalność pracowników współczesnych organizacji. Istota i elementy składowe. [The loyalty of employees of modern organizations. The essence and components]*. Łódź: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego.
- Szaban, J.M. (2011). *Zarządzanie zasobami ludzkimi w biznesie i administracji publicznej. Rynek pracy, dobór, ocena, rozwój i kariera, odejścia z pracy. [The human resource management in business and public administration. The labor market, selection, evaluation, development and career, leaving jobs]*. Warszawa: Difin.

- Wojtczuk-Turek, A. (2012). Elastyczność organizacyjna i indywidualna a zachowania innowacyjne w miejscu pracy – empiryczna analiza zależności. [Organizational and individual flexibility and innovative behavior in the workplace - empirical dependency analysis]. *Prace Naukowe Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego we Wrocławiu* [Research Papers of Wrocław University of Economics], 249, 247–259.

## 4 New employer-employee relations

### The transactional, instead of relational, psychological contract

#### 4.1 The concept and types of psychological contracts

Thus far, this monograph has presented factors inherent in the changing environment of the organisation that affect the way the personnel function is implemented. The desire to make human resource management more flexible, a sign of adaptation to these factors, has made organisations apply solutions that have altered relations between the employer and the employee. First and foremost, the repertoire of mutual expectations and obligations that existed until now has been modified on both sides. Referring to the theory of organisational behaviour, it can be stated that there has been a change in psychological contracts concluded, besides formal and legal agreements, between the two entities involved in a relation in the organisation (Makin et al. 2000). The theoretical construct of a psychological contract first appeared in the works by Ch. Argyris, and in the theory of organisation – in the works by E. Schein (Adamska 2011).

The current definition of D. Rousseau and M. Greller, with regard to employees, embodies their perceptions of expectations that the employer has towards them and the expected reactions of the employer to specific employee behaviours (Rousseau 2001, as cited in: Wellin 2010). The psychological contract organises information in the form of a cognitive schema. The content of the schema defines the goals and expectations regarding a given situation. It comprises behaviour patterns of appropriate reactions and actions in line with mutual expectations and goals of the employee and the employer (Adamska 2011). From these behaviour patterns ensues the content of scripts regarding patterns of interaction and the rules they follow.

As a subject of research, the psychological contract is a complex and ambiguous variable that is difficult to operationalise. According to K.J. McInnis et al. (2009), research analyses three aspects of the psychological contract regarding the evaluation, features and content of relations formed within its framework. The first two aspects will be presented briefly, with more attention devoted to the third element since it is important for the presented issues.

The evaluation of the psychological contract represents a frequently researched area. In addition to the employee's emotional attitude, this aspect concerns the extent to which the parties honour or break unwritten mutual obligations.

The consequences of the psychological contract breach and its importance, for example, job satisfaction are quite widely discussed in studies (Bańka et al. 2010; Cassar and Briner 2011; Conway et al. 2011; Lapointe et al. 2013).

Another aspect of research on the psychological contract concerns the features of relations that shape as a result of the contract. In their research, McInnis et al. (2009) included nine dimensions to describe psychological contracts: explicitness (explicit – implicit), flexibility (flexible – static, permanent), formality (formal contract – trust-based contract), level (individual, tailored to needs – collective, team), negotiation (negotiated – imposed), scope (narrow – broad), symmetry (equal, partnership – unequal, subordination), tangibility (tangible – intangible expectations) and time frame (short-term – long-term).

Finally, from the point of view of these considerations, it is crucial to analyse the content of the psychological contract, which comprises the conditions and specific obligations that the parties agree on. D.M. Rousseau (2001, as cited in: Adamska 2011) proposed the following four types of psychological contracts: relational, transactional, balanced and transitional. In this monograph, the analysis will focus on the first two types of contracts because they bring about the differences in the current situation of employees compared to the situation they dealt with in the past. This will allow formulating the basis for analysing employees' reactions to the rules of flexible management, which in turn is the goal of the monograph. The shift from long-term to short-term employment changes the content of psychological contracts to which employees were accustomed or passed on to them by the environment during professional socialisation. A modification of the rules should trigger behaviour changes whose direction can be predicted through a closer analysis of existing psychological contracts.

The first one, which is just becoming a thing of the past, is the relational psychological contract. It has elements typical of community ties<sup>1</sup> (Bolesta-Kukułka 2003). The prevailing attitude here is the focus on long-term employment and meeting the mutual needs of the employer and the employee. The main values are loyalty and stability, and relations are generally paternalistic, with an emphasis on maintaining unity with the organisation.

The transactional contract in a pure form reflects a market-based approach (Bolesta-Kukułka 2003). A para-economic exchange of services takes place between the employer and the employee within a strictly defined scope of duties and tasks of both parties. A violation of the balance in terms of contributions and benefits may result in an immediate break of contacts (Adamska 2011).

Table 4.1 shows the differences between the two types of psychological contracts.

The introduction of the principles of flexible human resource management “turned upside down” the rules that underlay the existing relations between the employer and the employee, first of all in terms of their content.

According to A.L. Kalleberg (2009) “employment contracts vary between transactional (short-term, market based) and relational (long-term, organisational)”

Particular attention is paid to the ICT sector, where traditional, paternalistic relations between the employee and the employer are being replaced by more

*Table 4.1* Comparison of the Employer-Employee Relations Depending on the Type of Psychological Contract

<i>Psychological contract component</i>	<i>Psychological contract</i>	
	<i>Relational contract</i>	<i>Transactional contract</i>
Basis for shaping relations with the employer	Job security for loyalty	Position on the labour market for performance and possibility of continuous learning; job to be done, similar to B2B
Number of workplaces	One or two enterprises	Multiple enterprises
Competences	Enterprise-specific and consistent with enterprise needs	transferable, usable in other organisations
Measure of success	Remuneration, promotion, status	Psychological meaning of work
Responsibility for professional development	Rests with the organisation	Rests with the individual
Loyalty	Employee to employer	Employee to profession
Stages of development	Determined by age	Depending on the advancement of possessed skills
Job security	Depends on employer decision	Depends on individual employability

Compiled by the Author of this Monograph and on the Basis of Sullivan 1999, pp. 457–484.

partner and flexible rules at faster a rate than in many other sectors, which results in a greater temporariness (Van der Heijden et al. 2006).

Alongside the ongoing pursuit for organisational flexibility, the relation based on transactional rules is becoming more and more visible. This is evidenced by employee behaviours on the labour market. I. Świątek-Barylska (2013) quotes E. Altman as saying that 20–30 years ago in the United States people, worked on average for two or three employers throughout their professional life, while currently – for around 10–12. According to Eurobarometer studies, in Poland, the average time of working for one employer is 12 years.<sup>2</sup> However, the Sedlak & Sedlak report shows that half of the Polish workers are employed by one employer for less than four years (Pokrywka 2012).

Although the research sample does not faithfully correspond to the structure of the Polish society, and the majority of respondents are younger people, it seems that the findings indicate a tendency for working time for one employer to be getting shorter and shorter.

This trend is confirmed by I. Świątek-Barylska (2013), who presents study findings demonstrating that among the Polish employees, 71% of respondents agree with the opinion that work for one employer for lifetime is a thing of the past.

It should be pointed out at this stage that the scope of the presented phenomena is difficult to assess due to a frequent problem stemming from the application of the inconsistent methodology in analyses, which manifests itself, for example, in various research institutions applying differently defined indicators (this will be discussed in more detail in the methodological part of the monograph). Therefore, for example, the studies by EUROSTAT, the Institute of Applied Social Sciences, Randstad, POLPAN or the Institute of Labour and Social Studies are hard to compare. Nevertheless, they are used in this monograph to at least present the actual occurrence of the phenomena described.

It should be clearly emphasised that a change of the psychological contract from relational to transactional does not depend on the legal form of the agreement concluded between the employer and the employee. As mentioned earlier, in addition to flexible employment contracts, this also includes full-time employees. Their employment is no longer long-term, though perhaps longer than in the case of typical fixed-term contracts.

Summing up, at this stage of considerations, within the framework of the psychological contract, the entities involved in the employment relation, i.e. the employer and the employee, proceed to cooperate according to their more or less conscious perceptions of mutual obligations and expectations. They are, therefore, perceptions of entities involved in the relation of their mutual rights and obligations. It is worth analysing the changes in the type of mutual obligations and expectations. S.E. Sullivan (1999) presents their nature as follows. Working in accordance with the rules and principles of the old (relational) psychological contract, employees exchanged loyalty (they committed to it) for job security (they expected it). Under a new (transactional) contract, employees exchange performance (committing to it) for the possibility of continuous learning and improvement of their bargaining position in the external labour market (which is their expectation). This change, in the opinion of Sullivan, results in decreased job security, reduced employee loyalty and increasing “worker cynicism” (as cited in Sullivan 1999).

With reference to the foregoing, the next part will present an analysis of three elements of psychological contracts: job security, training process and loyalty, taking into account the employer’s offer and the employee’s reaction. These are assumed to be the main (though not the only) sources of difficulty in cooperation between employers and employees, which create mutual tensions impeding co-functioning. Dynamic and constant changes occur in this area; in response to them, new, polar opposite phenomena simultaneously emerge, as reflected in chapter titles that both confirm and negate their occurrence.

## **4.2 Main components of the psychological contract and changes occurring in them**

### **4.2.1 *Job (in)security***

The process of managing human resources, which was implemented in the setting of a traditional relational psychological contract, was based on the

application of solutions that worked well when the employee offered loyalty and continued working in the organisation in return for a sense of job security. Hence, the key to managing employees was to give them that sense of security, which perpetuated the paternalistic rules of mutual relations and guaranteed balance. What happens, however, when the employee can no longer count on it and feels a sense of job insecurity, for example, in case the principles of flexible human resource management are implemented?

In the theory of management, according to Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (2010), research on job insecurity began in 1950–1960 and covered mainly employees of the industrial sector, which was subject to business cycles and seasonally regulated the level of employment, which is close to today's flexible management.

At that time, no link was seen between employees' sense of job insecurity and motivation, commitment to the organisation or effectiveness. These dependencies were only noticed in the subsequent decades when solutions aimed at increasing short-term effectiveness, for example, downsizing, were introduced. It became then necessary to understand and properly manage job insecurity in order to control its effects. Formulated by L. Greenhalgh and Z. Rosenblatt in 1984, the definition of "job insecurity" stated that it was "perceived powerlessness to maintain desired continuity in a threatened job situation" (Widerszal-Bazyl 2007, p. 9). The limitations of this definition appeared upon the launch of more in-depth research on the construction of instruments measuring the level of insecurity. Job insecurity was initially treated as a fear of losing a job. Currently, it is assumed, as proposed by S. Ashford et al. (1989; also Mauno et al. 2001; Wojtczuk-Turek 2012), that job insecurity is multidimensional in nature and embraces insecurity about losing the job, insecurity about losing specific benefits of the job and a sense of powerlessness to prevent it (Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt 2010).

Job insecurity is nowadays becoming a permanent element of the employer-employee relation. According to P. Leighton et al. (2010)

From this disillusionment with the past has emerged a new social culture less dependent on sustained contact with a single workplace. [...] eighteen- to twenty-five-year-olds born after 1980 are the first generation that wholly lacks the psychological baggage of a post-Second World War contract, based on a guaranteed job for life and pension.

This situation has the consequences that affect, first and foremost, the employees.

According to P. O'Neill and P. Sevastos (2013), the past two decades have witnessed a growing interest from academics and practitioners in job insecurity as one of the most important stressors in modern professional life. The survey, conducted among the member countries of the Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development (OECD), indicates that the perception and the sense of job insecurity are rising continuously and steadily. Researchers have found a negative association between job insecurity and job satisfaction and, in

general, mental and physical health (O'Neill and Sevastos 2013). According to M. Strykowska (2002, p. 21),

there appears a term 'stressing economy' according to which people are to adapt to the market and not the other way around. Stressing economy makes people sick with insecurity, makes them treated like a disposable [good] according to the needs of the enterprise.

In Poland, M. Widerszal-Bazyl (2007) conducts research on job insecurity as a stressor and its effects on individuals. She has shown a connection between insecurity and mental and physical health, as well as negative effects on self-esteem and job satisfaction. Morawski (2003) analyses insecurity in the work environment as a consequence of globalisation.

The findings indicate a very negative assessment of the effects of flexible human resource management. A more in-depth and broader analysis of research findings demonstrates that they are not so unambiguous. Employees are aware that working for one employer throughout their lifetime is a thing of the past, but this "does not translate into a feeling of lack of stability at work" (Świątek-Barylska 2013, p. 135). What is more, there is a group of employees who "not only no longer expect a job for lifetime from the employer, but they are not interested in such a job" (Świątek-Barylska 2013, p. 209). For example, a sense of security was ranked at the bottom of the list of factors determining the choice of the first job. One of the main critics of flexible management of human resources – G. Standing (2014) – also points to this, stating that some prefer to be "travellers" and, therefore, not all should be seen as victims of enterprises' profit-driven attitude. P. Leighton et al. (2010, p. 40) confirm this, referring to the Goldman Sachs report, which

found that although 40 per cent of temps were temping because they could not find a permanent job, 26 per cent were gaining work experience and 13 per cent stated they were 'between jobs', some 21 per cent wanted to work flexibly, 'work for different employers and have different experiences.'

In interesting studies on a large representative sample of UK employees, D. Guest and N. Conway (2004, as cited in: Gerber et al. 2009) found that 24.5% of respondents preferred a professional career based on a transactional contract, while 35.8% of respondents wanted to work in traditional conditions, corresponding to a relational contract.<sup>3</sup>

This means that there are people who are able to achieve a sense of job security in these realities or at least limit its destructive effects. According to M. Strykowska (2002), there may also be positive effects of job insecurity, such as the pursuit of self-improvement and mobility. It is crucial to see this side of the situation, especially when facing the inevitability of certain phenomena and the need to deal with them, and they seem to include flexible human resource management. According to S. Jeffers (2004, p. 13), there were many people

before us who proved that life can be wonderful despite uncertainty; there are even those who have managed to prove that life can be great thanks to uncertainty.

The presented monograph is aimed at identifying those behaviours and mechanisms that allow employees to create adaptive activity in new realities of the labour market with the effect in a form of a sense of job security. As can be seen, there are reasons to believe that there already exists a group of employees in the labour market that reaches this state. It is also visible that not everyone is equally concerned with the problem of job insecurity. At the organisational level, it depends on the type of segment (from the mentioned typology of Ch. Handy) to which the employee belongs. According to I. Świątek-Barylska (2013), managers work for 5–6 years with one employer, specialists and regular employees for about 3 years. In addition, the level of acceptance of short-term employment depends on the age and education of the employee. In the group of younger people, there are far more people who can accept short-term employment, just as highly qualified professionals do. Finally, the factor particularly determining the attitudes towards the transactional psychological contract is the free will in choosing the formula of professional functioning or the compulsion to take specific actions on the labour market as a response to changes in the process of human resource management (Gerber et al. 2009).

#### **4.2.2 Vocational (un)training**

As outlined earlier, flexible human resource management results from the need to manage the portfolio of competences of organisations that age as the needs of business customers change and modern technologies develop. The use of the hire-and-fire principle by organisations (Giddens 2004) is a manifestation of the progressive externalisation of employees. It involves a shift of responsibility for updating and developing professional competences from the organisation to the employee (Bridges 1995; Watts 1996, as cited in: Flum et al. 2000).

This leads to the intended ‘pushing’ people out to the external labour market, getting rid by the employer of direct responsibility for the individual, while at the same time saddling the individual with responsibility for present and future professional development.

(Bańka 2006, p. 78)

Therefore, in addition to job security, the second expectation of the employee, guaranteed in the relational psychological contract, which cannot be fulfilled in flexibly managed organisations, is the need to develop professional skills.

The research carried out at the request of the Polish Agency for Enterprise Development (PARP) as part of the Human Capital Balance in 2014 shows that in Poland, only 46% of enterprises from the SME sector constantly invest in employee development, and 69% do so as accidental, short-term activity (Oreł 2014).

It should be explicitly stated that decisions about employee training are determined mainly by deficits in the key competences in the organisation that threaten the achievement of its business goals (Pawłowska 2013). Investing in the development of employees serves only the interests of the enterprise, which means that the employee “may spend years acquiring qualifications and then find they have become obsolescent or insufficient.” That is why “It is not just a case of being as good as you were yesterday but of being as good as you should be tomorrow” (Standing 2014, p. 250).

Except that another problem emerges at this point, which S. O’Mahony and B.A. Bechky (2006) called the career progression paradox. Employees come across this paradox when they try to get a job to develop skills in new areas, but they find out that employers prefer those who already have the required skills. Employers have little motivation to offer work in which one can learn, and employees have a very high motivation to improve their repertoire of skills and their bargaining position in the labour market. This makes a hardly optimistic picture of the situation. According to the IPISS report, Poland’s indicator of participation in continuing vocational training (CVT) is lower than the EU27 average. This means that Polish enterprises are hardly inclined to invest in the professional skills of their employees (Kryńska and Arendt 2015). Poland then is facing a severe situation in the labour market marked by a conflict of interests and training goals. Perhaps the solution is what G. Standing (2014) proposes. He introduces the concept of “training – for – labour.” In his opinion, due to the pace at which professional skills get outdated, employees should devote 15% of their time to acquiring new skills every year.

Thus, the problem of responsibility for the professional development process is the second important area of change that is associated with a transactional contract being formed between the employer and the employee. Finding a solution in this respect is important for the formation of pro-effective behaviours and cooperation between the parties. Under such circumstances, the employee adaptive behaviour will consist in organising an individual professional development plan and ways to implement it (Kasprzak and Rajang 2006). Thus, employees will regain what they lost along with the relational psychological contract.

#### **4.2.3 Employee (dis)loyalty**

The operation of the psychological contract is based on the fact that the employee has certain expectations, and the satisfaction of these expectations triggers employee behaviours associated with obligations. As outlined above, employee expectations that are appropriate for the relational psychological contract cannot be met. The natural reaction, therefore, is that employees do not activate behaviours that they should feel obliged to. Therefore, employers are increasingly reporting a serious problem, namely the lack of employee loyalty. According to the American consulting agency Center for Work-Life Policy, the proportion of employees who are loyal to their employers went down from 95%

to 39%, and the proportion of employees who trust them fell from 79% to 22% (Standing 2014).

The survey of employees in Polish enterprises (Świątek-Barylska 2013) shows that respondents indicated a decrease in loyalty during the last year. A decline in the level of loyalty was pointed to by more than half of the respondents, while only slightly more than 20% indicated an increase in loyalty.

The question arises whether employee loyalty is disappearing completely. In this case, likewise in the previous ones, we are dealing with the ambiguity of this situation. To present this, we should go back to square one. In the relational psychological contract, employee loyalty results from the guarantee of care from the employer in all areas of employees' professional life. It was loyalty for security, understood as "the perceived likelihood of an employee continuing work in the organisation with more or less emotional commitment (...)" (Lipka et al. 2012, p. 24). According to A. Lipka et al. (2012), loyalty from the emotional side means a positive attitude; in the cognitive approach, it is the effect of the cognitive process as a result of which the decision about choosing the object of loyalty is made. Finally, in behavioural terms, it is the "behaviour consisting in remaining in the organisation" and refraining from looking for another employer.

Yet, how is the employee to fulfil this commitment since enterprises that are supposed to be solid as rock turns out to be a figment of accountants' imagination? What is good and healthy today may turn into poison tomorrow. Allegedly lasting obligations and solemnly signed contracts can be broken from day-to-day. And promises, at least in the majority, are made only to be broken. There seems to be no permanent, safe island in the turbulent sea (Bauman 2006, p. 181).

The new concept of subjective professional development assumes, therefore, harmfulness of excessive normative and emotional attachment to the organisation (Bańka 2006). The identification of loyalty with permanent and exclusive employee participation in the organisation becomes obsolete.

This does not mean, however, that employees are not loyal. Loyalty occurs, but in a different form and has different sources. According to T. Matyjak,

loyalty cannot be perceived in such a manner that someone will work in a given enterprise, and not in another one, that someone will not quit, but [...] as performing entrusted tasks in the best possible way and with the best possible result.

For the managerial staff she examines, "of importance is the commitment during the employment relationship" (as cited in: Świątek-Barylska 2013, p. 143). The model proposed by I. Świątek-Barylska (2013) assumes a new type of loyalty of employees of contemporary organisations, including commitment, identification, honesty and participation. This is confirmed by P. Leighton et al. who argue with regard to employees that "their primarily loyalty will tend to be to their skill, profession or occupation, as opposed to an individual employer" (2010, p. 54).

There are relatively few studies into this issue. Interesting are the findings of the already mentioned D. Guest and N. Conway (2004, as cited in: Gerber et al. 2009), who decided to check what kind of attachment to the employer is preferred by employees of the German-speaking part of Switzerland. They distinguished four types of career orientations: traditional-loyalty career orientation, traditional-promotion career orientation, independent career orientation and disengaged career orientation. The vast majority of respondents preferred a career orientation based on a traditional contract; the groups of loyalty career oriented and promotion career oriented respondents were similarly numerous (over 30% each); the other two types of careers accounted for 18%. As can be seen, there is still a group of employees who show a loyal attitude towards the employer in line with the traditional understanding of this approach.

Hence, employees are loyal, but this loyalty can take many forms – from a traditional attachment to the organisation to loyalty to the profession and performed work. S.E. Sullivan and R. Emerson draw attention to the formation of professional, in lieu of organisational, loyalty (Bohdziewicz 2008).

The diversity in this area is associated with the fact that the transition from a relational psychological contract to a transactional one is a continuous process. It cannot be ruled out that both types of loyalty will co-exist simultaneously in the work environment, increasing its diversity and enriching it. Thus, the described phenomena should be treated as “much new in the old.” There is no reason to deny their existence and that they may become so important in the future that it is necessary to prepare for potential effects, modifying the implementation of the personnel function in the organisation accordingly.

### **4.3 Consistency of obligations and expectations within a psychological contract as a condition for the effective cooperation of the employer and the employee**

The factor that should be taken into account in planning the method of implementation of the personnel function is the psychological contract. Undoubtedly, as a result of the introduction of the principles of flexible human resource management, along with the change in the psychological contract,

there will be central ambiguities and uncertainties over the nature of the employment relationship and the notion of the psychological contract as applied to non-employees. There will tend to be problems over mutual expectations, and the likelihood of misunderstandings. Very little can be taken for granted.

(Leighton et al. 2010, p. 54)

The question arises whether both entities, i.e. employers and employees, are aware of the changes and whether this is reflected in their activity. A summary of these changes, involving the replacement of the rules and principles of the

Table 4.2 Summary of Employee Expectations and Obligations in Respective Types of Psychological Contracts

<i>Relational (traditional) psychological contract</i>	
<i>Employee expectations</i>	<i>Employee obligations</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Security resulting from the guarantee of work within the organisation throughout the professional life</li> <li>• Professional development, including training, promotion and prestige</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Loyalty is understood as attachment and continuing in a given organisation, without the intention of seeking another employer</li> </ul>
<i>Transactional (new) psychological contract</i>	
<i>Employee expectations</i>	<i>Employee obligations</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Training, enabling the improvement and acquisition of new competences</li> <li>• Job security developed outside the organisation based on the ability to get another job quickly</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Loyalty understood as commitment, efficiency and high quality of performed duties, but with a possible intention of seeking employment from another employer</li> </ul>

Compiled by the Author.

relational psychological contract with the rules and principles applicable to the transactional psychological contract, is provided in Table 4.2.

As A. Bańka states, employers expect employees to be “innovative, focused on looking for new ideas without the required training and apprenticeship in the enterprise, loyal and attached to the enterprise, fully prepared to effectively take on all important tasks in the enterprise, flexible and available” (Bańka 2006, p. 69). The question is whether an attitude combining so many contradictions is psychologically possible, the more so because earlier, in the framework of the relational contract, the organisation guaranteed job security to the employee, and now it no longer does due to the flexibility of management. As stated by I. Świątek-Barylska, “in these circumstances, the identification with the enterprise in which a person found employment seemed like a good idea. Today, it would be stupid” (2013, p. 95). With developing downsizing and progressive flexibility of management, “these expectations are contrary to the right of an individual to keep distance from an organisation that may, for more or less reasonable reasons (staying in the market), give up the services of an employee at any time” (Bańka 2006, p. 69).

So, the above described employee behaviours, which are a reaction and a way to achieve a state of equilibrium in meeting their own needs, should come as no surprise. Employees need job security or, rather, a guarantee of obtaining the income required to live. In addition, they need professional development, improvement of competences and a sense of growing importance and fulfilment of increasingly prestigious professional roles. If enterprises cannot guarantee it, employees must find another way to make up for this deficit. Hence, the

behaviours that employers assess negatively, such as reduced loyalty. But the reason for such a negative assessment is that in their expectations employers are still stuck in a relational contract. However, the key to effective cooperation is understanding the change of psychological contracts, identifying mutual expectations and obligations, accepting it and generating new ways of building mutual relations. For cooperation to be effective, the employer and the employee must construct relations in accordance with the rules of the same psychological contract. Consistency in this area seems to be indispensable. This problem must be solved for enterprises to reduce the personnel risk and, relying on their human capital, be able to build a competitive position in the market.

Striving for consistency in relations is natural to cooperate and at the same time satisfy mutual needs. Thus, employees can be expected to reveal a new behaviour pattern, which is an adaptation to changing conditions on the labour market. The search for this pattern, based on an in-depth theoretical and research analysis, will take place later in the monograph.

## Notes

- 1 K. Bolesta-Kukulka (2003) distinguishes between the terms “politics” and “organisational system.” The latter predetermines what relations, mutual rights and obligations prevail between the organisation and employees.
- 2 A statistical Pole works 12 years for one employer [Statystyczny Polak pracuje u jednego pracodawcy 12 lat]; see: [www.gazetaprawna.pl](http://www.gazetaprawna.pl) (14.02.2012). From Eurobarometer studies conducted from 24 Sept. 2011 till 9 Oct. 2011 based on: Eurobarometer, *Employment and Social Policy. Europeans and Employment*. Retrieved from: [http://ec.europa.eu/public\\_opinion/archives](http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives).
- 3 These studies will be described in more detail in subsequent parts of the monograph.

## References

- Adamska, K. (2011). Kontrakt psychologiczny w organizacji – Kwestionariusz Kontraktu Psychologicznego. [The psychological contract in the organization – The psychological contract questionnaire]. *Psychologia Społeczna [The Social Psychology]*, 63(18), 267–283.
- Ashford, S., Lee, C., & Bobko, P. (1989). Content, causes, and consequences of job insecurity: A theory based measure and substantive test. *Academy of Management Journal*, 32, 803–829.
- Bańka, A. (2006). Kapitał kariery – uwarunkowania, rozwój i adaptacja do zmian organizacyjnych oraz strukturalnych rynku pracy. [Career capital - conditions, development and adaptation to organizational and structural changes in the labor market]. In Z. Ratajczak, A. Bańka, & E. Turska (Eds.), *Współczesna psychologia pracy i organizacji. [The contemporary psychology of work and organization]*. Katowice: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego, 59–117.
- Bańka, A., Wołowska, A., & Bazińska, R. (2010). Wpływ naruszenia kontraktu psychologicznego na zaangażowanie w pracę. Mediacyjna rola klimatu psychologicznego. [The impact of breach of a psychological contract on work involvement. The mediating role of the psychological climate]. *Czasopismo Psychologiczne, [The Psychological Journal]*, 16(2), 225–235.

- Bauman, Z. (2006). *Życie na przemiał. [The grind life]*. Kraków: Wydawnictwo Literackie.
- Bohdziewicz, P. (2008). *Kariery zawodowe w gospodarce opartej na wiedzy (na przykładzie grupy zawodowej informatyków). [Professional careers in a knowledge-based economy (on the example of a professional group of IT specialists)]*. Łódź: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego.
- Bolesta-Kukulka, K. (2003). *Socjologia ogólna. [General sociology]* Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Wydziału Zarządzania Uniwersytetu Warszawskiego.
- Cassar V., & Briner R.B. (2011). The relationship between psychological contract breach and organizational commitment: Exchange imbalance as a moderator of the mediating role of violation. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 78, 283–289
- Conway, N., Guest, D., & Trenberth, L. (2011). Testing the differential effects of changes in psychological contract breach and fulfillmentment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 79, 267–276.
- Flum, H., & Blustein, D.L. (2000). Reinvigorating the study of vocational exploration: A framework for research. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 56(3), 380–404. doi: 10.1006/jvbe.2000.1721.
- Gerber, M., Wittekind, A., Grote, G., Conway, N., & Guest, D. (2009). Generalizability of career orientations: A comparative study in Switzerland and Great Britain. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 82, 779–801.
- Giddens, A. (2004). *Socjologia. [The sociology]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Greenhalgh, L., & Rosenblatt, Z. (2010). Evolution of research on job insecurity. *International Studies of Management & Organization*, Spring, 40(1), 6–19. doi: 10.2753/IMO0020-8825400101.
- Jeffers, S. (2004). *Pewność w niepewności. Jak zachować spokój umysłu w obliczu nieznanego. [The confidence in uncertainty. How to keep your mind calm in the face of the unknown]*. Warszawa: Świat Książki.
- Kalleberg, A.L. (2009, February). Precarious work insecure workers: Employment relations in transition. *American Sociological Review*, 74(1), 1–22. doi: 10.1177/000312240907400101.
- Kasprzak, E., & Rajang, J. (2006). Oczekiwania wobec szkoleń pracowniczych. Perspektywa pracownika i perspektywa organizacji. [The expectations for employee training. The employee perspective and organization perspective]. In A. Biela, B. Rożnowski, & A. Bańka (Eds.), *Praca i organizacja w procesie zmian. [Work and organization in the process of change]*. Poznań: Stowarzyszenie Psychologia i Architektura.
- Kryńska, E., & Arendt, Ł. (2015). *Ekspertyza rynek pracy. Wyzwania strategiczne na potrzeby aktualizacji Strategii Rozwoju Kraju 2007–2015. [The labour market expertise. Strategic challenges for the needs of updating the National Development Strategy 2007–2015]*. Warszawa: Instytut Pracy i Spraw Socjalnych IPISS. [http://www.mrr.gov.pl/ministerstwo/praca/nabor\\_do\\_SC/Documents/IPiSS\\_ekspertyza\\_rynek\\_pracy\\_uzupelniona\\_24012011.pdf](http://www.mrr.gov.pl/ministerstwo/praca/nabor_do_SC/Documents/IPiSS_ekspertyza_rynek_pracy_uzupelniona_24012011.pdf) (accessed: 15.01.2017).
- Lapointe, É., Vandenberghe, Ch., & Boudrias, J.B. (2013). Psychological contract breach, affective commitment to organization and supervisor, and newcomer adjustment: A three-wave moderated mediation model. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 83, 528–538.
- Leighton, P., Syrett, M., Hecker, R., & Holland, P. (2010). *Nowoczesne formy zatrudnienia. [Modern forms of employment]*. Warszawa: Wolters Kluwer Polska.
- Lipka, A., Winnicka-Wejs, A., & Acedański, J. (2012). *Lojalność pracownicza. Od diagnozy typów lojalności pracowników do Zarządzania Relacjami z Pracownikami (Employee Relationship Management). [Employee loyalty. From the diagnosis of employee loyalty types to Employee Relationship Management]*. Warszawa: Difin.

- Makin, P., Cooper, C., & Cox, C. (2000). *Organizacje a kontrakt psychologiczny. Zarządzanie ludźmi w pracy.* [The organizations and the psychological contract. Managing people at work]. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Mauno, S., Leskinen, E., & Kinnunen, U. (2001). Multi-wave, multi-variable models of job insecurity: Applying different scales in studying the stability of job insecurity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 22, 919–937. doi: 10.1002/job.
- McInnis, K.J., Meyer, J.P., & Feldman, S. (2009). Psychological contracts and their implications for commitment: A feature-based approach. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 74, 165–180.
- Morawski, W. (2003). Niepewność w świecie pracy. Sondażowe badania konsekwencji globalizacji. [The uncertainty in the world of work. Survey research on the consequences of globalization]. In K. Doktor, K. Konecki, & W. Warzywoda-Kruszyńska (Eds.), *Praca. Gospodarka. Społeczeństwo.* [Work. Economy. Society]. Łódź: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego, 40–52.
- O'Mahony, S., & Bechky, B.A. (2006). Managing the career progression paradox in external labor markets. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49(5), 918–941.
- O'Neill, P., & Sevastos, P. (2013). The development and validation of a new multidimensional Job Insecurity Measure (JIM): An inductive methodology. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 18(3), 338–349. doi: 10.1037/a0033114.
- Oreł, J. (2014, July 23). Młody pracownik i szkolenia szansą na rozwój MŚP? [The young employee and training as a chance for SME development?] <http://www.pulshr.pl/edukacja/mlody-pracownik-i-szkolenia-szansa-na-rozwoj-msp,20543,3.html> (accessed: 11.01.2016).
- Pawłowska, A. (2013). Potencjał społeczny organizacji i strategia personalna. [The social potential of the organization and personnel strategy]. In J. Bogdanienko, & W. Piotrowski (Eds.), *Zarządzanie. Tradycja i nowoczesność.* [Management. Tradition and modernity]. Warszawa: PWE.
- Pokrywka, Ł. (2012). *Długość zatrudnienia u pracodawcy w Polsce.* [The length of employment with an employer in Poland] <http://www.rynekpracy.pl/artukul.php/typ.1> (accessed: 7.09.2016).
- Standing, G. (2014). *Prekariat. Nowa niebezpieczna klasa.* [The precariat. A new dangerous class]. Warszawa: PWN.
- Strykowska, M. (2002). Zawód-praca-kariera. Dynamika zmian w funkcjonowaniu współczesnych organizacji. [The occupation-job-career. Dynamics of changes in the functioning of contemporary organizations]. In M. Strykowska (Ed.), *Współczesne organizacje – wyzwania i zagrożenia. Perspektywa psychologiczna.* [Contemporary organizations - challenges and threats. The psychological perspective]. Poznań: Wydawnictwo Fundacji Humaniora.
- Sullivan, S.E. (1999). The changing nature of careers: A review and research agenda. *Journal of Management*, 25(3), 457–484.
- Świątek-Barylska, I. (2013). *Lojalność pracowników współczesnych organizacji. Istota i elementy składowe.* [Loyalty of employees of modern organizations. The essence and components]. Łódź: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego.
- Van Der Heijde, C.M., & Van Der Heijden, B.I.J.M. (2006, Fall). A competence-based and multidimensional operationalization and measurement of employability. *Human Resource Management*, 45(3), 449–476. doi: 10.1002/hrm.20119.
- Wellin, M. (2010). *Zarządzanie kontraktem psychologicznym. Zaangażowanie pracowników w zwiększenie wydajności firmy.* [The psychological contract management. The employee involvement in increasing the company's efficiency]. Warszawa: Wolters Kluwer Polska.

- Widerszal-Bazyl, M. (2007). Niepewność pracy jako źródło stresu. [The job insecurity as a source of stress]. *Bezpieczeństwo Pracy, [The Work Safety]*, 7–8. <http://archiwum.ciop.pl/25607> (accessed: 10.05.2015).
- Wojtczuk-Turek, A. (2012). Elastyczność organizacyjna i indywidualna a zachowania innowacyjne w miejscu pracy – empiryczna analiza zależności. [The organizational and individual flexibility and innovative behavior in the workplace - empirical dependency analysis]. *Prace Naukowe Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego we Wrocławiu [Research Papers of Wrocław University of Economics]*, 249, 247–259.

# 5 Expectations towards the employee

## Adaptation, flexibility and mobility

Scientific studies and reports on the labour market provide more or less explicitly formulated expectations towards employees. The authors consider them a condition for the employee's ability to adapt to flexible human resource management and the resulting transactional psychological contract.

However, research approaches clearly lack a coherent concept and terminological unambiguity. Ambiguous definitions of terms are used, and the phenomena studied are inconsistently operationalised.

The presented approaches can simply conclude that the employee has to adapt and be flexible and mobile. Mobility is flexibility, and flexibility is mobility. In the case of these concepts, more often than not, *definiens* is at the same time *definiendum* and vice versa.

Clearly evident becomes the imprecise definition of concepts with intersecting meanings, which is problematic for conducting reliable research. There is no explicitness as to their designata (which is a condition for the correct identification of manifestations of employee flexibility and mobility) to develop reliable and accurate indicators (Nowak 2011). This is particularly noticeable in papers on approaches to employability (e.g. Bozionelos and Bozionelos 2015; Okay-Somerville and Scholarios 2015; Pauli 2015).

Hence, it is first of all necessary to systematise the terminology in order to properly operationalise the posed problem, i.e. the adaptation of employees to new realities of the work environment based on flexible management and a transactional contract.

### 5.1 Approach to employee adaptation

The first thing to explore is what adaptation, especially professional, involves. The concept "adapt" comes from Latin and means to fit or join. The psychological contract accepted as a basis for analysis will mean coherence of expectations and obligations between the entities involved in the relation. The adaptation process will, therefore, consist in making them compatible. It should

be emphasised that individuals can activate different behaviours in response to a change:

- **proactive behaviour** – behaviours bring about changes in the environment;
- **reactive behaviour** – individuals modify their behaviour to better adapt to a new environment;
- **tolerant behaviour** – individuals continue their activities despite the occurrence of changes in the environment (Juchnowicz 2010).

If individuals programme their professional behaviours according to the already outdated rules of a relational contract, they collide with the expectations of a transactional contract created by employers. The resulting situation gives rise to problems in the coordination of mutual activities, i.e. it can be described as nonadaptive.

Addressing the problem from the perspective presented so far, it can be assumed that individuals become adapted when they behave in accordance with the same psychological contract as the employer, and in flexible human resource management, it is a transactional contract. However, this situation continues to be seen from the employer's perspective. The question arises as to what it looks like from the employees' point of view, and this requires a closer look at their situation.

The studies most often point to employee flexibility and mobility as the necessary conditions for adapting to the changing labour market. That is why, in subsequent chapters, these concepts will be analysed more closely in terms of their real adaptability in accordance with the adopted approach.

## 5.2 The concept and types of flexibility

So far, flexibility has been discussed with regard to the organisation management process. In this part, flexibility at the level of an individual will be addressed. The most general definition of this concept was found in the study by I. Bednarska-Wnuk, according to which "flexibility of an individual" is "a permanent disposition understood and considered as the individual's ability and characteristics, cognitive processes, emotional-motivational processes and processes of social functioning" (2012, pp. 87–88). As regards the professional situation, according to M. Juchnowicz (2010), "flexibility of an employee is the ability and potential readiness to adapt to new, different or changing conditions, tasks and situations of cognitive and social character, as well as initiating changes" (also: Wojtczuk-Turek 2012).

These definitions relate to the individual's predisposition to be flexible. However, this raises the question of which area the individual should be flexible and what this flexibility is supposed to concern – expectations, needs, action strategy, thinking, decision-making, etc.

The answer to this question is provided by T. Rostkowski (2007). He states that employee flexibility should be analysed in terms of the needs of the organisation. Employee flexibility manifests itself in the readiness to work overtime and part-time (with limited remuneration), to change the workplace – in the country or abroad, and to modify the position/role in the organisation, to temporarily take a position of another nature (e.g. managerial position), as well as to alter the way the tasks are carried out (teleworking, virtual teams). Finally, a flexible employee exhibits loyalty towards the organisation and flexibility to change by supporting them (Rostkowski 2007).

In this list, there is no distinction in meaning between flexibility and mobility. For example, readiness to change the workplace is treated as a referent of flexibility and mobility at the same time. The same behaviours of employees are, therefore, termed interchangeably, once as an expression of their flexibility, and at other times – of their mobility.

In addition, this approach to the organisation's expectations towards the employee indicates that flexibility is an attitude of passive submission and acceptance of the conditions offered by the employer, which is a way to meet the basic employee needs.

From this perspective, the employee is in a relation of paternalistic dependence on the employer. The employer does not create conditions in a way that is optimal for the needs of employees, which could give them a sense of subjectivity and partner relations. This perspective is hard to accept, as according to A.L. Kalleberg (2009), employees are not passive targets of actions; they actively create their situation. Employees behave in a certain way, which may not quite please employers. Looking at and identifying such behaviours can be crucial for effective human resource management.

The individual's flexibility in the new professional situation should be seen at a much higher and more general level. In the context of a psychological contract in which there is no stabilisation, simultaneity and sequentiality of development (Januszkiewicz 2012), it means that individuals are flexible if they deal with discontinuity of employment and loss of the guarantee of job security and training. It results from the fact that the relational psychological contract no longer applies, nor do the rules of professional functioning of which the stages and phases were determined by the age and possibilities offered by the employing organisation.

### **5.3 The concept and types of mobility**

The second feature, considered to be adaptive to the changing labour market, is employee mobility. Likewise in the case of flexibility, it is not clear what specific behaviours should be displayed by the employee who meets this condition. What is more, the same mobile behaviours can be assessed differently depending on whether they appear in a relational or transactional psychological contract, both in terms of their adaptability and a model of an ideal employee. What was

considered a disadvantage, such as a change of employer, in the traditional contract, becomes an indicator of adaptation in the new one.

There are at least several approaches to mobility, determined by different classification criteria. The main division is physical and psychological mobility (Koen et al. 2010).

The first type of mobility involves an observable act of crossing borders and barriers. The kinds of physical mobility are distinguished depending on the type of boundaries that are crossed. Ł. Sienkiewicz (2009) distinguishes spatial mobility associated with migration in the country and abroad.

M. Suchar (2010) defines this type of mobility and develops an indicator to measure it. In his opinion, it is a

quantitative career progression parameter that refers to the frequency of job changes by a given person; it is calculated as the period of average employment in each enterprise (in months), (the quotient of the sum of periods of employment in each of the enterprises in which the person worked and the number of all workplaces).

(Suchar 2010, p. 145)

Psychological mobility refers to individuals' assessment and attitude and their approach to this behaviour (Lazarova and Taylor 2009, as cited in: Koen et al. 2010). It depends on the type of change of attitude connected with crossing borders. People may feel differently in the face of changes in the organisation, workplace and during a functional change, and finally, becoming unemployed. According to M. Verbruggen (2012), due to its ambiguity, the aspect of psychological mobility is often overlooked in research as it is very difficult to grasp.

A special variant is job mobility, or the individual's tendency to change the employer and/or profession (Juchnowicz 2012). I. Bednarska-Wnuk (2012) expands possible areas of mobility to cover a change of qualifications, acquisition of new competences, a change in the professional status, profession profile or work content.

The broadest classification is proposed by T.W.H. Ng et al. (2007), who claim that job mobility is a pattern of intra- and inter-organisational transitions throughout an individual's work life. Referring to Nicholson and West, they distinguish 12 types of job mobility based on three dimensions:

- status – upwards (vertical advancement), lateral (horizontal advancement) and downwards mobility (degradation);
- function – the same or changed in relation to the currently performed one;
- employer – an external or internal change in respect of the current employer.

In the context of changes within the psychological contract, external and internal mobility, called inter- and intra-organisational mobility (Ng et al. 2007;

Sienkiewicz 2009; Czaińska 2010) are particularly important. Flexible management introduces the rules according to which the significance of an individual's ability to external mobility grows. In addition, another criterion for classifying mobility is also used. It determines whether mobility is forced or voluntary (Leighton et al. 2010).

In the former case, the individuals' mobility is forced by factors independent of them. In the latter case – mobility can stem from individual, independent decisions related to the desire to develop and/or search for better working conditions. It can be assumed that in the initial phase of implementing the rules of flexible management, the mobility of employees was, as a rule, forced since they were accustomed to the rules of a relational contract. Presently, when transactional rules are already universally applicable, mobility may result from adaptive attitudes of employees and be more voluntary.

S. O'Mahony and B.A. Bechky (2006) drew attention to yet another division of mobility. In this case, they do not refer to the type of boundaries crossed, but to the effects that individuals achieve thanks to it. Apparent mobility occurs when the employee works for multiple employers, but repeatedly performs the same tasks. This activity contributes nothing to the employee's professional development as the employee does not acquire new skills. In this case, mobility is not associated with progression or development, but with continuance.

Real mobility is about gaining added value, which is achieved thanks to the fact that contacts with multiple employers accumulate in the form of new skills and thus increase the individual's chances of getting employed. This aspect of mobility is particularly important from the point of view of looking for sources of employee adaptation to the changing labour market.

A special case of mobility is found in a boundaryless career, to be discussed later.

In conclusion, flexibility and mobility as employee features do not constitute a satisfactory basis for analysing employee behaviours in the changing labour market. Their weakness is that they focus on the features of behaviour, not on their content and goals. They refer to the characteristics of the employee's reaction to the employer. In this perspective, the employer is the reference point for employee activity. It is an attempt to maintain the status quo where the employer is the main player that dictates terms and conditions, and the employee has to accept them and submit to them. This assumption will be questioned further on in this monograph, and the employee will acquire greater autonomy in responding to the transactional rules of the psychological contract.

## References

- Bednarska-Wnuk, I. (2012). Elastyczność zawodowa w percepcji przedstawicieli pokolenia Y. [Professional flexibility as perceived by the representatives of the Y generation]. In S.A. Witkowski, & M. Stor (Eds.), *Sukces w zarządzaniu [kadrami. Elastyczność w zarządzaniu kapitałem ludzkim. Volume 2. Problemy zarządczo-psychologiczne. [The success in human resources management. Flexibility in managing human capital. Volume 2. Management and psychological problems]*. Wrocław: Uniwersytet Ekonomiczny, 86–94.

- Bozionelos, G., & Bozionelos, N. (2015). Zatrudnialność w czasach głębokiego kryzysu ekonomicznego. Rola orientacji zawodowej. [Employability in times of deep economic crisis. The role of professional orientation]. *Zarządzanie Zasobami Ludzkimi [Human Resource Management]*, 6(107), 11–32.
- Czaińska, K. (2010). *Odkryć zarządzanie [Discover management]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Januszkiewicz, K. (2012). Sukces zawodowy w perspektywie jutra. [The professional success for tomorrow]. In S.A. Witkowski, & M. Stor (Eds.), *Sukces w zarządzaniu kadrami. Elastyczność w zarządzaniu kapitałem ludzkim. Volume 2. Problemy zarządczo-psychologiczne. [The success in human resources management. Flexibility in managing human capital. Volume 2. Management and psychological problems]*. Wrocław: Uniwersytet Ekonomiczny, 273–280.
- Juchnowicz, M. (2010). *Zarządzanie przez zaangażowanie. Koncepcja, kontrowersje, aplikacje. [Management by commitment. The concept, controversy, applications]*. Warszawa: PWE.
- Juchnowicz, M. (2012). *Zaangażowanie pracowników. Sposoby oceny i motywowania. [Employee engagement. Ways to evaluate and motivate]*. Warszawa: PWE.
- Kalleberg, A.L. (2009, February). Precarious work insecure workers: Employment relations in transition. *American Sociological Review*, 74, 11–22. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/000312240907400101>. Accessed: March, 2016.
- Koen, J., Klehe, U.Ch., Annelies, E.M., Vianen, V., Zikic, J., & Nauta, A. (2010). Job-search strategies and reemployment quality. The impact of career adaptability. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 77, 126–139.
- Leighton, P., Syrett, M., Hecker, R., & Holland, P. (2010). *Nowoczesne formy zatrudnienia. [Modern forms of employment]*. Warszawa: Oficyna a Wolters Kluwer business.
- Ng, T.W.H., Sorensen, K.L., Eby, L.T., & Feldman, D.C. (2007). Determinants of job mobility: A theoretical integration and extension. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 80, 363–386.
- Nowak, S. (2011). *Metodologia badań społecznych. [Methodology of social research]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- O'Mahony, S., & Bechky, B.A. (2006). Managing the career progression paradox in external labor markets. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49(5), 918–941.
- Okay-Somerville, B., & Scholarios, D. (2015). Między studiami a pracą – samodzielne zarządzanie karierą, zatrudnialność, sukces zawodowy. Spojrzenie na teorię kariery z perspektywy społeczno-kognitywnej. [Between studies and work - independent career management, employability, professional success. A look at career theory from a socio-cognitive perspective]. *Zarządzanie Zasobami Ludzkimi [The Human Resource Management]*, 6(107), 33–60.
- Pauli, U. (2015). Wzbogacanie zatrudnialności poprzez pracę w małych i średnich przedsiębiorstwach. [Enriching employability by working in small and medium-sized enterprises] *Zarządzanie Zasobami Ludzkimi [The Human Resources Management]*, 6(107), 97–110.
- Rostkowski, T. (2007). Mierniki elastyczności kapitału ludzkiego oraz elastycznego zarządzania kapitałem ludzkim. Metoda oceny. [Measures of human capital flexibility and flexible human capital management. Assessment method]. In M. Juchnowicz (Ed.), *Elastyczne zarządzanie kapitałem ludzkim w organizacji wiedzy. [Flexible human capital management in the organization of knowledge]*. Warszawa: Difin, 120–171.
- Sienkiewicz, Ł. (2009). Elastyczność zawodowa Polaków jako determinanta decyzji zatrudnieniowych. [Professional flexibility of Poles as a determinant of employment decisions]. In M. Juchnowicz (Ed.), *Postawy Polaków wobec pracy w zarządzaniu kapitałem*

- ludzkim. [Poles' attitudes towards work in human capital management]. Kraków: Wolters Kluwer Polska, 67–92.
- Suchar, M. (2010). *Modele karier. Przewidywanie kolejnego kroku. [Career models. Anticipating the next step]*. Warszawa: C.H. Beck.
- Suchodolski, A. (2002). Rozwój pracowników. [Development of employees]. In T. Listwan (Ed.), *Zarządzanie kadrami. [Human Resources Management]* Warszawa: C.H. Beck, 145–170.
- Verbruggen, M. (2012). Psychological mobility and career success in the 'New' career climate. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 81, 289–297.
- Wojtczuk-Turek, A. (2012). Elastyczność organizacyjna i indywidualna a zachowania innowacyjne w miejscu pracy – empiryczna analiza zależności. [The organizational and individual flexibility and innovative behavior in the workplace - empirical dependency analysis]. *Prace Naukowe Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego we Wrocławiu [Research Papers of Wrocław University of Economics]*, 249, 247–259.

## **6 Professional development of an individual as an area where relationships with the employer are formed**

Previous considerations suggest that when the labour market becomes changeable, the expectations towards employees, such as flexibility and mobility, can no longer be considered with reference to one employer. It is necessary to take into account new realities based on a transactional psychological contract that excludes attachment to a single workplace. Employee adaptation processes must, therefore, be examined at a more general level. In order to analyse employees' behaviours adequately to the current realities, it is thus imperative to go beyond the world of the organisation and the area under its control.

General professional development of an individual has been chosen as the subject of interest because this is where individuals define their general behaviour and build relationships with the employer in the work environment. Employees' activity in the organisation depends on how they identify with their professional roles and what elements constitute the scenario of functioning at the workplace, the scenario that is contained in cognitive structures. This, in turn, determines the course of cooperation with the employer.

Notably, it should be verified how individuals behave in the relationship with employers, how they build their professional identity and how they construct behavioural scripts as regards to their functioning in the work environment. Answers to these questions can be found in the theories of individual professional development. Those theories have been evolving and have adopted various approaches to professional adaptation, as presented below. It is noteworthy that the terms used include "professional development" but also "career." The latter should not be associated with the traditional understanding present in the management theory, whereby career is seen as a promotion to higher levels of the organisational structure. From this perspective, it carries a much broader meaning, which will be demonstrated later in this monograph.

### **6.1 The traditional approach to professional development – J. Holland, D. Super, E. Schein**

As claimed by M.L. Savickas et al. (2009), the primary focus of the theories of professional development in the 20th century was on how individuals can find a job or a profession that suits them. This determined the choice of education

DOI: 10.4324/9781003329930-6

This chapter has been made available under a CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 license.

and profession for life. Therefore, the initial approach to the professional development of employees was dominated by the perspective of career counselling that concentrated on psychological traits, their diagnosis and a drift towards adapting an individual to a specific profession (Inkson et al. 2012).

Questions essentially concerned how to match an individual and a profession. That being so, the focus was on the so-called objective measurement of interests, preferences, capabilities, etc. This resulted from the conviction that those were the chief determinants of individual development and efficiency in a stable and predictable work environment. Such an approach is exemplified by the well-known and commonly used concept framed by J. Holland (Bajcar et al. 2006). He designed a tool for diagnosing professional preferences, calling them orientations and distinguishing the following: enterprising, realistic, investigative, social, artistic and conventional. In this case, professional adaptation involves matching professional and personality predispositions to the profession. Employees strive to achieve consistency between their psychological profile and the characteristics of the workplace.

It proved, however, that that approach did not allow satisfactory anticipation of the choice of profession or efficient performance of tasks at work. Responding to this demand, Super (1957 cited in: Flum and Blustein 2000) developed the concept of professional development where the crucial determinants included self-concept and vocational self-concept (Bajcar et al. 2006). The former defines “a subjective image of one’s self in a specific role, situation or social position, constituting a source of assessment of one’s capabilities to fulfil undertaken roles.” Vocational self-concept, on the other hand, is “a clear and stable perception of one’s goals, interests, capabilities and values considered to be relevant when choosing a profession” (Bajcar et al. 2006).

Under this approach, depending on age, an individual passes through consecutive stages of professional development such as growth (4–14 years), exploration (15–24 years), establishment (25–44 years), maintenance (45–65 years) and decline (over 65 years) (Bajcar et al. 2006). D. Super argues that professional development is conceptualised as a series of consecutive stages which an individual goes through successively as through consecutive stages of the life cycle. It is based on the sequential process of the “self” structure reaching maturity. What is very important is that this process takes place once in a lifetime (Januszkiewicz 2012).

Clearly, this concept applies to career as a profession and focuses on enhancing the efficiency of performance of the profession, which is determined by the age of an individual. Nonetheless, it should be noted that these

models follow the assumption that successive stages develop and build on the previous ones and that each stage should be experienced (lived), which happens in a consistent social reality. These models do not take into consideration other perspectives, for example, socio-biological, anthropological, economic or political ones.

(Strykowska 2002)

Hence, in the mid-20th century, along with the rise and growth of bureaucratic and hierarchical organisations, professional development began to be understood in the organisational context, as the performance of different functions and occupation of various organisational positions. Under this approach, career can be “structurally owned by professions or organisations – career will mean the sequences of positions occupied by a typical through to ideal representative of the profession” and/or job (Bańka 2006, p. 31). One’s developmental stages were linked with the phases of the organisational career and with such motivators as a seniority bonus.

In the 1970s, this approach was expanded by E. Schein (1978, as cited in: Inkson et al. 2012), who pointed out that organisations, in particular HR departments, could create structures for the pursuit of organisational careers. E. Schein “identified the fundamental career orientations termed career anchors that are defined as the basic value or motive playing a meaningful role in the orientation and stabilisation of the entire career” (1982, as cited in: Strykowska 2002, p. 31). It is important that anchors will change along with the changes in the work environment and workplaces, thus making it difficult to predict the course of individual professional development.

In the Polish literature, an example of the organisational approach to professional development is provided by a study by A. Miś (2007). According to her, an organisational career focuses on continuous steps towards higher positions in the organisational hierarchy as one’s importance, prestige and responsibility increase.

In addition, a traditional, linear career involves the employer assuming responsibility for career management and development based on a guarantee of job sustainability and security in accordance with a relational psychological contract. Such professional development is close to the common understanding of “career” as a promotion that results from climbing the organisational structure. It has the nature of internal mobility that cannot materialise in short-term employment based on flexible management when the employee’s tie with the organisation is cut regardless of the employee’s age and thus career stage. Therefore, traditional career concepts are inadequate in view of today’s employment rules arising from a transactional contract under flexible human management.

## **6.2 Modern approaches to professional development**

As argued by Savickas (2009), we are facing a crisis and obsolescence of the concepts of professional development formulated in the 20th century. Their fundamental weakness is that they are rooted in the assumption that one’s personality is stable and invariable and that employment is secure within a closed, limited organisation following the principles of a relational psychological contract.

In line with the traditional approach, career is referred to the functioning of an individual in an organisation, and the concept of professional identity, career planning, professional development and career stages is used to predict human

adaptation to the work environment, where it is presumed that the environment and human behaviour remain relatively unchanged. As already mentioned, these beliefs are currently outdated, making it necessary to verify approaches in this area.

In the new realities of the work environment, it should be taken into account that actual human behaviour is not only a function of an individual but also of the environment. Hence, it is not important how stable individuals might be if the environment changes very fast. Consequently, theoretical models are needed that emphasise human flexibility, adaptability and lifelong learning. This is because the paradigm of contemporary career is a repeated, cyclic process (Bańka 2006) where career decisions must be taken several times (Januszkiewicz 2012). M.L. Savickas (1997) suggests that life trajectories should be considered in conjunction with the course of a career and that questions should be asked about what actions need to be taken in order to cope with inevitable changes in professional life. Thereby, transformations and shifts of the psychological contract towards transactional rules can be taken into account in order to apprehend the adaptive behaviour of employees.

Most crucially, it should be assumed that professional development belongs to the individual rather than the organisation in the current realities of the labour market. In this sense, career should be treated “as owned by an individual, not a profession or organisation, and as a sequence of job positions, roles, activities and experiences gained by individuals throughout their lives. Professions are increasingly often only the context in which a career materialises” (Bańka 2006). Such an approach requires emphasising permanent co-evolution of individuals, economies and societies (Strykowska 2002).

The hitherto approach to professional development has used a personality and profession profile to achieve the best possible individual-environment match. Prospective employees got a result in a test diagnosing specific professional skills and social competences that were presented to them as part of career counselling and employment, along with a recommendation regarding the optimal workplace. Contextual information was ignored, though. Minimised and objectivised measurements and tools, or profiles, were used. This approach and these measurements are not suitable when they describe employees interacting with a diverse and changing environment to which they will have to adapt. Therefore, M. Strykowska (2002) assumes that “professional identification is formed while many experiences of everyday life are self-organising.”

Along these lines, A. Bańka (2006, p. 75) states that “in this context, career is a continuous learning process resulting in an accumulated set of life experiences, positions, professional roles tested each time against objective criteria of attractiveness and demand in the labour market.” Such an approach is adopted in this monograph and forms the basis of the research process. It should be reiterated that it has nothing to do with the understanding of “career” as climbing the organisational promotion ladder.

In order to clarify “career” in line with the perspective adopted in this monograph, “career” should be distinguished from “career orientation” and “career

success” (Gerber et al. 2009). The latter stands for one’s assessment of the effects and benefits of professional development.

On the other hand, career is a sequence of attitudes, postures, activities and behaviours connected with the professional role played by an individual throughout life (Gerber et al. 2009). It consists of objective elements such as behaviour and subjective components such as attitudes, including career orientation. According to this approach, career orientation is defined as an attitude expressing one’s overriding intentions that will influence one’s decisions about the career development formula (Maier, Rappensperger, Rosenstiel and Zwarg 1994, as cited in: Gerber et al. 2009). It is a reflection of individual preferences regarding the opportunities, circumstances and types of career, and determines how important career is for an individual.

The attitude called “disengagement” is a specific case where work is not at the centre of interest, but greater focus is, for example, on family, interests or hobbies.

Dissimilar diversification is based on what type of career is at stake: a traditional intra-organisational career or a new form of career pursued outside the organisation referred to as an independent career (Gerber et al. 2009).

New forms of career include its various types, with the most significant ones being “boundaryless career” (Arthur 1994; Arthur and Rousseau 1996, as cited in: Gerber et al. 2009) and “protean career” (Hall, 2004, as cited in: Gerber et al. 2009). The former means career building based on frequent changes of employers. The protean type, on the other hand, focuses on the self-management of one’s career. Career orientations are described in greater detail below, with due care taken so as to avoid judging them, which is important because they arouse much controversy both in research studies and journalistic reports.

## **6.3 New forms of employee activity in the changing labour market**

### ***6.3.1 Independent career orientations: precariat, proteanism and boundaryless career***

As mentioned earlier, the principles of flexible management introduced by employers and the resulting encroachment upon the rules of the psychological contract have changed the situation of employees and triggered behaviours discussed in this sub-chapter.

Three types of employees’ reactions are identified that can be deemed a response to flexible human resource management. Their differentiation depends on the extent to which individuals control their situation. The sociological approach to the presented issues indicates the emergence of a new social group called the precariat, with flexible employment being its common characteristic. The term “precariat” was first used in the 1980s by French sociologists to describe temporary and seasonal workers (Standing 2014). According to G. Standing (2014), this group emerged as a result of excessive profit-orientation of

employers, likely to entail numerous negative phenomena. G. Standing (2014) warns of potentially dramatic economic and social consequences that can be triggered. Although G. Standing states that “[t]he precariat is not victim, villain or hero,” he clearly blames employers for the situation and the consequences that may ensue. He believes that employees are disadvantaged, frustrated and full of negative emotions that may bring about a social revolt and boycott in the future (Standing 2014, p. 354). Their situation results from a sense of helplessness in the face of new relations with employers based on a transactional contract. They cannot deal with them or develop adaptation strategies. They passively give in to the situation, which they feel has been created only by employers who are sole beneficiaries of it and who dictate conditions.

An effect of adopting a different perspective on the changing labour market is the attitude termed proteanism. In this case, the employee is already an active party rather than reactively submitting to a situation unilaterally framed by the employer. Individuals exhibiting this behaviour pattern are called “Proteuses” by R.J. Lifton (as cited in: Rifkin 2003). They regard themselves as players, not workers, and prefer to be seen as creative rather than diligent. They grew up in times of job cuts and are accustomed to contract work. Indeed, their lives have become more temporary and mobile and less settled than those of their parents (Rifkin 2003, p. 197). Protean activity, in this sense, results from the decision and lifestyle chosen by an individual in the relation with the employer, the relation which the individual tries to control as far as possible and even dictate conditions to the other party. According to L. Waters et al. (2014), the activity in this area is linked with one’s self-esteem.

Behaviours involving adaptation to the new transactional psychological contract tend to be increasingly regarded as a boundaryless career, as first described in 1996 by Arthur and Rousseau in *The Boundaryless Career: A New Employment Principle for a New Economic Era*. As argued by M. Verbruggen (2012), this type of career guarantees professional success in the new changing labour market realities.

The boundaryless career is marked by recurrent conclusions and terminations of contracts with employers (Bańka 2006). It thus means career building based on frequent changes of employers. The protean career is more focused on self-management of one’s career. They both demonstrate loyalty to oneself and one’s job or profession rather than to an organisation (Bohdziewicz 2008). Therefore, these career forms are referred to as independent by M. Gerber et al. (2009).

The boundaryless career has become an important subject of analysis and research. According to the data from the ProQuest journal database, it had recorded 994 occurrences by November 2011, compared to the protean career with 620 occurrences (Inkson et al. 2012). Many academic studies treat this type of career as an indicator of behaviours involving adaptation to new labour market realities based on a transactional contract, which I question in this monograph.

Inkson et al. (2012) point out, however, that this notion is imprecise and inconsistently defined in individual publications. Therefore, research leads to

various and often contradictory results. Most of it concentrates on the movement of employees across organisational boundaries that, under this approach, are treated as if they were transcendent and permeable. Nonetheless, this is too drastic a simplification as it focuses only on one's propensity to change employers. Such propensity may have many other reasons, for example, problems of mental adjustment to a work situation or a certain generally nonchalant attitude towards life deriving from a system of values. This type of behaviour may not ensue from the adopted professional development strategy but from the orientation towards spontaneous actions that might only seemingly offer a sense of freedom in this area.

As claimed by K. Inkson et al. (2012), the problem is thus much more complex than the recognition of frequent changes of employers as the only indicator of adaptation to transactional rules.

All the more so because the notion of boundaries is ambiguous. In the original concept by M.B. Arthur and D.M. Rousseau (1996, as cited in: Verbruggen 2012), boundaries were perceived more generally as crossing all possible types of boundaries such as professional, cultural or geographical, including psychological and physical, ones.

In fact, as claimed by K. Inkson et al. (2012), the point is not a boundaryless career but a boundary-crossing career. This is because the importance of boundaries cannot be underestimated by denying their existence. They, therefore, propose that boundaries be restored and the notion "boundaryless career" be replaced by "boundary-crossing career."

As claimed by K. Inkson et al. (2012), boundaryless career is a certain label, and the discourse about it is a manifestation of a neoliberal approach that stresses the professional responsibility of the individual rather than social or organisational responsibility. They believe that researchers place too much emphasis on the boundaryless career as an inevitable, sole and ubiquitous path. In their view, a boundaryless career is specific to *some* branches of the economy, *some* organisations, *some* professions and *some* individuals. Therefore, they suggest that studying the career should not be confined to its type but should also cover the complexity of the process, including, for example, the construction, acceptance, preference, defence and change of boundaries while crossing them for the first time and when many careers are involved.

The point of view of sociology and social anthropology of work must also be taken into account. It is assumed here that boundaries are created socially, and the career actors can help frame these boundaries. Understanding how people frame career boundaries in their minds can potentially provide information about many other phenomena. This information concerns predispositions to undertake career- and profession-related actions. Such an analysis helps determine the sources of reservations and opportunities that an individual might have as regards crossing boundaries. This approach also allows the analysis of the labour market structure, the nature of particular professional groups, identification with a profession, and the kind and significance of the impact of education, technology and macroeconomic changes. It was adopted,

for instance, by S.E. Sullivan (1999), who studied employees crossing the boundaries of professions, organisations and roles. M. Verbruggen (2012) pays particular attention to the risk that the acceptance of a boundaryless career may be a propaganda serving to legitimise the effects of downsizing, temporariness and reduced opportunities offered by a traditional career in order to diminish the significance of related consequences.

### ***6.3.2 Typologies of careers and career orientations as an attempt to classify employees' behaviour***

The multithreaded nature of the phenomena that ensued from changes in the professional development of individuals resulted in attempts to systematise them. Accordingly, several classifications of types and forms of professional careers have been developed.

The primary division refers to whether a career belongs to a profession, organisation or individual (Bańka 2006). In this context, an interesting classification was proposed by A. Iellatchitch, W. Mayrhofer and M. Meyer (as cited in: Świątek-Barylska 2013). It is an endeavour to identify those career models that may be manifested in the behaviour of employees in today's labour market. The first one is a traditionally understood career pursued within an organisation, with the opportunity to climb the organisational hierarchy. The next type is free-floating professionalism involving the pursuit of professional development as part of one's specialisation and status of expert in a relatively narrow field. Self-employment is a career of independent individuals providing services to other business operators as sole proprietors and medium-sized and small enterprises. Another career type is chronic flexibility which consists in the implementation of projects in various enterprises. It involves crossing the boundaries of industries, organisations, forms of employment, specialisations or professions.

A typology of career patterns taking into account gender is proposed by G. Łukasiewicz (2002). He claims that career development patterns followed by men are careers that are:

- stable – sticking to professions for a longer period of life;
- conventional – an initial phase of trials and exploration, with subsequent stabilisation;
- unstable – exploration periods (job changes) alternate with stability periods;
- multithreaded – frequent changes of workplaces and professions.

According to G. Łukasiewicz (2002), women can follow the same career patterns, with additional careers such as

- household career – household chores prevail;
- dual career – a combination of professional work and household chores;
- career interrupted by household chores.

In the previously described studies, Guest and Conway (2004, as cited in: Gerber et al. 2009), in order to identify career orientations, used several dimensions in which they described them. They considered the following:

- boundaryless career – long-term employment (job security) versus short-term employment (employability);
- proteanism – organisational career management at the employer's enterprise (subordination to the employer) versus individual career management (responsibility for oneself);
- promotion – vertical promotion within an enterprise (prestige is important) versus horizontal promotion (prestige is unimportant);
- time frame – focus on the present versus focus on the future.

Based on this approach, M. Gerber et al. (2009) identified and tested five career types:

- traditional-promotion oriented – focus on climbing the career ladder within a hierarchical organisational structure;
- traditional-loyalty oriented – focus on job security, long-term employment and the employer's responsibility for career management;
- independent – a modern approach to the protean or boundaryless career types;
- disengaged – career development is less significant than other areas of one's life.

A question arises about the usefulness of the presented classifications and the possibilities of their application in research on employee adaptation. All the more so given the results of research conducted by E. Kasprzak (2013) showing that career patterns are a factor that very weakly determines job satisfaction, and bearing in mind that M. Gubler et al. (2014) pointed to the limited practical utility of the resulting tools for diagnosing proteanism.

In addition, this is confirmed by research by M. Gerber et al. (2009) carried out in order to check whether the same types of career orientation can be identified in the German and French-speaking parts of Switzerland and in the United Kingdom. It turns out that it is impossible to identify one dominant career pattern. Variations and mixed forms exist; hence, it is difficult to distinguish one pure orientation type common to different cultural contexts. The fundamental conclusion of that research is that the concept of career orientation cannot be generalised, treated in a unified fashion and transferred to other cultures. The results of that study show that this cannot be done within European cultures, and much less can, for example, the idea of a boundaryless career be transferred from the American realities.

This also implies that there is no justification for developing classifications of career types because their usefulness is not empirically grounded. They bring only limited order to the reality. They do not provide universal solutions or

guidelines concerning which of these behaviours are a form of adaptation to the realities of the new transactional psychological contract. Since this monograph seeks to identify real patterns of adaptation behaviour of employees, a different approach should be used. An endeavour to achieve this goal will be presented in the further part of this monograph. Before this goal is attained, it is worth looking at the factors determining the type of career orientation chosen by an individual.

### **6.3.3 Selected determinants of career orientation types**

According to M. Gerber et al. (2009), younger people reveal greater mobility between jobs and change employers more often. This is also confirmed by Zikic and Saks (2009), who argue that young employees do not want to get attached to one employer, which determines the independent career model that they follow. The same holds true of highly qualified professionals. In Poland, studies on this topic were carried out among IT specialists by, for example, P. Bohdziewicz (2008, also: Marzec et al. 2009).

As claimed by M. Gerber et al. (2009), another factor that matters is gender. Their research shows that the career pattern followed by women is more complex as compared to men since they have to perform family-related roles. Taking into consideration empirical data, the researchers argue that it is difficult to expect gender differences between independent and traditional career orientations. Research results lead to ambiguous conclusions. Women may indeed show a lack of engagement in their career or the so-called adaptive form of combining a professional career with family life (Hakim 2000; 2006, as cited in: Gerber et al. 2009). According to M. Gerber et al. (2009), however, it can be assumed that men are more predisposed to a traditional, linear career, while women's careers are heading for modern forms. S.E. Sullivan and M.B. Arthur (2006, as cited in: Gerber et al. 2009) noted that women exhibit greater inter-organisational mobility whereas men – greater intra-organisational mobility.

A specific aspect was mentioned by Zikic and Saks (2009). They believe that the set of determinants of significant importance for the career orientation model includes the intensity of forced behaviour in the labour market as a response to changes in human resource management, which is independent of age and education, and a voluntary choice of a boundaryless or protean career.

These two criteria can definitely reduce the impact of age and gender, thereby producing ambiguous research results.

Cultural determinants must not be ignored while analysing career orientation. D.C. Thomas and K. Inkson (2007, as cited in: Leighton et al. 2010) note that boundaryless career theories were developed in America, where the individualistic culture is widespread, and believe this makes sense in corporations. The European career model is inconsistent with the treatment of the employee as an "agency" freely choosing a career path (Leighton et al. 2010). Moreover, they argue that the importance of structural constraints, such as the segmentation of the labour market, institutional rules and organisational policy, is

underestimated, which may affect employees' behaviour. This is evidenced by research showing the significance of external factors, the labour market and differences in this respect across EU countries (e.g. Amable 2003; Muffels and Luijckx 2008, as cited in: Leighton et al. 2010).

Referring to our cultural context, research by Ł. Sienkiewicz (2009) demonstrates that

Poles exhibit relatively low professional mobility. They are mostly unwilling to change their profession, to retrain or incur high related costs. This is evident at the level of international comparisons. The percentage of people who have never changed their employer in Poland is one of the highest in the EU. Also, the average duration of employment is one of the longest, with low declarative willingness to change jobs in the near future.

This situation may indicate that Poles still expect the employer to treat them in line with relational rules and may have difficulty adapting to a transactional psychological contract. At this stage of discussion, however, it is still uncertain what this adaptation is and what it should involve. This problem will be elaborated on in the next chapter.

## References

- Bajcar, B., Borkowska, A., Czerw, A., Gąsiorowska, A., & Nosal, Cz. (2006). *Psychologia preferencji i zainteresowań zawodowych. Przegląd teorii i metod. [Psychology of professional preferences and interests. Review of theories and methods]*. Warszawa: MPiPS Departament Rynku Pracy.
- Bańka, A. (2006). Kapitał kariery – uwarunkowania, rozwój i adaptacja do zmian organizacyjnych oraz strukturalnych rynku pracy. [Career capital – conditions, development and adaptation to organizational and structural changes in the labour market]. In Z. Ratajczak, A. Bańka, & E. Turska (Eds.), *Współczesna psychologia pracy i organizacji. [Contemporary work and organizational psychology]*. Katowice: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego.
- Bohdziewicz, P. (2008). *Kariery zawodowe w gospodarce opartej na wiedzy (na przykładzie grupy zawodowej informatyków). [Professional careers in a knowledge-based economy (on the example of a professional group of IT specialists)]*. Łódź: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego.
- Flum, H., & Blustein, D. L. (2000). Reinvigorating the study of vocational exploration: A framework for research. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 56(3), 380–404. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.2000.1721>.
- Gerber, M., Wittekind, A., Grote, G., Conway, N., & Guest, D. (2009). Generalizability of career orientations: A comparative study in Switzerland and Great Britain. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 82, 779–801.
- Gubler, M., Arnold, J., & Coombs, C. (2014). Reassessing the protean career concept: Empirical findings, conceptual components, and measurement. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 35, February Supplement, S23–S40.
- Inkson, K., Gunz, H., Ganesh, S.I., & Roper, J. (2012). Boundaryless careers: Bringing back boundaries. *Organization Studies*, 33(3). doi: 10.1177/0170840611435600.

- Januszkiewicz, K. (2012). Sukces zawodowy w perspektywie jutra. [The professional success for tomorrow]. In S.A. Witkowski, & M. Stor (Eds.), *Sukces w zarządzaniu kadrami. Elastyczność w zarządzaniu kapitałem ludzkim. Volume 2. Problemy zarządczo-psychologiczne. [The success in human resources management. Flexibility in managing human capital. Volume 2. Management and psychological problems]*. Wrocław: Uniwersytet Ekonomiczny, 273–280.
- Kasprzak, E. (2013). *Poczucie jakości życia pracowników realizujących różne wzory kariery zawodowej. [The sense of the quality of life of employees pursuing various career patterns]*. Bydgoszcz: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu im Kazimierza Wielkiego.
- Leighton, P., Syrett, M., Hecker, R., & Holland, P. (2010). *Nowoczesne formy zatrudnienia. [Modern forms of employment]*. Warszawa: Wolters Kluwer Polska.
- Lukasiewicz, G. (2002). Kształtowanie karier zawodowych. [Shaping professional careers]. In A. Szałkowski (Ed.), *Rozwój personelu. [Staff development]*. Kraków: WAE, 71–92.
- Marzec, I., Jędrzejowicz, P., Van der Heijden, B.I.J.M., Bozionelos, N., Knauth, P., Scholarios, D., & Van der Schoot, E. (2009). Specjaliści ICT w polskich małych i średnich przedsiębiorstwach. [ICT specialists in Polish small and medium-sized enterprises]. *Zarządzanie Zasobami Ludzkimi*, 3(4), 68–69.
- Miś, A. (2007). *Koncepcja rozwoju kariery zawodowej w organizacji. [The concept of career development in an organization]*. Kraków: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego.
- Rifkin, J. (2003). *Koniec pracy. Schyłek siły roboczej na świecie i początek ery postrynkowej. [The end of work. The decline of the world's workforce and the beginning of the post-market era]*. Wrocław: Wydawnictwo Dolnośląskie.
- Savickas, M.L., Nota, L., Rossier, J., Dauwalder, J.P., Duarte, M.E., Guichard, J., Soresi, S., Van Esbroeck, R., & Van Vianen, A.E.M. (2009). Life designing: A paradigm for career construction in the 21st century. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 75, 239–250.
- Sienkiewicz, Ł. (2009). Elastyczność zawodowa Polaków jako determinanta decyzji zatrudnieniowych. [Professional flexibility of Poles as a determinant of employment decisions]. In M. Juchnowicz (Ed.), *Postawy Polaków wobec pracy w zarządzaniu kapitałem ludzkim. [Poles' attitudes towards work in human capital management]*. Kraków: Oficyna Wolters Kluwer.
- Standing, G. (2014). *Prekariat. Nowa niebezpieczna klasa. [The precariat. A new dangerous class]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Strykowska, M. (2002). Zawód-praca-kariera. Dynamika zmian w funkcjonowaniu współczesnych organizacji. [The occupation-job-career. Dynamics of changes in the functioning of contemporary organizations]. In M. Strykowska (Ed.), *Współczesne organizacje – wyzwania i zagrożenia. Perspektywa psychologiczna. [Contemporary organizations – challenges and threats. The psychological perspective]*. Poznań: Wydawnictwo Fundacji Humaniora.
- Sullivan, S.E. (1999). The changing nature of careers: A review and research agenda. *Journal of Management*, 25(3), 457–484.
- Super, D.E. (1957). *The psychology of careers; an introduction to vocational development*. New York: Harper & Bros.
- Świątek-Barylska, I. (2013). *Lojalność pracowników współczesnych organizacji. Istota i elementy składowe. [The loyalty of employees of modern organizations. The essence and components]*. Łódź: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego.
- Verbruggen, M. (2012). Psychological mobility and career success in the 'New' career climate. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 81, 289–297.

- Waters, L., Briscoe, J.P., Hall, D.T., & Wang, L. (2014). Protean career attitudes during unemployment and reemployment: A longitudinal perspective. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 84(3), 405–419.
- Zikic, J., & Saks, A.M. (2009). Job search and social cognitive theory: The role of career-relevant activities. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 74, 117–127.

# 7 Employability, marketability and employability competences in the changing labour market

## 7.1 Savickas's career construction model as a determinant of the employee's adaptation process

Following the considerations, it is concluded that the current situation of the employee requires a different approach to employee adaptation to the rules of the changing market and a transactional psychological contract. Some guidelines in this respect can be found in career theories.

Earlier career development theories, for example, that by D. Super (Bajcar et al. 2006), mention career adaptability, which signifies “the ability to maintain a balance between personal and professional environments through self-reflection, self-decisions, long-term planning, and search and occupation of subsequent positions in a life career.” This is associated with career maturity, meaning crystallisation and implementation of the concept of the “self” along with the ability to make occupation-related decisions (Bajcar et al. 2006).

As previously signalled while presenting traditional theories of career development, the basic shortcoming of this approach is the failure to consider the environmental dynamics and a short-term relationship with the employer. Importantly, career development under this approach follows the phases determined by age, which is impossible with several employers and more or less short-term employment. Therefore, this approach cannot be applied in the presented research.

An interesting concept considering the current realities was proposed by M.L. Savickas in cooperation with E.J. Porfeli (2012) in the career construction model. This theory takes into account employee flexibility, and mobility is understood specifically, though. It covers four elements of career development. The first of them – adaptivity – is the readiness to deal with imbalances or transitional states by responding in an appropriate manner. Such a response depends on the employee's personality traits that are usually related to flexibility and motivation to change. They constitute the employee's adaptability, that is potential psychological characteristics. It encompasses an individual's *resources* to cope with current and anticipated tasks and transitional states in professional roles, affecting the individual's social integration to a lesser or greater extent (Savickas 1997). These resources are connected with the functioning of an

individual in the environment. Thus, adaptability is a psychosocial construct. It helps form strategies used by individuals and their specific adaptation styles.

When individuals have the necessary resources and are ready, a *process* is triggered towards improving the activities performed, selecting strategies for career development, coping with transitional states so as to be prepared for various scenarios, that is adapting.

As a result, adaptation emerges, signifying that professional identity is formed based on the ability to adapt to a series of changes when moving from school to work and from one profession or employment to another. In this way, individuals develop certain professional harmony and contentment with adaptation, which is manifested as a sense of success, satisfaction and development, according to M.L. Savickas and E.J. Porfeli (2012). Adaptation is therefore considered here as a connection between readiness to adapt, adaptive abilities, adaptive response (reaction) and adaptive results.

In line with this model, the above-mentioned flexibility refers to adaptability as a personality trait helping to adapt. Mobility, on the other hand, is one of the strategies chosen by individuals while adapting. According to this concept, these terms thus cannot be used interchangeably. They are also insufficient conditions for the employee to adapt to the realities of the changing labour market.

This approach can be referred to as the employee's situation analysed in this monograph. As the rules of a relational contract gradually disappeared, the employee lost a number of benefits offered by permanent, long-term employment, as recounted above. Accordingly, the employee has to regain them in another way in new circumstances of a transactional contract. The point is that employees get what they need through acting appropriately to the circumstances and conditions.

Therefore, the adaptation process is associated with employees solving the following problems:

- 1) what do they expect and undertake; when do we believe that this moment has come;
- 2) what actions must they take to achieve the desired effect;
- 3) what skills must they have to be effective, and what does it depend on;
- 4) are they motivated to take adaptive actions?

Referring to the career construction model by M.L. Savickas and E.J. Porfeli (2012), the first question concerns the effects proving that adaptation has been achieved. The second one pertains to actions that make up the adapting process defining the way in which an individual shapes the relationship with the environment. The third question refers to adaptability resulting from personality traits, and the fourth one concerns readiness, that is adaptivity.

Answering these questions allows for the employee's professional situation to be analysed comprehensively in the new realities of the changing labour market.

This approach will be applied to investigate the employee's situation and identify the goals to be achieved under a new transactional psychological contract. Subsequently, the necessary actions to be taken to that effect will be defined, along with the results obtained in this way and the indicators of the achieved state of adaptation. Thereby, it will be possible to attempt to identify the competences that an employee should have for efficient adaptation to the changing labour market.

## **7.2 Employability and marketability of the employee as solutions to job insecurity**

It is worth noting here that under a traditional psychological relational contract, employees received education that prepared them to work for one employer throughout their lifetime. The employer ensured their professional development and planned the promotion path within one organisation. The career path was strongly controlled by the employer. Employer-employee relations were protective and paternalistic. This was a consequence of the employer guaranteeing secure employment, while the employee reciprocated with loyalty understood as a commitment to refrain from looking for another employer. This was reflected in incentive systems, career path plans, successor lists, etc. and a general approach to human resource management (Kostera 2010).

The current employer-employee relations rely on a transactional contract. Employees must be aware that they will leave the employer and work for several employers throughout their working lives. The training process in the current workplace will be focused on developing only those competences that will be needed to achieve the business goals of a particular employer, ignoring the plans of individual employees. Employees must cope with job insecurity and the risk of remaining unemployed in between jobs, which should be treated as a natural state rather than a failure.

The employee's situation thus involves constant shifts from employment, through shorter or longer stages of its loss, search or even unemployment, to re-employment. Paradoxically, looking for a job is, therefore, a continuous process, whether one is employed or unemployed. One employer will no longer guarantee job security, a former basis for adaptation to the work environment. Employees must tackle the deficits otherwise.

From the demand and supply perspective, in addition to being workers of a particular enterprise, employees are also active labour market actors, members of the employee community who provide specific services in response to the needs of employers. It is important for them to identify with this role and be able to behave accordingly. They are employees of a given enterprise's structure but somehow remain beyond it.

Working within one organisation and performing duties in a given job, individuals must thus take into account that their "services" for the enterprise will cease to be needed. This means that they should control what they can do so as

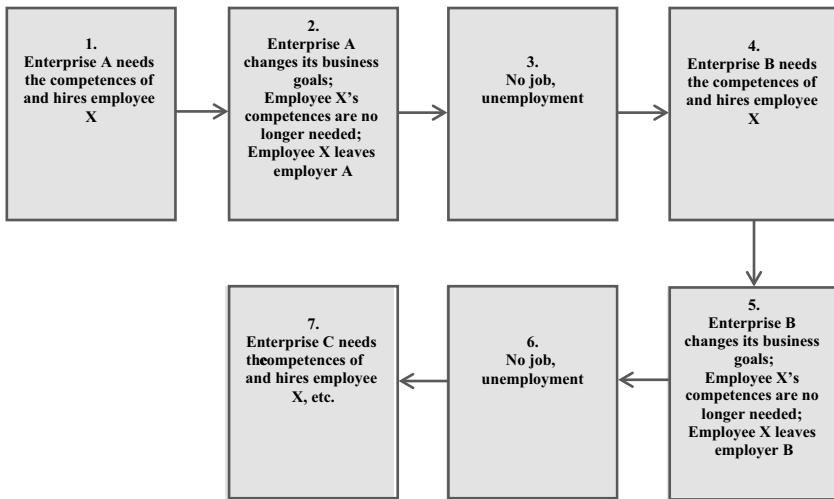


Figure 7.1 Employee's Professional Life in the Changing Labour Market

(Compiled by the Author)

to attract the interest of a potential next employer. It can be seen here that the employee, and the organisation alike, must manage an “ageing” portfolio of competences and “refresh” it in response to the needs of the environment.

Having a job, that is regaining a sense of job security lost together with a relational psychological contract or reducing job insecurity, is thus conditioned by employees developing demand for their skills among other employers. The employee should preferably have a set of skills to be resorted to depending on the demand from potential employers. As claimed by A. Giddens (2004), economic globalisation and demand for flexible employees will result in a growing number of *employees in the portfolio*, that is people with a range of skills and recommendations from previous jobs that they can use in their professional life, performing several professions and working at various positions. This offers tangible benefits. For example, in the UK, young graduates can find work in eleven different occupations thanks to three different types of qualifications acquired in their professional life (Giddens 2004).

Employees' task is thus to build a competence portfolio as an offer of skills for potential employers. In combination with gained experience and a network of social relationships, individuals accumulate career capital (Bańka 2006). The competitiveness of this competence portfolio in the labour market is determined by its marketability. All this serves to maintain the renewability of employment so that this process runs relatively smoothly, continuously and with the shortest possible periods of unemployment. The ability to achieve such a status is defined by employability<sup>1</sup> (Thijssen 1998). It is supposed to be a source of security based on employment rather than jobs for one employer. Employability is a quantitative indicator of how many job offers an individual can receive in

the external labour market. It shows how likely an individual is to find employment within an acceptable time and estimates the employment opportunities (Fugate et al. 2004; Hall 2002; Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden 2006, as cited in: De Vos et al. 2011).

E. Berntson and S. Marklund (2007, as cited in: De Cuyper et al. 2008) studied Swedish employees and showed that employability is positively correlated with the welfare and well-being of individuals, yet this correlation is mediated by low job insecurity. As claimed by N. De Cuyper et al. (2008), highly employable individuals can favourably interpret today's labour market and the turbulent economy as a challenge rather than a disadvantage. As a result, this may make them less vulnerable to job insecurity. Conversely, those less employable may treat this situation as a hindrance and perceive it as heavily insecure working conditions. This is corroborated by the studies by E. Berntson and S. Marklund (2007, as cited in: De Cuyper et al. 2008), who showed that organisational changes cause a sense of job insecurity in people with low employability. It can therefore be assumed that employability is a way in which to regain the lost sense of job security. N. De Cuyper et al. (2008) associate employability with mental comfort. Foremost, high employability offers a sense of control over a professional career, thereby improving an individual's well-being. They refer to the deliberations by E. Berntson (2007, as cited in: De Cuyper et al. 2008), who argues that employability may reduce the fear of unemployment as it provides employees with more choices and alternatives, thereby weakening their sense of helplessness. This finding is particularly important since many Polish studies (Klonowicz 2001), especially psychological ones, strongly stress the negative effects of individuals being no longer affiliated with one workplace throughout their lifetime. As can be seen, this situation may also produce positive psychological effects. Especially so that, as shown by Ch. Trevor (2001) and J. Pfeffer (1998, as cited in: De Cuyper et al. 2008), highly employable people are more prone to change their unsatisfactory job. Therefore, they do not perceive themselves as trapped in a workplace where they feel bad. High employability is thus conducive to finding the most satisfying job.

The definition of an individual's position in the labour market is supplemented by marketability. It is a qualitative indicator of an individual's position in the labour market. Like employability, it is also subjective. According to Eby et al. (2003), marketability specifies how much individuals are convinced that their competences are appreciated in both internal (within the organisation) and external labour market by current and/or potential employers. It also determines an individual's position in relation to other competing employees. It indicates how rare and demanded the competences in an individual's portfolio are or whether there are many people who can do the same work. Competences may ensure employment (high employability) but may not be particularly valued and/or easy to learn. Thus, an employee may be replaced quickly by another, hence low marketability. As argued by A. De Vos et al. (2011), marketability is a completely different construct from employability because it covers another, deeper aspect of competences. It involves the perceived added value

that an individual brings to the labour market as positive and unique outputs of that individual's work.

In this monograph, employability and marketability are treated as a way of reducing the sense of job insecurity. Thanks to this, employees adapt to transactional rules since they retrieve what they used to have under a relational psychological contract. A.K. Koźmiński (2008) claims this situation is true for every labour market actor.

The employability and marketability rules are universal, although they certainly do not apply to everyone in the same way. The situation of individual employees may differ in the number of jobs, the length of employment with one employer, the number and length of periods of unemployment and the frequency of such changes. M. Suchar (2010) proposes the following dimensions to describe career development: mobility (low-high), rotation (typical-high), continuity (continuous-non-continuous), verticality (flattened-steep career).

These differences may occur in the cross-section of jobs and individual segments of the labour market (Bańka 2006). This is above all conditioned by the employee group, according to the typology by Ch. Handy described above, that an employee belongs to within a specific organisation. Employability must definitely be built by the third group of peripheral employees with low qualifications who do not have to be constantly present for the organisation to operate. Their employment activity is enforced. Core employees who have key competences for the organisation are in a different position. This does not mean that this mechanism does not concern them at all, but it is more voluntary and depends on the decisions and initiative of the employee. Undoubtedly, all employees are more or less under time pressure and must "devote a growing amount of time to work-for-labour" (Standing 2014, p. 263).

Nonetheless, it must not be forgotten that "employability and ability to pursue a career in employment is a function of personal resources and objective conditions in the labour market." From the perspective of the human capital theory, employability ensues from the match between the portfolio of individual skills and labour demand and supply (Bańka 2006, p. 80).

Up to this point, the employee's situation in new, transactional relations with the employer has been discussed, along with the results that must be striven for in order to reduce job insecurity, which can be assumed as an adaptation indicator.

The further part will attempt to identify the competences that employees must possess to build their employability and marketability while adapting to the changing labour market.

### **7.3 Employability competences and their significance for the employee in a transactional psychological contract**

The deliberations so far suggest that while operating in a transactional-contract relation with the employer, employees find that they have to take actions aimed at building and maintaining employability and marketability. This activity is

permanent. Even if they have a job, employees should therefore include in their repertoire of activities the following activities, in addition to performing their professional duties:

- monitoring whether their competences are up to date and needed in the internal and external labour market;
- building and updating their portfolio of current competences, competences potentially needed in the future and the so-called transferable competences<sup>2</sup> that can be relocated and used by another employer;
- participating in a self-organised development process, irrespective of training provided by the current employer;
- actively searching for employers and personal branding in order to convince potential employers about their value and the benefits of their employment;
- permanently monitoring the activity of other competing employees in the labour market rather than checking it only when applying for a particular job;
- coping with uncertainty and the fact that they will leave employers, thus perhaps remaining unemployed for some time and treating it as a natural state rather than a failure;
- acting independently and taking responsibility for professional development.

These are actions that did not need to be essentially taken or were taken only to a small extent by employees in traditionally managed organisations following the Ford pattern. Flexible human resource management (post-Fordism) and the resulting transactional system mean that employees, in addition to purely professional skills related to job efficiency, must develop extra competences supporting them in this activity. This is necessary to deal with new realities.

It can therefore be stated that when the employer-employee relationship was traditional, working employees had to first of all have professional skills (Ratajczak 2007) necessary for the proper performance of duties and tasks involved in the job. In a new situation based on transactional rules, according to Beheshtifar and Zare (2013), career development goes beyond what was previously known as the assessment of strengths and weaknesses in the context of skills, ensuring the quality of work at a specific position. New skills are necessary such that employees do not have to possess earlier. The problem, however, is how to identify them, which is indispensable while seeking an answer to the question about how to adapt to the changing labour market.

As argued by M.L. Savickas et al. (2009), this issue is not satisfactorily addressed by static descriptions of personality or professional interests relevant to traditional career counselling because they do not take into account the relationship of an individual with the changing work environment.

Many people with a traditional career ideology, in particular believers in the myth of higher education, are convinced about their career security. [...] What is most common is those in employment believing that their career is

developing safely and changing their minds and attitude to investment in career capital only under the stress caused by an approaching job loss. [...] It is only in a stressful situation that they catch up as regards new career competences.

(Bańka 2006, p. 91)

Therefore, this monograph follows A. Bańka in adopting a broad career definition, assuming that “it is a sequence of jobs, roles, activities and experiences gained by individuals throughout their lives” (Bańka 2006, p. 14).

Such an approach to professional development requires employees to master and advance skills, abilities and competences that are completely different from those required in the 20th century (Savickas et al. 2009).

In consequence, individuals must have special skills and competences that will help them deal with the described transactional psychological contract. They constitute a basket of new competences that condition adaptation to a transactional contract and are the adapting activities described earlier in Savickas’s career construction model.

It is assumed that skills directly related to the quality of tasks performed in a job are lower-order skills. Yet, the key to navigating through the new realities of flexible management is higher-order competences termed metacompetences by M. Beheshtifar and E. Zare (2013). They are defined as the ability to learn, assess the availability of and properly use personal competences. In their opinion, the prerequisite for development of these competences is the introspective and self-leadership capability while acquiring and maintaining employability in order to achieve employment-based security rather than that based on a job as it used to be (Beheshtifar and Zare 2013).

To recap, the employee’s situation in the changing labour market involves no further guarantee of employment and professional development with a single employer. In their professional activity, employees must take this into account and undertake actions that will allow them to regain the lost elements in a different way than before. This is possible through employability and marketability based on the portfolio of competences and career capital.

In order to possess these, employees, having to relatively frequently look for work interrupted by periodic unemployment, must launch a set of specific actions that go beyond their professional responsibilities. They must be able to function in this way and thus need specific employability competences.

### ***7.3.1 Employability competences in Polish studies***

Polish studies do not explicitly refer to employability competences so construed. Some papers mention this matter and analyse semantically similar issues. As regards the purposes of this monograph, it is important to systematise the terminology and clearly specify what competences are being identified. The Polish literature on human resource management contains no detailed analysis or specification of these skills. It rather draws on the traditional repertoire of

notions and theoretical approaches to professional competences related to the performance of work.

Optionally, it emphasises the need for other variables but builds upon a general set of arbitrarily chosen personality traits. M. Strykowska (2003) lists factors that allow for coping in today's labour market, in particular: knowledge, creative thinking, self-reliance, interpersonal skills, knowledge of market trends and knowledge of the profession. She (2003) emphasises the importance of proactivity, entrepreneurship and flexibility. She indicates the need to retrain and consider many alternatives. She believes that individuals should have a vision of what they want and pursue.

M. Stasiakiewicz (2003) reports another approach serving the systematisation of the problem of coping with new labour realities. In her opinion,

diligence, adherence to proven procedures and specialist professionalism are no longer sufficient. What is becoming increasingly indispensable is mind openness, creation of new knowledge, ability to motivate and commit. From a psychological point of view, these requirements apply to four types of psychological functioning:

- flexibility and readiness to change;
- cognitive openness – ability to search for and use various information sources;
- continuous learning and acquiring new knowledge and skills;
- prospective attitudes and ways of thinking – enabling anticipation of challenges and creation of new possibilities of action.

(Stasiakiewicz 2003, pp. 13–22)

The importance and role of these features are undeniable. The problem, however, is that they are not specific to the achievement of employability. The same skills also matter in other areas of an individual's life; they do not take into consideration the specificity and uniqueness of the issue in question and are equally material in managerial activity, for example.

As already mentioned, considering the employee's situation in the new reality of the changing labour market in the context of permanent psychological and temperamental predispositions has limited application possibilities. This approach describes certain features but does not provide any information about an effective set of behaviours that can be used to build employability and marketability. Undoubtedly, a set of features is a meaningful source of information about the constraints on, barriers to, and determinants of adaptation. Still, this perspective makes it difficult to obtain clear clues about what the employee should do in the changing labour market. There is no pattern of behaviours that would ensure adaptation to the rules of a transactional psychological contract.

Attempts to refer directly to an individual's professional situation in Poland were made by Fryczyńska and Jabłońska-Wołoszyn (2008), who developed a diagnostic tool for determining a so-called career index depending on the level

of competences important for professional development as identified by those authors. In their opinion, these include:

- self-awareness – knowledge about oneself;
- knowledge – knowledge resources, value, uniqueness, validity;
- adaptability – openness to change, readiness to act under uncertainty, ability to easily adapt to the environment;
- entrepreneurship – ability to spot opportunities and take action under risk;
- relations – establishing and maintaining social relations;
- commitment – motivation to persevere driven by the need for achievement;
- usefulness of actions relevant to objectives and projects undertaken.

(Fryczyńska a Jabłońska-Wołoszyn 2008, pp. 21–22)

This approach also lacks justification for the selection of specific competences and statistical verification that would confirm their usefulness for adaptation to the changing labour market.

A certain systematisation and adjustment attempt in view of employability specifics, which is nonetheless not devoid of the above-mentioned limitations, is the employability model proposed by B.I.J. Van der Heijden (Marzec et al. 2009) and covers five dimensions of competences:

- personal flexibility – ability to adapt to the external and internal labour market;
- occupational expertise – specialist knowledge and skills;
- optimisation and anticipation – ability to anticipate and prepare for changes and to strive to achieve the best possible results;
- corporate sense – a sense of togetherness, “group sense”; also representing an individual’s social skills;
- balance – ability to achieve a balance between the interest of the employee and the interest of the organisation and between work life and private life.

In this case, the set of employability competences also covers those related to the professional and psychological functioning.

The above approaches are unsatisfactory. There is a basic problem involved, namely the randomness of the analysed features. It is not ascertained whether the repertoire of factors and skills is exhaustive.

### ***7.3.2 Selected theories of employability competences in foreign studies***

Foreign literature covers several approaches that are relatively closely related to the discussed issue of the employee’s adaptive activity. One approach is presented by A.B. de Guzman and K.O. Choi (2013). They introduce the notion of employability

skills that they believe refer to general and non-technical competences necessary for the proper performance of responsibilities at each position.

They argue that such skills are identified as the most critical in the current global labour market. These are “skills which cut horizontally across all industries and vertically across all jobs from entry level to chief executive officer” (Sherer and Eadie 1987, p. 16, as cited in: De Guzman and Ok Choi 2013). They are also termed core skills or skills of the 21st century. Following their proposal, the term “employability skills” has been commonly accepted. In line with the definition developed by S.L. Robinson (2000, as cited in: De Guzman and Ok Choi 2013), employability skills signify fundamental skills needed to get, keep and properly perform work. According to DEST (2002, as cited in: De Guzman and Choi 2013), they include communication, teamwork, problem-solving, self-management, planning and organisation, knowledge of technology, lifelong learning and entrepreneurial skills. In their research, A.B. de Guzman and K.O. Choi (2013) showed a particularly strong relationship between employability and teamwork skills.

The nature and role of these skills are best reflected by another term assigned to them, namely “transferable competences”<sup>3</sup> – those common to all types of work. What they essentially involve is that an individual transfers them to another workplace regardless of the type and nature of the work performed. As claimed by S. O’Mahony and B.A. Bechky (2006), these skills are unquestionable attributes of employees who use them no matter what the work context is.

With regard to the discussed adaptation to the changing labour market, this approach is unsatisfactory as these competences are components of an individual’s competence portfolio and career capital. They involve the ability to perform tasks well in a given job, with the assumptions of employee mobility and boundaryless career. These competences, however, are not directly related to coping with employability building (they only support this process) and are not metacompetences.

The situation is slightly better in the case of the so-called smart career that, according to G. Łukasiewicz (2002; Bańka, 2006), encompasses the employee’s knowledge in the following areas:

- know-why – based on self-knowledge about values, needs, identity and lifestyle, an individual sets career goals;
- know-how – qualifications, competences that are necessary (explicit, hidden, experience);
- know-whom – networking;
- know-where – where to get what is needed – training, professionalisation;
- know-when – schedules of individual choices and activities.

Another proposal concerns competences that determine career success and was indicated by D.T. Hall (Bohdziewicz 2008). He identifies two levels: metacompetences, including professional identity and adaptability, and operational competences comprising knowledge and professional skills.

The approaches presented below are conceptualisation attempts following the adopted assumptions of competences referred to in this monograph as employability competences.

The first one, which has also appeared in Polish studies (Kožusznik and Adamiec 2001), is career self-management. This model was theoretically developed by R.A. Noe (1996, as cited in: Weng and McElroy 2010). He designed a diagnostic tool covering three dimensions: career exploration, career goal planning, and career strategy implementation. This model has a fundamental drawback – according to M.L. Savickas (1997, 2009), this approach refers to career development stages relevant to traditional career development theories (e.g. that by D. Super). He argues that the three-dimensional model does not ensure that all necessary adaptive behaviours are included in the new labour market situation based on a transactional relationship.

Referring to the aforementioned concept of career construction, M.L. Savickas (Koen et al. 2010) introduces the concept of “career adaptation” described earlier. He focuses on how people use their professional personality to adapt to a sequence of changing jobs. He strives to specify an employee’s career structure proceeding through many workplaces that one may be employed at during working life. In the constructed diagnostic tool, the Career Adapt Abilities Scale (CAAS), Savickas takes into account four dimensions that determine an employee’s adaptation capabilities: planning, decision making, exploration and confidence.

Current research shows that the tool is likely to predict the possibilities of an individual being re-employed. It was used in the research reported in this study to verify the usefulness of my own unique diagnostic tool for employability competences. It is described in detail in the methodological part of this monograph.

Other approaches differ in competences identified and included in the “basket” of career competences by researchers. Beheshtifar and Zare (2013) propose to cover the following:

- career-actualisation ability;
- motivation reflection;
- work exploration;
- career control;
- networking.

Similarly to other approaches, this one also lacks justification for the selection of competences and statistical verification that would confirm the usefulness and cognitive, diagnostic and predictive value of the model.

Some of these shortcomings have been remedied in the relatively new approach by J. Akkermans et al. (2015), who developed an interesting model of career competences and a relevant diagnostic tool. They point out that employees are increasingly expected to take responsibility for managing their careers. Faced with these challenges, employees must actively seek employment opportunities

both inside and outside their current workplace. J. Akkermans et al. (2015) made an attempt to answer the following questions: what are the most important relevant metacompetences that help them achieve employability, and how to assess and measure such metacompetences? Their model covers three dimensions, each containing two competences:

- reflective – these competences involve the creation of mindfulness, concentration on the career:
  - reflection on motivation – values, passion and professional development in general;
  - reflection on qualities – focus on strengths, weaknesses and abilities related to the personal career;
- communicative – ability to effectively communicate with significant ones in order to enhance, improve and increase one's chances of success in one's career:
  - networking – sensitivity, concentration on values and ability to expand a network of relationships in view of career goals;
  - self-profiling – presentation and communication of one's knowledge, skills and capacities in the internal and external labour market;
- behavioural – competences needed by employees in order to be able to shape their careers on an ongoing basis by taking action and to be proactive:
  - work exploration – active exploration of and search for possibilities and opportunities for work and career development in the internal and external labour market;
  - career control – active-controlled learning and work for a career by setting goals and developing plans towards the attainment of these goals.

The selection of these competences for the model was already justified in earlier studies by M. Kuijpers et al. (2006), who conducted quantitative surveys among 1,579 employees in 16 Danish enterprises in order to examine the relationship between career competences and professional development. The research results confirm the significance of these factors, in particular, a close link between career and the dimensions of career control and networking.

Akkermans et al. (2015) performed a psychometric analysis of the diagnostic tool for these competences, with satisfactory results. Cronbach's alphas for individual scales in the questionnaire range from 0.72 to 0.93.

However, the selection of individual components for the pattern of adaptive behaviours towards the changing labour market is still to be justified. Although the role of individual competences has been demonstrated and their usefulness has been confirmed statistically, the question arises whether the model as a whole should include other adaptive competences.

In order to solve this dilemma, it is necessary to analyse the employee's situation in a specific and more detailed manner. The next section presents the

approach that should tackle this problem. It is my own proposal that will be verified within a research process.

## Notes

- 1 It should be noted that the approach to employability adopted in this monograph follows the Anglo-Saxon perspective. It is well described in scientific studies and prevails in the European Union's policy. It is worth emphasising that, as pointed out by Prof. A. Bańka in his review, the German scientific tradition also covers a slightly different approach, as exemplified by the worker-entrepreneur theory developed by Andreas Frey and Johannes Grill (2015). It broadens the view on the employee's activity to include the opportunity to fulfil oneself in one's job and build one's identity.
- 2 This notion is explained here in below.
- 3 Transferable competences are extensively discussed in a monograph by S. Konarski and D. Turek (2010).

## References

- Akkermans, J., Brenninkmeijer, V., Schaufeli, W.B., & Roland, W.B. (2015, July–August). Blonk It's all about careerskills: Effectiveness of a career development intervention for young employees. *Human Resource Management*, 54(4), 533–551. doi: 10.1002/hrm.21633.
- Bajcar, B., Borkowska, A., Czerw, A., Gąsiorowska, A., & Nosal, Cz. (2006). *Psychologia preferencji i zainteresowań zawodowych. Przegląd teorii i metod. [Psychology of professional preferences and interests. Review of theories and methods]*. Warszawa: MPiPS Departament Rynku Pracy.
- Bańka, A. (2006). Kapitał kariery – uwarunkowania, rozwój i adaptacja do zmian organizacyjnych oraz strukturalnych rynku pracy. [Career capital – conditions, development and adaptation to organizational and structural changes in the labor market]. In Z. Ratajczak, A. Bańka, & E. Turska (Eds.), *Współczesna psychologia pracy i organizacji. [Contemporary psychology of work and organization]*. Katowice: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego.
- Beheshtifar, M., & Zare, E. (2013, May). Relationship between competencies career and organizational success. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, 5(1). <http://ijcrb.webs.com>
- Bohdziewicz, P. (2008). *Kariery zawodowe w gospodarce opartej na wiedzy (na przykładzie grupy zawodowej informatyków). [Professional careers in a knowledge-based economy (on the example of a professional group of IT specialists)]*. Łódź: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego.
- De Cuyper, N., Bernhard-Oettel, C., Berntson Hans De Witte, E., & Alarco, K.U.B. (2008). Employability and employees' well-being: Mediation by job insecurity. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 57(3), 488–509. doi: 10.1111/j.1464-0597.2008.00332.x.
- De Guzman, B.A., & Ok Choi, K. (2013). The relations of employability skills to career adaptability among technical school students. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 82, 199–207.
- De Vos, A., De Hauw, S., & Van der Heijden, B. (2011). Competency development and career success: The mediating role of employability. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 79, 438–447.

- Eby, L.T., Butts, M., & Lockwood, A. (2003). Predictors of success in the era of the boundaryless career. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24, 689–708.
- Fryczyńska, M., & Jabłońska-Wołoszyn, M. (2008). *Praktyczny przewodnik rozwoju zawodowego pracowników. [A practical guide to professional development of employees]*. Warszawa: Placet.
- Giddens, A. (2004). *Socjologia. [Sociology]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Klonowicz, T. (2001). *Stres bezrobocia. [Stress of unemployment]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Instytutu Psychologii PAN, SWPS.
- Koen, J., Klehe, U.Ch., Annelies, E.M., Vianen, V., Zikic, J., & Nauta, A. (2010). Job-search strategies and reemployment quality. The impact of career adaptability. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 77, 126–139.
- Kostera, M. (2010). *Zarządzanie personelem. [Personnel management]*. Warszawa: PWE.
- Koźmiński, A.K. (2008). *Koniec świata menedżerów. [The end of managers word]* Warszawa: WAIp.
- Kożusznik, B., & Adamiec, M. (2001). *Sztuka zarządzania sobą. [The art of self management]*. Warszawa: PWE.
- Kuijpers, M., Schyns, B., & Scheeren, J. (2006). Career competencies for career success. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 55, 169–170.
- Łukasiewicz, G. (2002). Kształtowanie karier zawodowych. [Shaping professional careers]. In A. Szałkowski (Ed.), *Rozwój personelu. [Personnel development]*. Kraków: WAE, 71–92.
- Marzec, I., Jędrzejowicz, P., Van der Heijden, B.I.J.M., Bozionelos, N., Knauth, P., Scholarios, D., & Van der Schoot, E. (2009). Specjaliści ICT w polskich małych i średnich przedsiębiorstwach. [ICT specialists in Polish small and medium-sized enterprises]. *Zarządzanie Zasobami Ludzkimi [The Human Resources Management]*, 3–4(68–69), 90–103.
- O'Mahony, S., & Bechky, B.A. (2006). Managing the career progression paradox in external labor markets. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49(5), 918–941.
- Ratajczak, Z. (2007). *Psychologia pracy i organizacji. [Work and organizational psychology]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Savickas, M., & Porfeli, E. (2012). Career Adapt-Abilities Scale: Construction, reliability, and measurement equivalence across 13 countries. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 80, 661–673.
- Savickas, M.L. (1997). Adaptability: An integrative construct for life-span, life-space theory. *Career Development Quarterly*, 45, 247–259.
- Savickas, M.L., Nota, L., Rossier, J., Dauwalder, J.P., Duarte, M.E., Guichard, J., Soresi, S., Van Esbroeck, R., & van Vianen, A.E.M. (2009). Life designing: A paradigm for career construction in the 21st century. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 75, 239–250.
- Standing, G. (2014). *Prekariat. Nowa niebezpieczna klasa. [The precariat. A new dangerous class]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Stasiakiewicz, M. (2003). *Kompetencje twórcze a współczesny rynek pracy. [Creative competences and the contemporary labor market]*. *Acta Universitatis Nicolais Copernici. Socjologia wychowania. [Acta Universitatis Nicolais Copernici. Sociology of education]*. 15 (360). Toruń: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu M. Kopernika, 13–22.
- Strykowska, M. (2003). Adaptacja do przeobrażeń na rynku pracy. [Adaptation to transformations in the labour market]. *Acta Universitatis Nicolais Copernici. Socjologia wychowania. [Acta Universitatis Nicolais Copernici. Sociology of education]*. 15 (360). Toruń: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu M. Kopernika, 3–12.

- Suchar, M. (2010). *Modele karier. Przewidywanie kolejnego kroku. [Career models. Anticipating the next step]*. Warszawa: C. H. Beck.
- Thijssen, J.G.L. (1998). *Employability and lifelong learning*. Leuven, Belgium: Katholieke Universiteit Leuven.
- Weng, Q., & McElroy, J.C. (2010). Vocational self-concept crystallization as a mediator of the relationship between career self-management and job decision effectiveness. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 76, 234–243.

# 8 Employability Market Orientation as the employee's response to the rules of the changing labour market

## 8.1 Employee as a micro-entrepreneur in the labour market

The below-presented approach to employee adaptation starts from the assumption that the employee is an active, independent entity in a relation with the employer and does not have to accept all dictated conditions. R. Hodson (2001, p. 50, as cited in: Kalleberg 2009) argues that “workers are not passive victims of social structure. They are active agents.” As Arne L. Kalleberg (2009) claims, “workers can resist management strategies of control and act autonomously to give meaning to their work.” Employees are able to consciously influence their professional situation in response to the realities in which they have found themselves and create it in accordance with their needs. Consequently, employees become equal partners for the employer, who must reckon with them and take into account their independent decisions. The question only arises as to what pattern of behaviour an employee should activate to achieve the state of adaptation measured by high employability and a low level of job insecurity.

A certain hint as to the direction of the search can be found in the statement by P. Bohdziewicz (2010, 2012, pp. 293–303) that “today’s disappearing bureaucratic relational paradigm of professional career is increasingly replaced by an entrepreneurial paradigm, which makes the individual the main entity managing own professional career.” M.L. Savickas et al. (1997, 2009) even state that the new labour market in the changing economy does not require perceiving a career as a lifelong commitment to one employer, but it is the sale of services and skills to multiple employers who need them to carry out their projects.

In management, A.K. Koźmiński (2008, pp. 51–52) treats the employee as an

independent economic agent, acting single-handedly in the market. It is essentially the mentality of an entrepreneur and a manager who single-handedly manages a kind of portfolio of assets that the employee represents with specific qualifications, experience, connections and personal property.

That is why W. Lanthaler and J. Zugmann (2000) argue that the employee must become an entrepreneur of own professional "self."<sup>1</sup>

Only, the question arises whether it concerns all professional groups. The answer is provided by A.K. Koźmiński (2008), who claims that

this new life philosophy and new mentality tend to be wrongly associated exclusively with high income, education and prestige, and especially with 'liberal professions.' Yet, more active taxi drivers, beauticians, cleaners, waiters, nurses and others have the same approach to life. They all share high mobility and a tendency to take additional effort and extra risk to improve their own lives.

(Koźmiński 2008, pp. 51–52)

Therefore, the employee can be treated as a one-person enterprise that operates in the market and sells its competence offer (Koźmiński 2013).

If so, then the marketing perspective may be a useful source of guidance for seeking employability competences and building an adaptive pattern of behaviour. It seems logically legitimate to refer to the marketing approach and, by analogical inference, to identify those behaviours that an individual operating as a one-person economic entity must activate. The resulting pattern of behaviour created by deduction can be treated as a way to achieve the state of adaptation to the changing labour market.

It is worth noting at this point that the management theory can offer examples of useful implementation of the marketing perspective in the area of human resource management (Baruk 2006; Zbiegień-Maciąg 1996).

## **8.2 Extrapolation of the marketing perspective to the employee level**

According to the main representative of the marketing theory, P. Kotler, market rules are based on exchange, which is the act of obtaining the desired product from another person and offering something in return. (...) The event of a simple exchange can be illustrated by showing the flow of desires and offers between two participants (Kotler 2000, p. 12).

Thus viewed, employees offer their portfolios of competences to employers, and in return, they receive remuneration and an opportunity to develop skills, experience and recommendations, which enrich their career capital. According to Ch. Handy (1998), we are thus dealing, as Americans would put it, with an individual initiative supported by the organisation.

For this reason, "in the theory of human capital, employability is interpreted as a matter derivative from the adjustment of the level of accumulated talents and competences to the labour supply and demand game" (Bańka 2006).

Therefore, building an individual's employability and marketability involves maintaining continuity of exchange between the individual and employers. According to A.K. Koźmiński (2013), this gives rise to the development of

mentality of a 'free mercenary', that is someone who temporarily sells own services to various buyers treated as contractors, not as 'employers' or 'superiors', and with whom that person does not identify in any way, having regard to own benefits only.

If so, this leads to a multitude of consequences in the behaviour of employees towards employers, which should be taken into account in the manner of implementing the personnel function, which will be presented in the final part of the study.

P. Kotler (2002) distinguishes the approaches that may become apparent in the course of exchange. These include the selling approach and the marketing approach. In the first selling approach, the starting point is what sellers can do and, being concentrated on their own needs, how they want to convert the offer into money. By analogy, one can similarly treat an individual's career path in accordance with the earlier relational psychological contract. Employees completed the education process and expected to find buyers for their skills who would, in exchange, offer remuneration, job security and professional promotion. The analysis of demand for employee skills was reduced to a minimum. It was virtually certain that there would be a buyer-employer because such was the labour market realities. The exchange transaction occurred, in principle, with one employer and continued throughout the individual's professional life. This approach was supported by traditional concepts of professional development, treating them as running in a stable, relatively unchanging environment of the organisation.

The second marketing approach consists in striving to meet customer needs, which becomes the starting point. The new realities of the changing labour market characterised by volatility and unpredictability, expressed in a transactional psychological contract between the employer and the employee, forcing the adoption of a marketing approach focused on a continuous analysis of the needs of numerous entities involved in the exchange, on the part of both the employee and the employer. In this case, activity does not consist in finding the right customers for the product but in finding the right product for customers (Kotler 2002, p. 19). As for the employee, this product is the employee's competence portfolio, which is as much as possible tailored to the needs of employers.

### **8.3 Employability Market Orientation: basic assumptions and structure**

Viewed from the marketing perspective, the functioning of an organisation involves the performance of multiple actions mentioned by P. Kotler. In the below-presented inference procedure, these actions were assigned the corresponding activities relevant to the professional functioning of employees. This logic was applied to the realities prevalent between the employer and the employee and the exchange process as well as the flow of offers and needs were

analysed. This gave rise to a pattern of behaviours specific to employability competences. By analogy, the inference process that was followed allowed for identifying actions of importance for individuals to develop their employability. Therefore, the marketing perspective was borrowed and implemented to construct a coherent model of employee behaviours in the changing labour market. It is assumed that if individuals engage in such activity, it implies that they initiate the process of adapting to the new realities within the meaning of the above described career construction model by M.L. Savickas. An indicator of this is the achievement of employability, marketability and a relatively low level of job insecurity.

Thus, a set of employee behaviours related to the professional functioning of an individual was determined from the marketing perspective. It was termed Employability Market Orientation (EMO) of the employee.<sup>2</sup> It is a behaviour pattern ensuing from higher-order employability competences that go beyond those necessary to perform job responsibilities. It serves to build employability and marketability of the employee, ultimately leading to job insecurity reduction. It is specific to relations with employers based on the rules of a transactional psychological contract and adaptable to the changing labour market.

Competences for Employability Market Orientation were selected in the following way. First, a specific set of actions was identified from the marketing perspective; then, it was matched with an analogous, closest theoretical equivalent relating to the functioning of an individual, developed on the basis of modern theories of professional development. The abbreviated general inference process is presented below, and the definitions of individual employability competences are discussed in further sub-chapters.

The first action of the marketing approach is to get to know and monitor customer needs and control the activity of other competitors in the market. Career Exploration can be considered to be an analogous action in the professional functioning of the employee.

The next marketing action is creating an offer for the customer and learning about its advantages and disadvantages in terms of value for the customer. Employees should do likewise and strive to acquire the skills making up the portfolio of competences that results from their Vocational Self-Concept Crystallisation and Career Planning. This gives rise to a portfolio of employee competences, which is an offer for the employer.

The next step of the marketing approach is to establish contact with a potential customer and promote the prepared offer. Employees must also make contact with employers and take care of their image in the labour market through a specific Career Strategy<sup>3</sup> Implementation. It can be interpersonal – then it is networking, or intrapersonal – when employees develop their competences in the training process.

Market actions are a continuous process and must be implemented within a certain timeframe, with constant control of the needs of various customers and the activity of the competition. Employees must, therefore, see their situation in the longer term and exhibit Future Time Perspective.

Hence, Employability Market Orientation comprises: Career Exploration, Vocational Self-Concept Crystallisation, Career Planning, Career Strategy Implementation and Future Time Perspective.

In conclusion, in line with this approach, the employee is treated as a micro-enterprise offering to the employer the skills that make up the professional competence portfolio. The employee takes care of this set of competences so as to ensure that it is adequate to the needs of the customer-employer and in order to find a buyer who will give remuneration for the employee's activity. The employee is aware what kind of skills to offer with a view to creating own marketability. To this end, the employee updates these competences, taking into account the needs of employers and competitiveness towards other employees in the labour market. The employee establishes contacts with the employer, diagnoses the employer's needs and promotes own skills. For this purpose, the employee builds a network of social relations (networking) and undergoes training. Since this situation applies to the entire professional life, the employee considers this activity within a specific timeframe.

Table 8.1 presents a summary of the marketing approach and the elements of Employability Market Orientation as well as – for the sake of comparison – the existing and statistically verified career competence model of J. Akkermans et al. (2015).

The Employability Market Orientation model lacks the motivation-related component included in the model of J. Akkermans et al. (2015). For it was assumed that demonstrating the listed behaviours of Employability Market

*Table 8.1* Summary of the Marketing Approach, Employability Market Orientation and the Career Competence Model of J. Akkermans, V. Brenninkmeijer and M. Huibers

<i>Marketing approach</i>	<i>Employability Market Orientation (EMO)</i>	<i>Model of J. Akkermans, V. Brenninkmeijer and M. Huibers</i>
Exploring/monitoring customer needs	Career Exploration (CE)	Work exploration
Developing and knowing the product; knowing its attractiveness and value for the customer	Vocational Self-Concept Crystallisation (VSCC)	Self-profiling Reflection on qualities
Establishing contacts with customers and making them take to the product, promotion	Career Planning (CP) Career Strategy Implementation (CSI)	Networking
Constantly adapting to changing needs and/or creating them	Future Time Perspective (FTP)	Career control
—	—	Reflection on motivation

(compiled by the author of this monograph and on the basis of Akkermans et al. 2015; Kotler 2000).

Orientation is at the same time an indicator of high motivation of an individual to engage in professional development.

It is worth emphasising that the application of the marketing perspective to search for key employability competences increases the probability that their selection covers the majority of behaviours that are necessary for the employee to be successful in employee–employer relations based on the market rules of a transactional psychological contract.

Also, a set of adaptive behaviours is acquired, which from the perspective of cognitive psychology can be called a script, a scenario of action (Reykowski 1983) providing guidance on what to do to increase the chance of getting a job in new, different conditions. The focus is on acting, and the aim is to identify strategies for coping in the changing labour market. It refers to competences based on behavioural indicators, not on permanent personality predispositions, thus presenting an opportunity to change and develop activities. It also allows for predicting and appropriately modifying the human resource management process in the organisation, which will be considered more thoroughly in the final part of the monograph.

## **8.4 Characteristics of respective competences of Employability Market Orientation**

The respective competences that make up Employability Market Orientation will be described below. Theoretical approaches and definitions of these concepts will be presented, as well as the dimensions constituting the constructed Employability Market Orientation Questionnaire (EMO). Information on how these competences have been subjected to the diagnostic process is included in the research part of this monograph.

### **8.4.1 Career exploration**

The adopted marketing perspective implies that an individual functioning in the labour market based on market rules, resulting from a transactional psychological contract, must take into account the changing needs of employers. This is the effect of, among others, the ageing of competences. The offer contained in the professional competence portfolio, which the employee can present to the employer–customer, becomes outdated. The employee's task is, therefore, to constantly monitor the needs of employers, who are treated as potential buyers of the employee's services and skills. Thereby, the employee updates competences in line with the demand in the labour market.

The literature on the professional development of an individual uses two concepts of similar meaning that relate to the discussed subject matter. Q. Weng and J.C. McElroy (2010) and J. Koen et al. (2010) apply the term “career exploration,” while H. Flum and L. Blustein (2000) use “vocational exploration,” although their meanings are, in practice, identical.

Both concepts cover internal exploration relating to the attributes, values, interests and abilities of an individual as well as the exploration of external factors (environmental career exploration), opportunities, options, educational and professional conditions and generally the relative context of the professional environment.

In order to properly apply this concept in relation to the contemporary realities, it is necessary to clarify its understanding. The more so because its definition changed depending on the approach to professional development and career. Flum and Blustein (2000) conducted a historical analysis of approaches to the concept of "exploration." One of the first to use this concept was F. Parsons (1909, as cited in: Flum and Blustein 2000), who argued that the exploration of the self and the world of work is critical for making the right professional decisions.

At an initial stage of research on exploration (1950s; e.g. Super 1957; Harren 1979; Tiedeman and O'Hara 1963, as cited in: Flum and Blustein 2000), exploration was analysed depending on the stage of professional development or when making career-related decisions. At that time, vocational exploration as an activity appeared at the moment of changing the career stage, the need for promotion or more or less forced decision to change a job. Due to the prevailing long-term employment, exploratory activity was, therefore, relatively rare and incidental.

The current realities of the labour market and short-term employment make it necessary to alter the way of thinking about the nature of vocational exploration. "(...) [A]s human experiences become more complex and challenging due to social, economic, and political changes, our thinking about psychological constructs, such as exploration, needs to expand to fit the shifting boundaries of a given phenomenon" (Flum and Blustein 2000).

That is why now a new generation of exploration research has emerged. Researchers propose that a definition with a much broader scope and more elements be introduced. Career exploration, according to Zikic and Saks (2009), is the gathering of information relevant and useful to the progress of one's career. It comprises the exploration of one's skills (self-exploration) and environmental exploration. The first component refers to the collection of information about oneself and employment opportunities. As a result, individuals are more sensitive and aware of their values, interests and talents as well as opportunities in their environment. The second component involves the investigation by an individual of various career options available at the employer's by actively collecting information about job offers, organisations, professions or industries, which leads to more informed professional decisions.

It is particularly important that exploration should be considered as a lifelong process that supports coping with job changes, temporary situations in the course of an individual's professional life. Therefore, it is treated as a continuous process taking place in a variable system. It involves a flexible approach and is a response to more fluid and unpredictable professional experiences.

It should be very clearly emphasised that career exploration is not equivalent to simple checking of job offers. In line with this perspective, people with a high level of exploration do not concentrate only on looking for a single type of profession or workplace but expand their exploratory activities to cover different types of jobs and industries and observe the activity of other employees (Koen et al. 2010). Exploration is to be a response to unplanned and accidental professional experiences. That is why it is important in the case of job insecurity.

It should also be taken into account that exploration incorporates a relational context. The focus on career exploration is determined by cultural factors, which influence the degree of exploration. It will be particularly intense in cultures where a strong focus on social contacts is combined with an emphasis on individualism and in cultures with a low tolerance of uncertainty. Currently, the effectiveness of exploration and its nature are analysed in research, but it is no longer associated with career stages.

According to Flum and Blustein (2000), vocational exploration is an important, initiating step, which prepares jobseekers towards behaviours that are more adaptive and lead to employment. This is confirmed by Weng and McElroy (2010), who argue that this process is vital for making effective job decisions. Therefore, Flum and Blustein (2000) propose that such elements as activity, attitude and motivation as well as exploratory skills be taken into account in analysing exploration. The process of exploration, due to the focus on the acquisition of self-knowledge and information in the environmental context, is possible thanks to an individual's motivation and attitude to engage in it. At the same time, it calls for skills that help develop and gain experience in the exploratory activity. According to Garofano and Salas (2005), skills related to career exploration may be trained, and the education process should support their improvement, provide knowledge on how to assess one's skills and shape the need to develop them. Enterprises can also join this process within the framework of human resource management in the organisation.

The approach presented in this monograph assumes that Career Exploration (CE) should be included in the set of employability competences making up Employability Market Orientation and subjected to the research process.

#### **8.4.2 Vocational self-concept crystallisation**

The marketing approach clearly highlights the significance of good knowledge of the offer directed to a potential buyer and the ability to assess its value in the context of customer needs. In relation to the employee, this is equivalent to Vocational Self-Concept Crystallisation (VSCC). According to Weng and McElroy (2010), it is the degree of an individual's self-perception with respect to vocationally relevant values, needs and abilities. It determines the extent to which the individual is able to adjust attitudes, values and needs, etc. to the vocational situation and job requirements.

Studies by Weng and McElroy (2010) show that individuals with a clear vocational self-concept crystallisation are better able to make self-adjustments

and modify their attitude in response to the requirements of the changing world of work, occupation and related roles. They choose jobs that are better suited to their self-concept and can take responsibility for their decisions.

A clear and definite vocational self-concept crystallisation is a priority for responding to a change in the professional situation. It allows for adapting to the challenges and requirements of the environment according to the vocational self-concept. The knowledge about the portfolio of competences and career capital allows the employee to adequately respond to information obtained in the course of career exploration.

It is essential from the research point of view to take into account that in traditional theories of career development, VSCC comprised an individual's interests and abilities, which were treated as permanent personality traits. VSCC was relatively stable and was subject to modifications only within the career development stages determined by age and at the time of transition from one stage to another.

The definition of the vocational self-concept currently used in research comprises significant elements crucial for the analyses carried out in this monograph. First of all, it covers the competences subject to change and development, not just the interests and permanent traits of an individual. It refers to the specific nature of professional functioning, not to the general personality profile of an individual. The definition takes into account the changeability and unpredictability of the professional context. Construed in this way, the awareness of vocational self-concept crystallisation allows for a modification depending on how an individual's employment needs change, which builds flexibility. Changeability stems from the assumption that the possessed competences can be impacted and controlled, contrary to the earlier belief that they are permanent innate personality attributes.

Wieczorkowska-Nejtardt (1998) points to the significance of this phenomenon and states that the "self" structure is the key to having a job because it contains information about who an individual is, may be or would like to be. "The basic problem for persons looking for a new job is the ability to change attitudes towards their skills and preferences for specific types of work." The more "ductile our 'self' is," the more various job options seem acceptable to us, the easier it is for us to adapt to the conditions of today's labour market (Wieczorkowska-Nejtardt 1998, p. 126). Research by Weng and McElroy (2010) shows that vocational self-concept crystallisation positively influences the effectiveness of decisions on the choice of workplace, which is of particular significance in the face of the growing need for professional mobility. In Poland, these issues were researched, for example, by Terelak and Nieznańska-Cwynar (2006), who demonstrated the role of self-awareness and its importance in the professional activity of a human being.

Combined with Career Exploration, Vocational Self-Concept Crystallisation allows for better self-management in achieving employability. That is the reason why this dimension is included in Employability Market Orientation.

### **8.4.3 Career planning**

An essential element supplementing the development of an offer for the customer-employer is Career Planning (CP) by the employee. To do so, the employee needs to have a view of career development and focus on engaging in activities related to the planning of professional development. In their studies, J. Koen et al. (2010) showed an indirect impact of career planning on the chances of reemployment.

From the perspective of traditional theories, career planning concentrated on identifying a promotion path and served to predict the process of climbing the career ladder, usually within one organisation.

In the current realities of the changing labour market, it is assumed to be a continuous activity that provides support when an individual has no job and helps to maintain and build employability. Such a planning process is characterised by consciously, intentionally determining and setting clear employment goals. Opposed to such activity is the use of gambling strategies that are random, lack clear standards and career development goals (Koen et al. 2010).

### **8.4.4 Career strategy implementation**

The next component of the marketing approach is the promotion of the competence offer by the employee. The proposed model of competencies that make up Employability Market Orientation corresponds to Career Strategy Implementation adopted by the employee. According to Weng and McElroy (2010), this is an activity aimed at establishing contact and communicating with the employer. Since it should be a continuous activity carried out throughout the professional life of an individual, it can be treated as the creation of conditions for maintaining this communication and the building of space for communication between the employee and potential employers. It is vital not to liken this activity to a simple job search (Job-Search Strategies), which is undertaken in the event of actual or threatening unemployment and is aimed at finding a job as soon as possible. This approach is reactive and has nothing to do with a proactive building of a professional relationship network in advance.

There are two types of Career Implementation Strategies: an intrapersonal and an interpersonal one. The first strategy is that an individual focuses on self-development and self-improvement with a view to building a portfolio of competences. The second strategy can be pursued in two ways. An employee can seek a mentor to provide substantive and social support. Another approach involves building a network of social relations (networking).

As a result of the conscious implementation of a specific Career Implementation Strategy, individuals build social capital that supports their career capital and ensures employability. Individuals obtain relevant information, for example, on other attractive workplaces, and access important knowledge resources. They also receive feedback regarding up-to-dateness of their competence portfolio,

which allows for a clearer vocational self-concept crystallisation and building an adequate offer for the employer.

Thanks to this, individuals increase their chances of employment any time they need it when they have a job or have lost it.

It should be clearly emphasised that the Career Implementation Strategy should be pursued continuously, irrespective of whether the employee has a job or not. Thanks to this Strategy, the employee copes with more or less short-term employment and is prepared for periods of unemployment. In Poland, the importance of individual social capital was studied by, among others, Styła (2009).

#### **8.4.5 Future time perspective**

The building of market position in the marketing aspect takes place in a certain time perspective. It seems indispensable to include this in Employability Market Orientation because it is precisely the building of one's professional situation over time that distinguishes the current situation of the employee from the previous, traditional approach.

In the traditional paradigm, professional functioning of an individual spanned over a certain closed and relatively predictable period of time, divided into stages determined by age. In addition, the dominant part of the responsibility for this process rested with the employer. The employee was subjected to the influence of the organisation and its management impacts directed on the organisational career.

In the new realities of a changing labour market, when individuals have to plan their career on their own, they must think about their career within a timeframe, and it seems to be one of the most important features that distinguish the employee's functioning in a transactional psychological contract compared to a relational one.

However, a simple shift of this activity from the enterprise to the individual level is not unequivocal as psychology indicates many approaches to this aspect of human functioning (Oleś and Sobol-Kwapińska 2010; Sobol-Kwapińska 2003).

Time is not homogeneous; it is a complex phenomenon (Nosal 2010). There are different temporal orders, cultural temporality patterns, which – according to Cz.S. Nosal – comprise existential time, psychophysical time and neurobiological time.

The understanding of Future Time Perspective cannot be equated with the concept of general temporal orientation because it has a narrower meaning. Future Time Perspective concerns solely the professional functioning of individuals, not their entire life. As J. Polak (2005) argues, temporal orientation is a feature that defines an individual's attitude towards time in the general sense. According to P.G. Zimbardo (2009), people can take different perspectives on the perception of time. It is often an individual's unconscious personal attitude towards time. It is a process whereby “the continual flow of existence is bundled

into time categories that help to give order, coherence and meaning to our lives" (Zimbardo, 2009, p. 50).

It is worth noting, however, that according to Zimbardo (1994), only orientation towards the future is adaptive, and any other orientation (towards the past) is dysfunctional. In scarce Polish studies on this aspect of an individual's functioning in the organisation, J. Polak (2005) showed that workers with time orientation open to the future are more satisfied and adapted regardless of the working conditions determined by the existing organisational culture. Nosal and Bajcar (1999), in turn, studied the relationship between strategic activities in the organisation and the type of temporal perspective of employees.

In the presented approach, Future Time Perspective (FTP) was used in accordance with the definition of Stumpf and Hartman (1984).

Individuals who exhibit Future Time Perspective are concentrated on the future and open to engagement, contrary to people who are withdrawn and closed to professional development. According to K. Konecki (1988, pp. 2–3), this is close to the concept of "career from an interactionist point of view," where

not only the interpretation of past events was taken into account, but so was the location of oneself in the future in the given circumstances of the present. It should also be emphasised that it is believed in interactionism that the adaptation process is continuous, never finished.

It is similar in the approach adopted in the Employability Market Orientation model.

In this perspective, Future Time Perspective that makes up the model is treated as a temporal competence as defined by W. Lens (1994, as cited in: Tucholska 2007, p. 74), i.e. the competence to use time – "the ability to integrate personal past and future in the present." It lies in the nature of every human being and, what is very important from the point of view of the discussed problem, can be developed by appropriate environmental interactions, as well as by an individual's own activity. According to E.L. Shostrom (as cited in: Tucholska 2007), people with a high level of this competence are characterised by self-awareness, autonomy and internal direction.

## **8.5 Cognitive flexibility as a determinant of Employability Market Orientation**

As part of the research process on the EMO employability competences, it seemed interesting to look for factors that determine the ability of an individual to adopt this type of behaviour pattern. The focus was on looking for individual determinants, but those that could potentially be shaped through training to help individuals develop EMO. Therefore, typical psychological predispositions such as H. Eysenck's Big Five, J. Rotter's locus of control or A. Bańka's proactivity (2005), etc. were not taken into account. At this stage, the economic, cultural

and management factors were also excluded from the analysis process. However, it should be clearly stressed that it is advisable that these relationships be researched in other studies in future and that they should not be overlooked.

This monograph focuses on those aspects of the functioning of an individual which are relevant for the individual's ability to adopt Employability Market Orientation, but at the same time, thanks to appropriate impacts, the individual will be able to develop in this area, fill the gap and thus acquire the EMO employability competences.

The inspiration for searching for the determinants came from research findings of G. Wieczorkowska, who pointed to the importance of the properties of cognitive structures in the process of professional adaptation. In particular, this applies to the type of strategy implemented by the individual. If it is a point goal-setting strategy, individuals target their actions at one specific goal. When it is an interval goal-setting strategy, unless extreme, it "consists in the simultaneous pursuance of many goals, which in a moderate form leads to flexibility" (Wieczorkowska-Nejtardt 1998, p. 84). As a result, the interval goal setters adapted better, finding a job more quickly.

This is corroborated by the studies by T.W.H. Ng and D.C. Feldman (2010), which showed that the cognitive skills of an individual are one of the strongest predictors of effectiveness, achievements and career development. This became the basis for looking for EMO conditionalities in the sphere of cognitive functioning of the human being. Therefore, it is worth starting by analysing the situation in which employees find themselves in the new reality from the perspective of cognitive psychology. J. Reykowski states that the cognitive structures comprise "representations of specific objects: persons, institutions, symbols, places, things, which surround a person and with which this person remains in permanent relationships. The network of these relationships determines the nature of the human being-world relationship" (1983, pp. 229). In the context of the discussed issues, these objects are, for example, employers, employees or the labour market.

In addition to descriptive information, the cognitive schema possessed by an individual also contains data on the emotional attitude towards the objects of the schema. This information makes up the so-called scripts that form a kind of scenarios of action, i.e. a simplified scheme how to behave in a given situation (Pawłowska 2012). In this case, for example, it is about how to function in the labour market, how to gain employment or how to behave in relations with the employer. The last element directly refers to the psychological contract concluded between the employer and the employee, defining their mutual rights and obligations. Therefore, as G. Morgan puts it, behaviour in the organisation is associated with playing roles, "programmed actions," making a kind of a drama script that is played on the stages of that organisation (Morgan 1997, p. 125). In the organisation, the employer and the employee behave in line with the descriptions of their own roles, of other entities' roles, but also the description of the role of sets of activities. Psychological contracts contain such sets of scenarios of action which individuals acquire during organisational socialisation.

The current change is that scenarios of action that were relevant mainly to the relational contract are out-of-date in a new, transactional contract. The employees operating presently in the labour market (with the exception of very young people) underwent professional socialisation when a relational psychological contract was in force between the employer and the employee. Scenarios of behaviour which employees have in their cognitive structures were developed according to these rules. These scenarios are the source of knowledge on what behaviour is right, what to do, what to expect and what are the conditions for adaptation and success in the labour market. Also, what behaviours related to professional development are socially accepted, considered appropriate, and which – on the contrary – are reprehensible and give the employee a negative image. For instance, in the previous psychological contract, a change of job or profession was perceived by the society as a manifestation of incompetence of the individual and treated as an unfavourable situation. Presently, it is the other way round. It is an expression of activity and the ability to adapt to the demand in the labour market. Another example is a change of employer, which used to be treated as a negative signal and raised suspicions that the employee was disloyal and/or irresponsible. Finally, the very fact of being unemployed implied a failure, negative assessment of competences and evidence that the individual was inept.

In the new realities of the changing labour market, such behaviours may be adaptive and are becoming so common that individuals must learn to treat them as a natural and permanent element of their professional life (Bańka 2006).

An adequate, realistic assessment of the situation allows individuals to take actions that will permit them to deal with a new professional situation. It is particularly important, according to A. Bańka (2006), for individuals not to perceive transitional states, periods of unemployment as a failure. For if individuals are aware that it is a natural, permanent element of the relation with the employer, and not something that puts them in a bad light, they will be better able to deal with such circumstances.

Due to the development of relations with the employer based on a transactional psychological contract, existing rules are often different from, and even contradictory to, the ones that individuals have in their cognitive structures. This brings about the need for individuals to generate different scenarios of action. It may be of key significance how individuals will handle it, especially, how individuals will cope with the need to take independent actions and decisions and, consequently, to take responsibility for them. In a traditional, relational psychological contract individuals gave in to the employer's parental care, which limited their independence to the framework set by the employer.

Finally, what is vital is that individuals operate in unstable, volatile and unpredictable conditions and have to create new patterns and behaviour scripts adequate to this situation. In line with the assumption made in this monograph, these can be the behaviours that make up Employability Market Orientation.

To recap, the specific feature of the employees' situation is that the applicable rules differ from the ones to which they are accustomed (socialised). Employees

face the necessity of acting independently and the associated risk of failure; they have to take responsibility for it. All this takes place in conditions of uncertainty and volatility, which in turn gives rise to the need to constantly generate new solutions and behaviours. Finally, one more problem related to this situation can be identified by looking at it from the perspective of the attribution theory.

What is vital is how individuals interpret the occurring phenomena and where they search for their causes. If they perceive these phenomena as targeted against them and hostile, caused by bad intentions of the employer and others, then they may aim their behaviours at fighting and rebelling against them, and not at adapting and seeking adequate behaviours. Employees who adopt such an approach will consider the employer to be an enemy who has used and abandoned them without help, and the labour market is against them and does not help. Thus, it is essential for individuals to see opportunities for themselves in the occurring changes and in the new circumstances. It can be anticipated that individuals deprived of a psychological base to help deal with all these aspects of the new situation may have significant difficulties with Employability Market Orientation. Therefore, the key psychological predisposition of significant relevance in this case seems to be cognitive flexibility, which is a feature of structures possessed by the individual. This aspect and its importance in the process of adapting to the changing situation in the labour market is pointed to by A. Wojtczuk-Turek (2012), who emphasises the role of cognitive flexibility, meaning: "awareness that in any given situation there are options and alternatives available, willingness to be flexible and adapt to the situation, and self-efficacy in being flexible" (Martin et al. 2003, as cited in: Wojtczuk-Turek 2012).

According to J. Reykowski (1983), a person with cognitive flexibility possesses the skill of efficiently, continuously and adequately changing the perspective and assessment of a situation. Such a person can also analyse a given object from different perspectives and, in a way, "shift" cognitively between different aspects of the situation or task (Miyake et al. 2000). It manifests itself in this person's ability to easily change an initiated action. It is connected with the degree of precision of formulating plans and flexibility versus stiffness of their implementation, which is pointed out by G. Wierzchowska-Nejtardt (1998) with regard to motivational intelligence. Interval goal setters simultaneously pursue multiple goals, while point goal setters work towards one goal at a time. This confirms the importance of cognitive structures and their properties that an individual has. Of key significance here seems to be "flexibility defined as the ease of changing the dominant goal" (Wierzchowska-Nejtardt 1998, p. 73). For this reason, point goal setters differ from interval goal setters in terms of adaptation to changes, which has been corroborated by research.

Yet, what is crucial for Employability Market Orientation is whether an individual can perceive, accept and organise actions, including multiple alternative scenarios of action. Whether the individual is also able to concentrate on the attainment of numerous sub-goals (such as looking for contacts, developing skills, etc.) serving one main objective of finding employment, which is typical of interval goal setters.

Thus, in searching for EMO determinants, it seems justified to use the approach of Dennis and Vander Wal (2010). They assumed that cognitive flexibility is the ability to “switch” cognitive sets to adapt to changing environmental stimuli. The point is for an individual to be able to replace inadequate and maladaptive thoughts with more balanced, poised and more adaptive ones, which in turn will help the individual to formulate the right strategy for action. It is important for the functioning of the individual to successfully deal with the events that happen in life. It seems that such skills are particularly important for individuals who are in the changing labour market. This is of significance when individuals have to operate in new and ever-changing situations and rules, other than those they are accustomed to (change of relational rules to transactional ones) and behave appropriately. Individuals are required to alter the way of thinking, interpret these phenomena and generate a new form of action.

It is assumed that individuals with less flexible (rigid) cognitive structures can explain events in stereotypical categories, more or less extremely negative, and pose as helpless victims, without the possibility of introducing changes, to which the current situation may incline.

In contrast, people endowed with cognitive flexibility can find other, alternative explanations for the employee's behaviour, for example, an economic justification. Such persons will use cognitive resources to search for solutions that are best for them at a given moment. They will be able to generate many alternatives and test their usefulness.

In their approach to cognitive flexibility, Dennis and Vander Wal (2010) distinguished two dimensions:

- alternatives, including an individual's ability to find numerous alternative explanations for human behaviours and causes of life events and the ability to generate many alternative solutions and potential actions in difficult situations;
- control, determining the degree of an individual's perception of difficult situations as controllable.

The application of the approach of Dennis and Vander Wal (2010) seems to be substantiated in relation to the phenomena of interest in this monograph. It will be checked whether there is a relationship between cognitive flexibility and Employability Market Orientation.

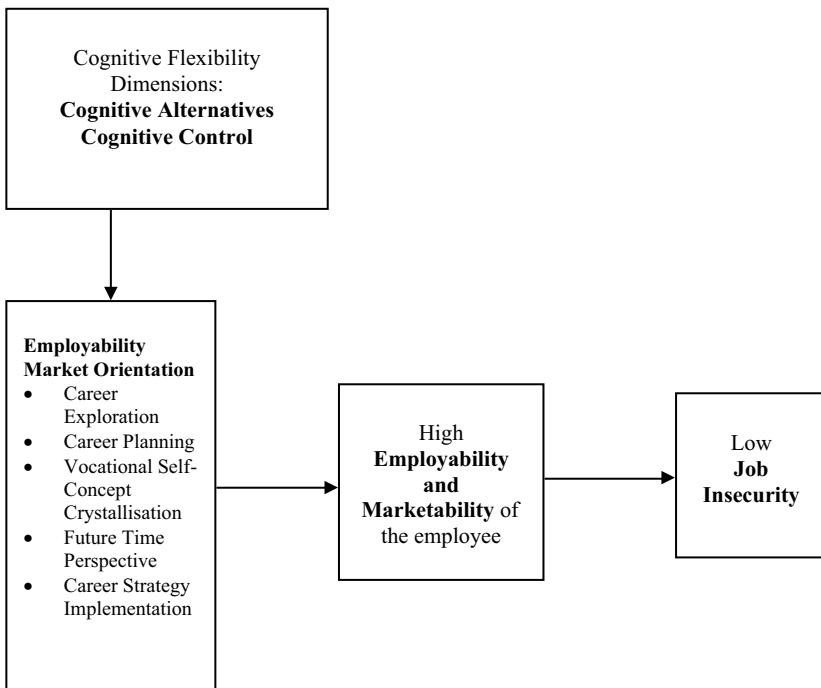
## **8.6 Hypothetical model of adaptation to the changing labour market based on Employability Market Orientation from the perspective of a transactional psychological contract**

Summing up the adopted line of reasoning, it is necessary to draw attention to the final effect to which it leads. The leitmotif for starting the considerations contained in this monograph was to check whether and how an employee reacts to the effects of flexible human resource management expressed by a change of

the psychological contract. An assumption was made that one should concentrate on those aspects of the reaction that will allow an individual to adapt to this situation. The adaptation was considered to be the state in which an individual feels a lower level of job insecurity, which is the effect of a change from a relational contract to a transactional one.

Looking for forms of potential employee reactions, a reference was made to the marketing perspective, treating the employee as a micro-enterprise in the labour market, offering possessed skills to the employer. As a result, a pattern of behaviours was created; it is made up of specific employability competences and is called Employability Market Orientation. These behaviours serve to build employability and marketability of the employee. Their task is to reduce the sense of job insecurity. At the same time, it is assumed that an important determinant of an individual's ability to respond in accordance with Employability Market Orientation is the individual's cognitive flexibility. Consequently, the following model of adaptation to the changing labour market was developed (Figure 8.1).

The above considerations regarding Employability Market Orientation (EMO) are of a theoretical and hypothetical nature. The next part of the monograph presents the results of empirical verification to examine its real theoretical and practical usefulness.



*Figure 8.1* Hypothetical Model of an Employee's Adaptation to the Rules of a Transactional Psychological Contract and the Changing Labour Market

(Compiled by the Author)

## Notes

- 1 As suggested in the review by Prof. A. Bańka, it is worth noting that German-language scientific papers use the term “worker-entrepreneur” introduced by Andreas Frey and Johanness Grill (2015). First and foremost, this approach draws attention to the blurring of the boundary between entrepreneurs and employees as labour market actors.
- 2 It is my own proposal.
- 3 In the theory of management, the term “strategy” has its specific scope of meaning in relation to the organisation (Obłój 2010), not individuals. However, due to the fact that the term “career strategy implementation” has been used for many years in foreign studies concerning professional development, I have decided to leave it, with a reservation.

## References

- Akkermans, J., Brenninkmeijer, V., Schaufeli, W.B., & Roland W.B. (2015, July–August). Blonk It's all about careerskills: Effectiveness of a career development intervention for young employees. *Human Resource Management*, 54(4), 533–551. doi: 10.1002/hrm.21633.
- Bańka, A. (2006). Kapitał kariery – uwarunkowania, rozwój i adaptacja do zmian organizacyjnych oraz strukturalnych rynku pracy. [Career capital - conditions, development and adaptation to organizational and structural changes in the labor market]. In Z. Ratajczak, A. Bańka, & E. Turska (Eds.), *Współczesna psychologia pracy i organizacji. [Contemporary work and organizational psychology]*. Katowice: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego, 59–117.
- Baruk, A.I. (2006). *Marketing personalny jako instrument kreowania wizerunku firmy. [Personal marketing as an instrument of creating the company's image]*. Warszawa: Difin.
- Bohdziewicz, P. (2010). Współczesne kariery zawodowe: od modelu biurokratycznego do przedsiębiorczego. [The contemporary professional careers: from the bureaucratic to the entrepreneurial model]. *Czasopismo Zarządzanie Zasobami Ludzkimi [Journal of Human Resource Management]*, 3–4, 39–56.
- Bohdziewicz, P. (2012). Koncepcja kapitału kariery zawodowej jako wyznacznika indywidualnej konkurencyjności na współczesnym rynku pracy. [The concept of professional career capital as a determinant of individual competitiveness in the contemporary labor market]. In S.A. Witkowski, & M. Stor (Eds.), *Sukces w zarządzaniu kadrami. Elastyczność w zarządzaniu kapitałem ludzkim. Volume 1. Problemy zarządczo-ekonomiczne. [Success in human resources management. Flexibility in managing human capital. Volume 1. Management and economic problems]*. Wrocław: Uniwersytet Ekonomiczny, 293–303.
- Dennis, J.P., & Vander Wal, J.S. (2010). The cognitive flexibility inventory: Instrument development and estimates of reliability and validity. *Cognitive Therapy & Research*, 34, 241–253. doi: 10.1007/s10608-009-9276-4.
- Flum, H., & Blustein, D.L. (2000). Reinvigorating the study of vocational exploration: A framework for research. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 56(3), 380–404. doi: 10.1006/jvbe.2000.1721.
- Frey, A., & Grill, J. (2015). *Pracoprzedsiębiorca: Model pracownika przyszłości. [The workpreneur: the model of future employee]*. Kraków: Narodowe Forum Doradztwa Kariery.
- Garofano, C.M., & Salas, E. (2005). What influences continuous employee development decisions? *Human Resource Management Review*, 15, 281–304.

- Handy, Ch. (1998). *Wiek przezwyciężonego rozumu. [Age of the reason overcome]*. Warszawa: Business Press.
- Kalleberg, A.L. (2009). Precarious work insecure workers: Employment relations in transition. *American Sociological Review*, February, 74(11–22). doi:10.1177/000312240907400101.
- Koen, J., Klehe, U.Ch., Annelies, E.M., Vianen, V., Zikic, J., & Nauta, A. (2010). Job-search strategies and reemployment quality. The impact of career adaptability. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 77, 126–139.
- Konecki, K. (1988). Praca w koncepcji socjologii interakcjonistycznej. [Work in the concept of interactionist sociology]. *Studia Socjologiczne*, 1, 225–245.
- Kotler, P. (2000) *Marketing management: The millennium edition*. Upper Saddle River: Person Prentice Hall.
- Kotler, Ph. (2002). *Marketing management: Analysis, planning, implementation and control*. Hoboken, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Koźmiński, A.K. (2008). *Koniec świata menedżerów. [The end of managers world]*. Warszawa: WaiP.
- Koźmiński, A.K. (2013). *Zarządzanie w warunkach niepewności. [Management in conditions of uncertainty]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Lanthaler, W., & Zugmann, J. (2000). *Akcja Ja. Nowy sposób myślenia o karierze. [Action Me. A new way of thinking about career]*. Warszawa: Twigger.
- Miyake, A., Friedman, N.P., Emerson, M.J., Witzki, A.H., Howerter, A., & Wager, T.D. (2000). The unity and diversity of executive functions and their contributions to complex “Frontal Lobe” tasks: A latent variable analysis. *Cognitive Psychology*, 41, 49–100.
- Morgan, G. (1997). *Obrazy organizacji. [Organization images]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Nosal, C.S. (2010). Czas w umyśle człowieka. Struktura przestrzeni temporalnej. [Time in the mind of a man. The structure of the temporal space]. In S. Bedyńska, & G. Sędek (Eds.), *Życie na czas. Perspektywy badawcze postrzegania czasu. [Life on time. Research perspectives on the perception of time]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, 365–397.
- Nosal, C.S., & Bajcar, B. (1999). Czas w umyśle stratega: perspektywa temporalna a wskaźniki zachowań strategicznych. [Time in the mind of a strategist: temporal perspective and indicators of strategic behavior]. *Czasopismo Psychologiczne, [Psychological Journal]*. 5(1), 55–68.
- Oblój, K. (2010). *Pasja i dyscyplina strategii. Jak z marzeń i decyzji zbudować sukces firmy? [The passion and discipline of strategy. How to build a company's success from dreams and decisions?]* Warszawa: Poltext.
- Oleś, P.K., & Sobol-Kwapińska, M. (2010). Dialogi temporalne: Ja - w trzech wymiarach czasu. [The temporal dialogues: I - in three dimensions of time]. In G. Sędek, & S. Bedyńska (Eds.), *Życie na czas. Perspektywy badawcze spostrzegania czasu. [Life on time. Research perspectives of the perception of time/]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN. 398–420.
- Pawłowska, A. (2012). Projection methods in diagnosing an individual's cognitive map of occupations. In B. Mróz (Ed.), *Functioning in the workplace. Quantitative and qualitative psychological research* (pp. 115–127). Warszawa: Scholar Publishing House.
- Polak, J. (2005). Okiełznać niepewność? Temporalne uwarunkowania przystosowania do pracy we współczesnych organizacjach. [Tame uncertainty? Temporal conditions of adaptation to work in contemporary organizations]. In B. Kożusznik (Ed.), *Kapitał ludzki w dobie integracji i globalizacji. [Human capital in the age of integration and globalization]*. Katowice: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego, 95–102.

- Reykowski, J. (1983). Osobowość wobec przemian społecznych i technologicznych – szkic problematyki. [Personality in the face of social and technological changes - a sketch of the problem]. In J. Jarymowicz, & Z. Smoleńska (Eds.), *Poznawcze regulatory funkcjonowania społecznego. [Cognitive regulators of social functioning]*. Warszawa: Polska Akademia Nauk, Zakład Psychologii. 55–62.
- Savickas, M.L. (1997). Adaptability: An integrative construct for life-span, life-space theory. *Career Development Quarterly*, 45, 247–259.
- Savickas, M.L., Nota, L., Rossier, J., Dauwalder, J.P., Duarte, M.E., Guichard, J., Soresi, S., Van Esbroeck, R., & van Vianen, A.E.M. (2009). Life designing: A paradigm for career construction in the 21st century. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 75, 239–250.
- Sobol-Kwapińska, M. (2003). Jak postrzegamy czas? Pomiar za pomocą kwestionariusza Metafory Czasu. [How do we perceive time? The measurement using the Metaphor of Time questionnaire]. In W. P. Otrębski, & M. Grygielski (Eds.), *Studia z psychologii w KUL. [Studies in psychology at the Catholic University of Lublin]*. (pp. 339–356). Lublin: RW KUL.
- Stumpf, S.A., & Hartman, K. (1984). Individual exploration to commitment and withdrawal. *Academy of Management Journal*, 2, 308–329.
- Styla, R. (2009). Kwestionariusz do Pomiaru Indywidualnego Kapitału Społecznego (KPIKS) – wstępna propozycja oparta na idei generatora zasobów Toma Snijdersa. [Questionnaire for the Measurement of Individual Social Capital (KPIKS) - a preliminary proposal based on the idea of a resource generator by Tom Snijders]. *Psychologia Społeczna, [Social Psychology]*, 4(1–2[10]), 67–77.
- Terelak, J.F., & Nieznańska-Cwynar, A. (2006). Samowiedza a cele życiowe związane z aktywnością zawodową człowieka. [Self-knowledge and life goals related to human professional activity]. *Czasopismo Psychologiczne, [Psychological Journal]*. 12(1), 73.
- Tucholska, K. (2007). *Kompetencje temporalne jako wyznacznik dobrego funkcjonowania. [Temporal competences as an indicator of good functioning]*. Lublin: Towarzystwo Naukowe KUL.
- Weng, Q., & McElroy, J.C. (2010). Vocational self-concept crystallization as a mediator of the relationship between career self-management and job decision effectiveness. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 76, 234–243.
- Wieczorkowska-Nejtardt, G. (1998). *Inteligencja motywacyjna. Mądre strategie wyboru celu i sposobu działania. [Motivational intelligence. Wise strategies for choosing a goal and a course of action]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Instytutu Studiów Społecznych.
- Wojtczuk-Turek, A. (2012). Elastyczność organizacyjna i indywidualna a zachowania innowacyjne w miejscu pracy – empiryczna analiza zależności. [The organizational and individual flexibility and innovative behavior in the workplace - empirical dependency analysis]. *Prace Naukowe Uniwersytetu Ekonomicznego we Wrocławiu [Research Papers of Wrocław University of Economics]*, 249, 247–259.
- Zbiegień-Maciąg, L. (1996). *Marketing personalny czyli jak zarządzać pracownikami w firmie. [Personnel marketing, or how to manage employees in the company]*. Warszawa: Business Press.
- Zikic, J., & Saks, A.M. (2009). Job search and social cognitive theory: The role of career-relevant activities. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 74, 117–127.
- Zimbardo, P.G. (1994). *Psychologia i życie. [Psychology and life]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Zimbardo, P.G. (2009). *Paradoks czasu. [Paradox of time]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.

# 9 Selected determinants of Employability Market Orientation and its relationship with the criteria of adaptation to the changing labour market

## Research report

### 9.1 Methodological assumptions and a survey of sales staff and civil servants

#### 9.1.1 Research questions and schema

The research process initiated the operationalisation of Employability Market Orientation (EMO). An EMO Questionnaire was prepared; EMO's reliability and ability to differentiate respondents in terms of this feature were assessed. The significance of socio-demographic determinants such as age, gender, education and type of employment contract was also examined.

Next, with reference to the issues discussed earlier, the focus was on answering the following general questions whether EMO:

- depends on:
  - organisational factors – type of psychological contract (relational and transactional);
  - psychological factors – cognitive flexibility (dimensions: Cognitive Alternatives and Cognitive Control);
- is related to the criteria of adaptation to the changing labour market, i.e.
  - Job Insecurity;
  - employability;
- performs a function similar to the alternative constructs recognised in the related literature as the conditions of an individual's adaptability, i.e.
  - Professional Flexibility;
  - Boundaryless Career?

The last stage of the research procedure had as its objective to verify the model of adaptation to the changing labour market. It consisted in examining the EMO-based path model, and then comparing it with a model based on Savickas's Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS). Thereby, the predictive power of EMO was determined in comparison with the existing tool for diagnosing the professional

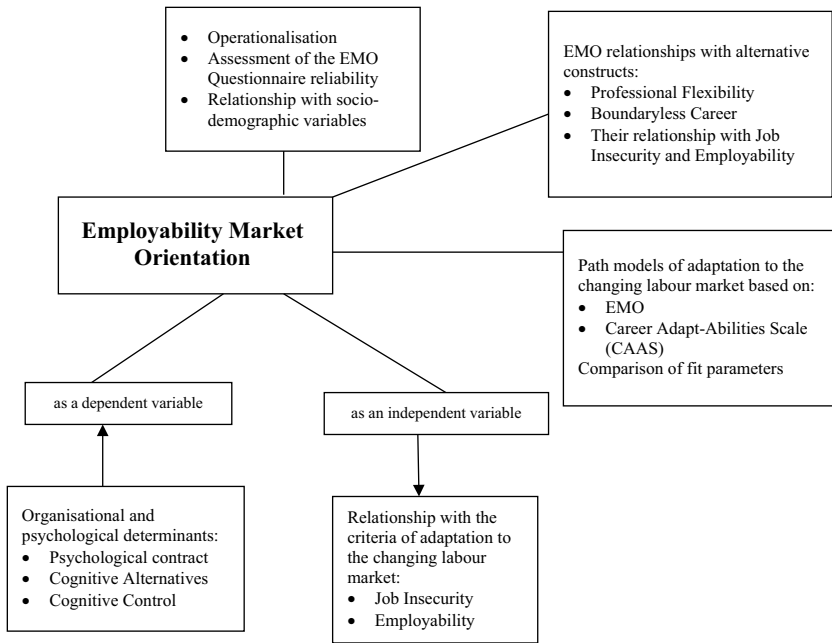


Figure 9.1 Schema of the Research Procedure

(Compiled by the Author)

adaptation potential of an individual, which is applied in international studies. Consequently, information was acquired on whether EMO has better predictivity than Savickas's tool.

The general schema of the research procedure is presented in Figure 9.1.

In order to attain the basic research objectives regarding EMO, a special research schema was required. It was recognised that this type of problem might be influenced by numerous hard-to-control factors and determinants that may be meaningful for the behaviour in the labour market. Therefore, the research design presupposed nonprobability sampling of respondents from two organisations with different psychological contract types, according to the assumptions of management theory. The reason was that the discussion of EMO relies on the psychological contract type as the starting point for development of such a behaviour pattern in the changing labour market.

That is why the survey was not carried out on a representative sample since it was not intended to describe the population but to look for relationships and determinants of the phenomenon in question. Thus, the psychological contract and its change, as a key aspect of the issues explored, can be controlled at an acceptable level.

A similar logic was followed, for example, by M.A. Lahey (as cited in: O'Neill and Sevastos 2013) in his research on Job Insecurity (JI), where he compared

employees of organisations in the production, services and public administration sectors. A corresponding research schema was designed by S. Mauno et al. (2001). They conducted research in central Finland on insecurity and psychological well-being in various areas of the economy, such as industry, commerce and the public sector.

### ***9.1.2 Sales staff and civil servants as the surveyed groups***

For the above-mentioned reasons, the presented survey was conducted on two groups of employees: sales staff and civil servants employed on the basis of various types of psychological contracts. The selection of groups means that they are contrasted in terms of rules governing employer–employee relations.

It is assumed in the theory of management that the sales staff operate in market organisations, which are “conscious and artificial gathering of people to carry out somebody’s intentions (goals) in a permanent and coordinated manner.” In the case of market enterprises, it is private profit, and relations with employees are based on a transactional psychological contract. In turn, offices are institutions, i.e. according to the definition of K. Bolesta-Kukułka: “social ‘devices’ serving the purpose of satisfying special and particularly important collective needs in a predetermined, permanent and continuous manner.” In particular, an “office” operating in a public and impersonal way is established to “regulate the behaviour of members of society so as to ensure efficient and orderly functioning (e.g. of public authorities).” Thus, civil servants are employed on the basis of a relational psychological contract (Bolesta-Kukułka 2003).

Office employees are hired primarily under contracts of indefinite duration, and their jobs are considered to be very stable and long-term. For example, the number of civil servants went up by 60,000 in 2005–2009 and went down by only 2000 in subsequent years.<sup>1</sup> What is more, the remuneration system provides extensive bonuses for job seniority.<sup>2</sup> This should be regarded as an attempt to maintain a long-term relationship with the employee, which is characteristic of a relational psychological contract.

The second group surveyed, the sales staff, are employed in market organisations (Bolesta-Kukułka 2003) that operate based on a transactional psychological contract. Although different types of sales staff members are identified, this dissimilarity does not vitally alter the character of their relation with the employer. The relative short-term nature of sales staff members’ employment is evidenced, for example, by the fact that according to the Central Statistical Office (GUS) data,<sup>3</sup> in 2012 people with job seniority of over 16 years accounted for only 27%, and it was the most numerous group. 47% of sales staff members were employed under fixed-term contracts. Remuneration depends on seniority to a small extent, if at all.<sup>4</sup>

The groups selected for the survey can be thus assumed to differ in terms of psychological contracts. One of the differentiating features is the possibility of

maintaining employment, which translates into a sense of JI. As Greenhalg and Rosenblatt (2010) argue, job security in the private sector is unobvious, and we are faced with a high likelihood of losing a job as such, treated as a whole. In the public sector, a possible sense of insecurity relates to the threat of losing important job privileges as a result of reorganisation or division of tasks.

It is worth pointing out at this stage that the so-called new public management is starting to be used in offices. It is a model assuming the introduction of neoliberal rules to public administration and the use of market mechanisms and managerial techniques borrowed from the private sector. This allows for predicting that also in offices, the psychological contract is about to change in future into a transactional one. All the more so because one of the guidelines of this approach is to follow the example of enterprises and be oriented towards customers, and to remunerate employees for achievements, not depending on the grade (Hensel 2012). These are serious signals of impending changes in the construction of a psychological contract on a wider scale.

What seems to differentiate both these groups at first glance may be the demand for a given type of employees. In the first quarter of 2015, sales staff were one of the most sought-after groups of employees in the labour market, as confirmed by Manpower survey.<sup>5</sup>

However, this is not an altogether proper assessment of the situation. Namely, job opportunities in offices are constantly growing. After 1990, declines in employment in public administration were recorded only in 2002, 2011 and 2013.<sup>6</sup> There are employment opportunities both for civil servants and sales staff members.<sup>7</sup> Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that civil servants function within the framework of a relational contract, and sales staff – a transactional one, and to examine EMO in terms of the set research goals.

To this end, a total of 300 people were surveyed (paper and pencil method) in 2014, including 150 civil servants (national, regional and local governments) and 150 sales staff members from the Mazowieckie Voivodship, aged from 20 to 49:

- 55% of women (165 people) and 45% of men (135 people);
- 51% of people with BA or lower education (152 people) and 49% with higher education (148 people);
- 60% of employees hired under a contract of indefinite duration treated as a long-term contract as opposed to other short-term forms of employment.

Distributions of respondents across particular groups by age, gender and education are included in the statistical annex.

### **9.1.3 *Verified hypotheses***

Appropriate hypotheses were assigned to general questions and research goals and verified on the basis of the adopted research schema.

When drafting an answer to the first question regarding factors on which an individual's ability to reveal EMO depends, the focus was on the organisational

determinant, i.e. the psychological contract. The workplace was assumed as an indicator of the psychological contract – salesman (transactional) versus civil servant (relational).

It was expected that people who work in an organisation with a transactional psychological contract, in this case, sales staff, will show a higher level of EMO than people who operate under a relational psychological contract. It results from different rules governing employer–employee relations. It seems that transactional rules should, in a way, “force” or inspire the employee to behave in a way consistent with EMO. Hence, the following hypothesis was formulated.

*Hypothesis 1. There is a relationship between Employability Market Orientation and the transactional versus relational psychological contract.*

The second source of factors potentially determining EMO is connected with the psychological predisposition of an individual, i.e. Cognitive Flexibility, prevalent in two dimensions of Cognitive Alternatives and Cognitive Control. The significance of this variable is discussed in sub-chapter 7.5. In this connection, the following hypotheses were formulated.

*Hypothesis 2. There is a positive relationship between Cognitive Flexibility (dimensions of Cognitive Alternatives and Cognitive Control) and Employability Market Orientation.*

*Hypothesis 2a. The higher the level of Cognitive Alternatives, the stronger Employability Market Orientation.*

*Hypothesis 2b. The higher the level of Cognitive Control, the stronger Employability Market Orientation.*

The hypotheses put forward result from the assumption that it is much easier for a person who can analyse and interpret reality in a multi-faceted way as well as generate alternative behaviours with a sense of cognitive control to engage in behaviours consistent with EMO.

The second general research question concerned whether the implementation of EMO is related to the criteria of adaptation to the changing labour market. According to the assumptions of the proposed model, the state of adaptation is achieved by the employee who feels a low level of JI and enjoys high employability. Therefore, the following hypotheses were made.

*Hypothesis 3. The stronger Employability Market Orientation, the lower job insecurity.*

*Hypothesis 4. The stronger Employability Market Orientation, the higher Employability.*

Finally, the third general question posed in the research process concerns whether EMO serves a function similar to alternative constructs associated in

many studies with the employee in the changing labour market. These are Professional Flexibility and Boundaryless Career (BC). It was determined whether there is a relationship between these constructs and EMO. It was also checked whether and how they relate to the accepted adaptation criteria, i.e. JI and Employability.

With regard to Professional Flexibility, the following hypotheses were made.

*Hypothesis 5a. There is a relationship between Employability Market Orientation and Professional Flexibility.*

*Hypothesis 5b. There is a relationship between Professional Flexibility and Job Insecurity.*

*Hypothesis 5c. There is a relationship between Professional Flexibility and Employability.*

Similarly, hypotheses regarding the Boundaryless Career pattern were made.

*Hypothesis 6a. There is a relationship between Employability Market Orientation and Boundaryless Career.*

*Hypothesis 6b. There is a relationship between Boundaryless Career and Job Insecurity.*

*Hypothesis 6c. There is a relationship between Boundaryless Career and Employability.*

Thereby, EMO was compared with recommendations put forth in numerous studies and addressed to the employee in the context of adaptation to the changing labour market.

This goal was achieved more broadly at the next stage of analyses when the path model based on EMO was verified and compared to the analogous one that uses Savickas's Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS). The related hypothesis is as follows:

*Hypothesis 7. The EMO-based path model of employee adaptation to the changing labour market has better fit indices than that using Savickas's Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS).*

A list of research questions, hypotheses and variables can be found in Table 9.1.

In conclusion, based on the obtained data, a profile of an employee who exhibits EMO was developed. The significance of organisational and psychological determinants was established, and the relationship with the criteria of adaptability to the changing labour market, such as low JI and high employability, was verified. Finally, EMO was compared with alternative theoretical constructs, and the questionnaire diagnosing EMO was compared with another tool examining the adaptability of an individual to the changing labour market.

*Table 9.1* Research Questions, Hypotheses and Variables used in the Research on Employability Market Orientation

<i>General research question</i>	<i>Hypotheses</i>	<i>Variables</i>
Does EMO depend on: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Organisational factors – type of psychological contract (relational and transactional)</li> <li>• Psychological factors – cognitive flexibility (Dimensions: Cognitive Alternatives and Cognitive Control)</li> </ul>	H.1. There is a relationship between Employability Market Orientation and the transactional versus relational psychological contract H.2. There is a positive relationship between Cognitive Flexibility (dimensions of Cognitive Alternatives and Cognitive Control) and Employability Market Orientation H.2a. The higher the level of Cognitive Alternatives, the stronger Employability Market Orientation H.2b. The higher the level of Cognitive Control, the stronger Employability Market Orientation	Organisational: Psychological contract <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• relational</li> <li>• transactional</li> </ul> Psychological: Cognitive flexibility dimensions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Cognitive Alternatives</li> <li>• Cognitive Control</li> </ul>
Is EMO related to the criteria of adaptation to the changing labour market: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Job Insecurity</li> <li>• Employability</li> </ul>	H.3. The stronger Employability Market Orientation, the lower Job Insecurity H.4. The stronger Employability Market Orientation, the higher Employability	Adaptation criteria: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Job Insecurity</li> <li>• Employability</li> </ul>
Does EMO perform a function similar to alternative constructs recognised as conditions of an individual's adaptation, i.e.: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Professional Flexibility</li> <li>• Boundaryless Career</li> </ul>	H.5a. There is a relationship between Professional Flexibility and Employability H.5b. There is a relationship between Professional Flexibility and Job Insecurity H.5c. There is a relationship between Professional Flexibility and Employability H.6a. There is a relationship between Boundaryless Career and Employability Market Orientation H.6b. There is a relationship between Boundaryless Career and Job Insecurity H.6c. There is a relationship between Boundaryless Career and Employability	Alternative constructs: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Professional Flexibility</li> <li>• Boundaryless Career</li> </ul>

*(Continued)*

Table 9.1 (Continued)

<i>General research question</i>	<i>Hypotheses</i>	<i>Variables</i>
What are the fit parameters for the EMO-based model of adaptation to the changing labour market as compared to the model using Savickas's Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS)?	H.7. The EMO-based path model of employee adaptation to the changing labour market has better fit indices than that using Savickas's Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• EMO Questionnaire</li> <li>• Savickas's Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS)</li> </ul> Dimensions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• concern</li> <li>• control</li> <li>• curiosity</li> <li>• confidence</li> </ul>

(Compiled by the Author)

#### **9.1.4 Method of analysis and presentation of findings**

Besides EMO, the following variables were diagnosed in the presented research process:

- EMO determinants:
  - organisational – transactional versus relational psychological contract;
  - psychological – Cognitive Flexibility – dimensions: Cognitive Alternatives and Cognitive Control.
- criteria of adaptation to the changing labour market:
  - Job Insecurity;
  - Employability.
- alternative constructs:
  - Professional Flexibility;
  - Boundaryless Career.
- Savickas's Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS) used in the path model.

In addition, socio-demographic variables, such as age, gender, education (lower: BA, higher: MA) and type of employment contract (short-term versus long-term) were controlled.

Table 9.2 summarises the listed variables with indicators and sources, followed by a detailed description, definitions and method of measurement.

The statistical analysis was based on the use of r-Pearson correlation, linear regression analysis, multiple regression analysis, multi-factor analysis of variance and a path model.

The presentation of research results comprises a part concerning, first of all, the general level of EMO. Then, possible findings regarding the respective scales of EMO are analysed, provided they are statistically significant. The results are presented primarily in a descriptive form. The underlying statistical data are included in the statistical annex.

*Table 9.2* Summary of Diagnosed and Controlled Variables used in the Research Process

<i>Diagnosed variable</i>	<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Source of diagnostic tool</i>	<i>Cronbach's alpha</i>
Employability Market Orientation (EMO)	General result and results on individual scales in the EMO Questionnaire	Compiled by the author of this monograph on the basis of scales on the basis of existing approaches	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• for EMO as a set of five scales – 0.73</li> <li>• for EMO as a set of 28 questions – 0.89</li> </ul>
Psychological contract	Workplace (sales staff versus civil servants)	—	—
Cognitive Flexibility – dimensions:	Cognitive Flexibility Inventory (CFI) result	Adaptation and translation of the foreign tool – J.P. Dennis and J.S. Vander Wal (2010)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Alternatives scale (CFI A) – 0.92</li> <li>• Control scale (CFI C) – 0.84</li> </ul>
Cognitive Alternatives scale (CFI A)	Alternatives scale (CFI A)		
Cognitive Control scale (CFI C)	Control scale (CFI C)		
Job Insecurity (JI)	Job Insecurity (JI) indicator	Compiled by the author of this monograph on the basis of existing approaches	not applicable
Employability (MAE)	Employability (MAE) indicator	Compiled by the author of this monograph on the basis of scales used in foreign publications – R.W. Griffeth et al. 2005; R.C. Wanberg et al. 2002	0.77
Boundaryless Career (BC)	Boundaryless Career (BC) indicator	Compiled by the author of this monograph	Not applicable
Professional Flexibility (PF)	Professional Flexibility (PF) indicator	Compiled by the author of this monograph	0.69
Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS)	Result on Savickas's Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS)	Adaptation and translation of questionnaire by M. Savickas, E. Porfeli (2012)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• concern – 0.74</li> <li>• control – 0.895</li> <li>• curiosity – 0.81</li> <li>• confidence – 0.86</li> </ul>
Controlled variables	Age, gender, education, type of employment contract (short-term versus long-term), income		—

(Compiled by the Author)

## 9.2 Diagnostic tools and indicators used in the research

### 9.2.1 *Cognitive flexibility: Dimensions of cognitive alternatives and cognitive control*

The diagnosis of Cognitive Flexibility relied on<sup>8</sup> the Cognitive Flexibility Inventory (CFI) developed by Dennis and Vander Wal (2010), which was translated and adapted. The CFI is aimed at studying those aspects of individuals' functioning that allow them to think adaptively when unexpected, stressful situations arise. The tool diagnoses two dimensions of cognitive functioning of an individual in response to events in the environment and consists of two scales:

- Cognitive Alternatives (Alternatives CFI A) – examines the ability to find multiple alternative explanations of human behaviours and causes of life events and the ability to generate many alternative solutions and potential actions in difficult situations;
- Cognitive Control (Control CFI K) – examines the degree of an individual's sense of control over difficult situations the individual experiences.

The advantages of the Cognitive Flexibility Inventory (CFI), according to the authors' opinions, are that it is a short and easy-to-use self-report, it is not overly involving and allows a quick diagnosis of the respondents. The tool consists of 20 items (13 for the Alternatives scale and seven for the Control scale; see Table 9.3). The result is the mean of respondents' answers given on a seven-point scale.

*Table 9.3* Items in the Cognitive Flexibility Questionnaire – Dimensions of Cognitive Alternatives (CFIA) and Cognitive Control (CFIC)

---

Using the scale below, indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements:

Alternatives scale

- [1] I can properly assess the scale of a problem in a given situation.
  - [2] I consider many options before making a decision.
  - [3] I like to look at difficult situations from different points of view.
  - [4] I look for additional information to explain the reasons for someone's behaviour.
  - [5] I try to look at things from the point of view of another person.
  - [6] I can put myself in the situation of another person.
  - [7] It is important to look at a difficult situation from different points of view.
  - [8] When in a difficult situation, I consider different solutions before I decide how to behave.
  - [9] I always look at a situation from different points of view.
  - [10] When determining the causes of someone's behaviour, I consider all available facts and information.
  - [11] In the face of a difficult situation, I try to come up with several ways to solve it.
  - [12] I can think of more than one way to solve a situation that I have to face.
  - [13] I consider many options before I react in a difficult situation.
- 

*(Continued)*

Table 9.3 (Continued)

Control scale

- [1] When difficulties arise, it is difficult for me to make decisions. [reverse coded]
- [2] In the face of difficulties, I feel that I lose control of the situation. [reverse coded]
- [3] In the face of difficult situations, I get so stressed out that I cannot think how to solve the problem. [reverse coded]
- [4] When there are many possibilities, I have a problem with choosing one way to solve the problem. [reverse coded]
- [5] When I encounter a difficult situation, I do not know what to do. [reverse coded]
- [6] I am able to overcome the difficulties that I face in my life.
- [7] In a difficult situation, I feel that I do not have the strength to change anything. [reverse coded]

The scale of answers: (1) I strongly disagree; (2) I do not agree; (3) I rather disagree; (4) I neither disagree nor agree; (5) I rather agree; (6) I agree; (7) I definitely agree.

(Compiled by Author on the Basis of Dennis and Vander Wal 2010)

In assessing the reliability of the Cognitive Flexibility Inventory (CFI), after being translated into Polish, both scales had a satisfactory Cronbach’s alpha value. For the Alternatives scale, it is 0.92; for the Control scale, Cronbach’s alpha reaches 0.84. These satisfying psychometric parameters justify using the CFI in the presented research.

The distributions of these variables in the surveyed group are close to the normal distribution (Figures 9.2 and 9.3). In the whole surveyed group, the mean and

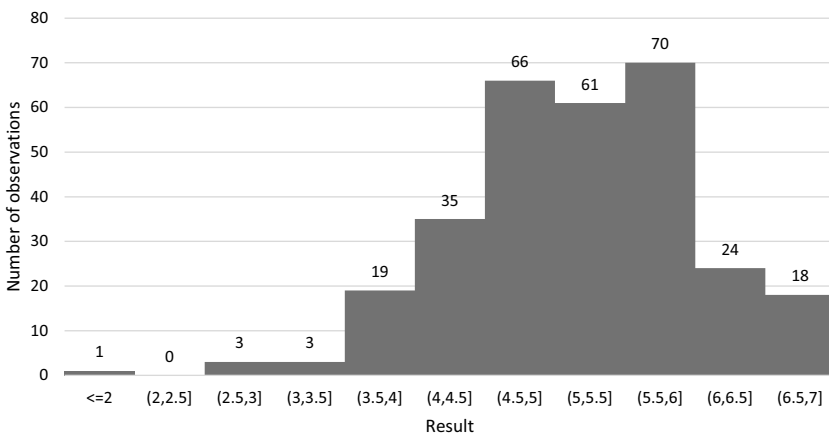


Figure 9.2 Distributions of Results for the Cognitive Alternatives Scale in the Surveyed Group

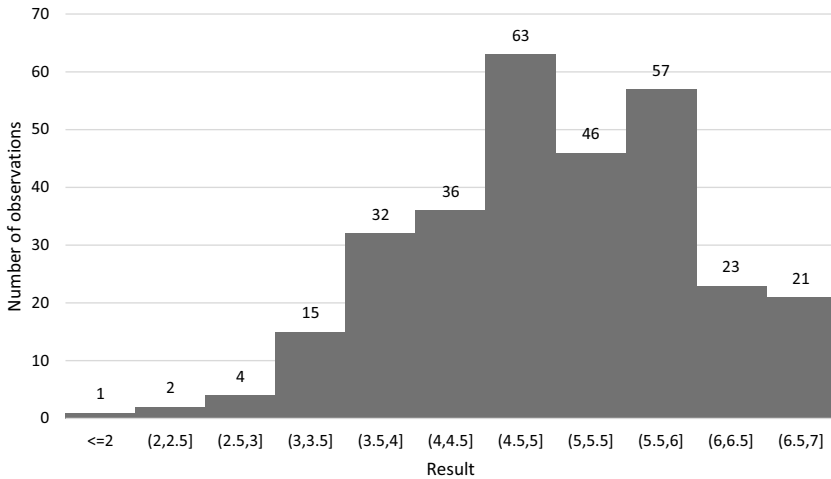


Figure 9.3 Distributions of Results for the Cognitive Control Scales in the Surveyed Group (the Survey Results)

standard deviation are, respectively: for the Cognitive Alternatives scale –  $M = 5.21$  and  $Sd = 0.85$ ; while for the Cognitive Control scale –  $M = 5.02$  and  $Sd = 1.01$ . No differences were found between the means in the surveyed groups of sales staff and civil servants.

### 9.2.2 Job insecurity

Against all appearances, the measurement of JI is not simple and obvious. A certain evolution of approaches is visible in the body of research on this subject. Originally, according to O'Neill and Sevastos (2013), a significant proportion of researchers used a single-item measurement related to the probability of job loss. It turned out, however, that this gives rise to an oversimplified view of this phenomenon.

Then, there is an approach that uses a few items to diagnose the sense of insecurity, but JI continues to be treated as a one-dimensional phenomenon. From this perspective, for example, Johnson et al. (1984) or Caplan, Cobb, French, Van Harrison and Pinneau (1975, as cited in: O'Neill and Sevastos 2013) defined JI as a general concern for the future of one's job and its possession. Using a few items, the researchers tried to capture insecurity and other emotions, such as fear of losing a job in the future. A similar approach was adopted by Widerszal-Bazyl (2007) in Poland.

At present, a research approach is distinguished, whereby the need to perceive JI as an inherently multidimensional construct is highlighted. There are studies that use a two-dimensional tool for measuring JI, including the cognitive element (perceived probability of a job loss) and emotional element (fear of a potential job loss). Relatively few studies make use of this approach. W.D. Reisel

and M. Banai (2002, as cited in: O'Neill and Sevastos 2013) combined the affective and cognitive scales into a composite JI index, while others treat these two dimensions as related but distinct (Konig and Staufenbiel 2006, as cited in: O'Neill and Sevastos 2013).

O'Neill and Sevastos (2013) propose another approach with a diagnostic tool consisting of four subscales: job loss, job changes, marginalisation and organisational survival. They point out that the majority of the applied processes of developing JI measures follow a deductive scheme. Individual items are built from the researcher's perspective or the existing theoretical framework. This approach is based on the assumption that the scientific interpretation of the nature of JI and its key dimensions is an approximation of the insecurity actually felt by employees. However, is it really so? According to Bartunek and Seo (2002, p. 239, as cited in: O'Neill and Sevastos 2013), "it might miss important dimensions or include trivial dimensions." Therefore, O'Neill and Sevastos (2013) call for conducting qualitative and inductive research in order to get a better understanding of the JI construct. This will help to credibly confirm or disconfirm academic definitions and possibly uncover new dimensions that have not been considered previously.

All the more so because, as Greenhalg and Rosenblatt (2010) indicate, the effects associated with the sense of JI can be moderated by a number of factors, such as a sense of control, conservatism, attribution mechanisms, professional mobility, economic dependence and gender. Moreover, it is determined by culture. According to Greenhalg and Rosenblatt (2010), this phenomenon is different in individualist and collectivist cultures. Also, employees' insecurity is demonstrated differently depending on the form of ownership in public and private organisations. This last factor is included in the research schema presented in this study.

It should also be emphasised that in the diagnostic approach adopted in this monograph, insecurity regarding the possession of a job and the threat of general job loss were examined. This is the main problem, which is the effect of changes in the psychological contract between the employer and the employee. Thus, insecurity concerning the loss of benefits and privileges relating to current employment was omitted. In the context of adaptation to new realities of the labour market and the role of employment competences, it would probably be interesting to include the sense of helplessness, i.e. the feeling that it is possible to prevent the loss of job, in the research on insecurity. This is an important direction for more in-depth research in the future, if only because, as indicated by I. Świątek-Barylska (2013, p. 191), tolerance of insecurity by employees, measured by their expectation of a guarantee of permanent employment, turned out to be an important factor affecting their loyalty towards the employer.

The JI indicator, developed for the needs of the presented research, consists of three items. The task of a surveyed person is to answer the questions shown in Table 9.4.

The development of the indicator was inspired by questions already existing and used in research. The first of these is a question borrowed from the Labour

Table 9.4 Items of the Job Insecurity (JI) Indicator

- 
1. What job would you find in the next 6 months if you had to change your job?  
Scale of answers: comparable; any other job; I would not find any.
  2. To what extent, if at all, are you afraid of losing your job?  
Scale of answers: I am very afraid; I am afraid to some extent; I am a little bit afraid; I am not afraid at all.
  3. In your opinion, how big is the risk that you will lose your job or that your current contract will not be renewed during the next 6 months?
  4. What job would you find in the next 6 months if you had to change your job?  
Scale of answers: comparable; any other job; I would not find any.
  5. To what extent, if at all, are you afraid of losing your job?  
Scale of answers: I am very afraid; I am afraid to some extent; I am a little bit afraid; I am not afraid at all.
  6. In your opinion, how big is the risk that you will lose your job or that your current contract will not be renewed during the next 6 months?  
Scale of answers: high; moderate; low.
- 

(Compiled by the Author)

Market Monitor survey by Randstad HR consultancy agency. The answer to this question, however, is analysed in a different way, because it focuses on the aspect of difficulty of finding a job, not on the possibility of finding one.<sup>9</sup>

The second and third questions are similar to those used by the Polish General Social Survey (PGSS) carried out by the Institute for Social Studies in the research project International Social Survey Programme 1997: “Work Orientations II” (Cichomski et al. 2013).

Thanks to this structure, the JI indicator contains a cognitive component (question 1) and an emotional component (questions 2 and 3).

At the initial stage, the level of the JI indicator for a given surveyed person was calculated as the mean of answers given to these three questions; due to the different number of possible answers, the weighted mean was used in the case of the second question. It turned out, however, that the indicator constructed in this way has a highly sloped distribution and poorly differentiates people with low and high insecurity. Most people (65.3%) declare a low level of insecurity.

In order to make reliable analyses necessary to verify the hypotheses put forward, the indicator was finally constructed by calculating the occurrences of extreme values that imply a high sense of JI. For the first question, these are the answers: *any other job; I would not find any*. For the second question, the first three answers, namely: *I am very afraid; I am afraid to some extent; I am a little bit afraid*, and for the second question, the answers: *high* and *moderate*. This is tantamount to converting these questions into dichotomous items (0 = unselected category; 1 = selected category) and calculating a combined indicator by adding them together. Hence, the indicator can take values in the range (0–3).

It should be noted that we are dealing here with the type of indicator whose structure serves to capture the specifics of JI, which has many sources and manifests itself in numerous ways. Since the goal of the diagnostic procedure was to integrate several different symptoms of JI into a single whole, Cronbach's alpha is not applicable in this case.<sup>10</sup> This situation is correct from a methodological point of view in accordance with the guidelines of G. Wieczorkowska-Wierzbińska et al. (2015); Sijtsma (2009); Tavakol and Dennick (2011).

The distribution of results of the indicator constructed in this way is close to normal (Figure 9.4), effectively differentiates respondents into those with a low and high level of JI. Distributions of frequency of answers to respective questions can be found in the statistical annex.

The mean of answers given by all the surveyed people is  $M = 1.3$ , and the standard deviation is  $Sd = 0.95$ . In the group of civil servants, the level of JI is statistically significantly higher than in the sales staff group.

When drawing conclusions based on the data obtained, it is worth keeping in mind other approaches to the diagnosis of JI, as the choice in this respect may affect the results.

### 9.2.3 Employability

The indicator developed for the needs of the presented research consists of two components: employability and marketability.

According to N. De Cuyper et al. (2008), employability refers to the ability of an individual to cope with changes and transitions in the labour market related to a loss of employment. They point out that, traditionally, this ability used to be

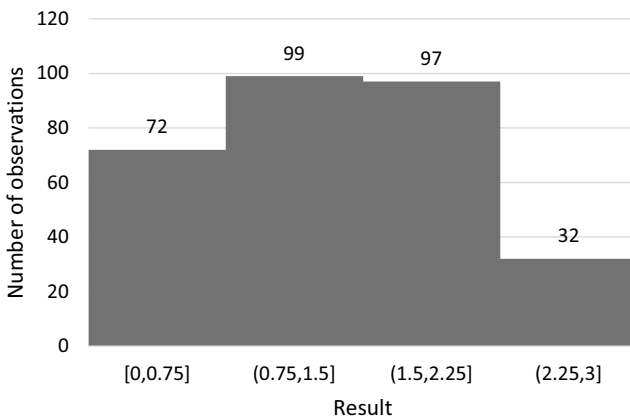


Figure 9.4 Distribution of Results for the Job Insecurity (JI) Indicator Obtained by the Surveyed Persons (the Survey Results)

assessed with objective indicators of an individual's position in the labour market, which included education, training and popularity of the profession.

Current studies make use of subjective indicators, defining employability as the perception and assessment of an individual's ability to gain employment in quantitative terms. N. De Cuyper et al. (2008) claim that it is a better definition than the objective indicators because it takes into account relationships between contextual and individual factors, which are key components of employability.<sup>11</sup>

The same is true of marketability, which is a qualitative indicator of an individual's position in the labour market and, like employability, is also subjective. According to Eby et al. (2003), marketability specifies how much individuals are convinced that their competences are appreciated in both internal (within the company) and external labour markets by current and/or potential employers. It determines individuals' position in relation to other employees-competitors, determining to what extent their competences are rare and sought after. This is connected with the perception of the added value that an individual contributes to the labour market, resulting from positive and unique outputs of that individual's work.

It should be clearly emphasised that employability and marketability are determined on a long-term horizon throughout the working life of an individual. Contrary to former situations when they were assessed at a specific moment following the completion of vocational training.

To date, research on employability and marketability has been carried out, for example, by De Vos et al. (2011), who showed a relationship between employability and job satisfaction. They call for including employability into the set of competences that make up an individual's career capital, which is key to the individual's adaptivity in the current realities of the labour market. In addition, De Vos et al. (2011) demonstrated that marketability is an indicator of professional success, and they confirmed a positive relationship between satisfaction with career development and marketability.

De Cuyper et al. (2008) showed that employability was negatively related to the sense of JI. This means that people with high employability were less affected by the lack of job security compared to people with low employability scores.

In the present study, a specially constructed Employability Indicator designated with the abbreviation MAE (combining marketability and employability) was used to diagnose this variable.<sup>12</sup> Its construction was inspired by tools already described in foreign studies, but they were modified and adapted to the specific Polish conditions. Questions related to employability were formulated using the Employment Opportunity Index developed by R.W. Griffeth et al. (2005). On the other hand, marketability was diagnosed using the scale by R.C. Wanberg et al. (2002). Owing to the translation and modifications made to comply with the realities of the Polish labour market, the final structure of the indicator is far from the original version of the source diagnostic tools. The more so that the reliability assessment indicated the need to modify their original form. For example, the division into internal (intra-organisational) and external marketability was abandoned. The final effect of statistical analyses was the

*Table 9.5* Items of the Employability (MAE) Indicator

Using the scale, rate the degree to which you agree with the following statements:

- [1] Taking into account my qualifications and experience, I would quickly find a new job.
- [2] If I started looking for a job, in the new job, I would probably get higher pay than my current one.
- [3] If I quit my present job, I would get a higher position in the new job.
- [4] I am perceived as a valuable employee by my company.
- [5] Taking into account my skills and experience, my job provides considerable benefits to the company.
- [6] There are numerous development opportunities for me in my workplace.
- [7] Taking into account my skills and experience, potential employers perceive me as a valuable employee.

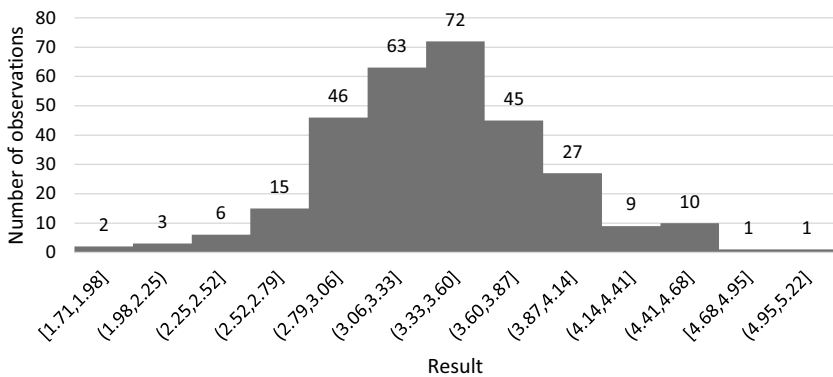
The scale of answers: (1) I strongly disagree; (2) I disagree; (3) I neither agree nor disagree; (4) I agree; (5) I strongly agree.

(Compiled by the Author on the Basis of Griffeth et al. 2005; Wanberget al. 2002)

combination of employability and marketability into one Employability (MAE) Indicator consisting of seven items (Table 9.5) with Cronbach’s alpha at the level of 0.77.

The result of the surveyed person is calculated as the mean of answers indicated on the five-point scale. The distribution of results in the studied group is close to normal (Figure 9.5) and allows for further analysis.

The mean Employability (MAE) Indicator in the total group surveyed was  $M = 3.42$ , while the standard deviation  $Sd = 0.51$ . Sales staff members have a statistically higher level of Employability than civil servants.



*Figure 9.5* Distribution of Results for the Employability (MAE) Indicator in the Total Group Surveyed (the Survey Results)

#### **9.2.4 Professional flexibility**

The structure of the Professional Flexibility indicator used in the research is based on the traditional approach to employee flexibility, related to the needs of the organisation, not the individual. Marzec and Strużyna (2015) relate it to the flexibility of the employee's behaviour and skills. At the same time, they recognise that

the flexibility of behaviour refers to the extent to which an employee can act non-standardly and adapt to the requirements of a specific task situation; the flexibility of skills indicates the range of possible applications of the employee's skills, which results in an increase in the number of tasks the employee can carry out or positions that the employee may occupy.

Following this line of reasoning, Rostkowski (2007, p. 77) states that employee flexibility should be analysed in terms of the needs of the organisation. Employee flexibility manifests itself in the readiness to work overtime and part-time (with limited remuneration), change the workplace – in the country or abroad, and modify the position/role in the organisation, temporarily take a position of another nature (e.g. managerial position), as well as alter the way the tasks are carried out (teleworking, virtual teams). Finally, a flexible employee exhibits loyalty towards the organisation and flexibility to change by supporting them.

In line with this approach, for the purposes of this study I have developed the Professional Flexibility (PF) indicator that refers to the flexibility of employees and is in accordance with the traditional understanding of this concept in the area of human resource management.

Originally, the indicator consisted of eight items; however, factor analysis showed that three of them should be excluded from further analysis. The items included in the final version that make up the indicator are included in Table 9.6.

The Professional Flexibility (PF) indicator constructed in this way reached Cronbach's alpha of 0.69. The result of the person surveyed was calculated as the mean of answers indicated on the five-point scale.

The frequency distribution of respondents' answers (Figure 9.6) is quite similar to normal and allows for further analysis.

In terms of professional flexibility, defined in a traditional way, sales staff got the mean score and standard deviation of  $M = 2.84$ ,  $Sd = 0.55$ , and civil servants, respectively,  $M = 2.8$ ;  $Sd = 0.5$ , total  $M = 2.82$ ;  $Sd = 0.52$ . The analysis of data shows that the differences between the mean values of professional flexibility in the compared groups of sales staff members and civil servants are statistically insignificant.

#### **9.2.5 Boundaryless career**

Especially for the needs of this study, a measure was constructed under the name BC indicator. The structure of the indicator was based on the assumption that

*Table 9.6* Items of the Professional Flexibility (PF) Indicator

Using the scale, rate the extent to which in your professional situation you would be ready to:

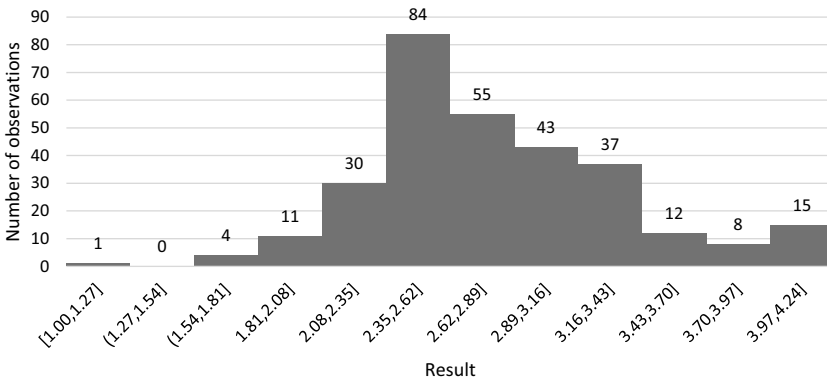
- [1] Undergo training to improve your professional skills.
- [2] Change the employer.
- [3] Change the industry or sector in which you currently work.
- [4] Get a completely new education/profession.
- [5] Change your place of residence to get employment.

Items removed based on the results of the factor analysis:

- [1] Take a lower job.
- [2] Accept lower salary.
- [3] Accept employment on a contract other than for an indefinite period (under the so-called flexible forms of employment).

The scale of answers: (1) Definitely not; (2) rather not; (3) rather yes; (4) definitely yes.

(Compiled by the Author)



*Figure 9.6* Frequency Distribution for the Professional Flexibility (PF) Indicator (the Survey Results)

individuals implementing the BC pattern show behaviour in the labour market, which suggests that they do not get attached to one workplace. They demonstrate “readiness to cross organisational, workplace or professional barriers” (Marzec and Strużyna 2015, p. 171). They are ready to change their workplace, selecting, among others, such organisations where the working time is relatively short.

The indicator developed took into account employees' employment situation. The persons surveyed answered questions listed in Table 9.7.

Answers to the questions were treated as binary variables (0–1, one point for the diagnostic response). The indicator was created as the sum of diagnostic responses and falls within the range of 0–4.

Similarly to the case of the JI indicator, individual items measure different aspects of BC. In addition, the indicator is based on dichotomised items. Under such circumstances, Cronbach's alpha does not apply.

The distribution of results for the BC indicator is close to normal, as shown in Figure 9.7.

The analysis of data shows that the average level of the BC indicator and the standard deviation for all respondents was  $M = 1.87$ ;  $Sd = 1.12$ , in the group of sales staff members –  $M = 2.1$ ;  $Sd = 1.14$ , and for civil servants –  $M = 1.64$ ;  $Sd = 1.05$ , respectively. The differences between the mean values of the BC indicator in the compared groups of sales staff members and civil servants are statistically significant. A higher mean value in the group of sales staff may indicate that they are more likely than civil servants to pursue a career pattern typical of a boundaryless career.

### **9.2.6 Savickas's career adapt-abilities scale (CAAS)**

The described research process drew on a diagnostic tool constructed by Savickas and his team, based on the Career Construction Theory (CCT) discussed earlier (sub-chapter 6.1). This is the Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS) (Savickas and Porfeli 2012), which was translated into Polish as "Skala Zdolności Adaptacji do Kariery."

*Table 9.7* Items of the Boundaryless Career (BC) Indicator

<i>Item</i>	<i>Diagnostic answer</i>
[1] In how many companies/institutions have you worked for more than 3 months?	More than two workplaces
[2] All things considered, how likely is it that in the next 12 months you will try to find a job in another company or organisation?	Very likely Likely
Possible answers: very likely; likely; unlikely; very unlikely; hard to say	
[3] What is the approximate average length of service in your current workplace?	Up to 5 years
[4] Have you remained unemployed as a result of your voluntary decision to terminate your employment contract?	Yes

(Compiled by the Author)

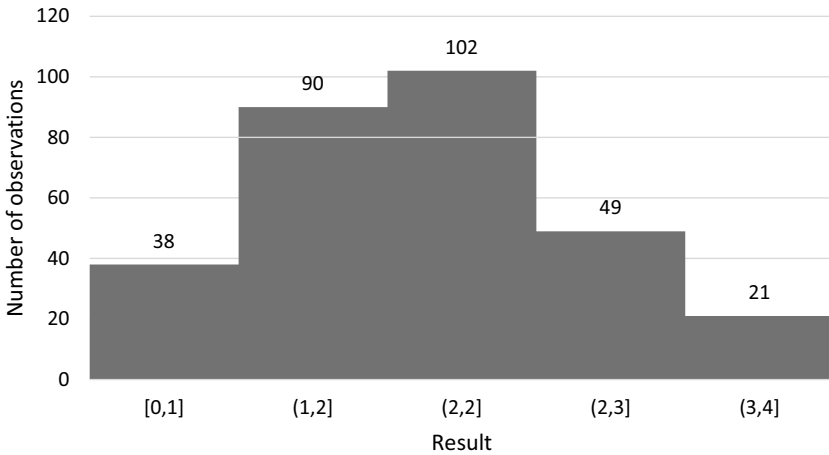


Figure 9.7 Frequency Distribution for the Boundaryless Career (BC) Indicator (the Survey Results)

In constructing the tool, the authors adopted an approach according to which, instead of identifying persistent personality traits, they focused on how individuals use their psychological potential to achieve professional goals. Researchers do not explore why individuals do something and do not refer, for example, to the value system that sets the career-building choices. Nor do they focus on the past to predict the individual's professional life pattern. According to the Career Construction Theory, a set of specific attitudes, beliefs and competences (ABCs) is diagnosed. ABCs are grouped into four dimensions of adaptability:

- concern – concern for one's professional future;
- control – control of one's own professional future;
- curiosity – interest in discovering possible future scenarios of professional development;
- confidence – trust in oneself in pursuit of one's own aspirations.

These dimensions are treated as an individual's adaptation potential – a type of base that allows the individual to build current strategies for solving problems and behaviours related to shaping the vocational self-concept. In relation to the adaptation process described above, these are the sources and resources of adaptivity (sub-chapter 6.1). Particularly important from the point of view of the goals of work is that individuals create their professional situation by combining their own goals and needs with the opportunities offered by the environment.

It is a direct reference to the specifics of the modern labour market and is consistent with the perspective adopted in the monograph.

The Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS) is already widely used as a diagnostic tool and, most importantly, refers to the current professional realities and related adaptive aspects of an individual. For this reason, it was selected for comparison with the proposed EMO questionnaire. The model of adaptation to the changing labour market with the EMO replaced with the Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS) was checked in terms of possessed adaptation parameters.

This tool was created as a result of cooperation of researchers from 13 countries, and its psychometric value is high (Savickas and Porfeli 2012); its usefulness was confirmed by research carried out in four Franconian countries: Switzerland, Belgium, Luxembourg and France (Johnston *in* 2013).

The Polish version of this tool achieved satisfactory parameters as well. Cronbach's alpha for individual dimensions is as follows:

- concern – 0.74;
- control – 0.895;
- curiosity – 0.81;
- confidence – 0.86.

Based on the results of reliability assessment, it was considered to be a good reference point for the proposed EMO.<sup>13</sup>

### **9.3 Employability Market Orientation operationalisation and evaluation of the reliability of the diagnostic questionnaire: Relationship with socio-demographic variables**

The previously identified individual employment competences, which make up EMO, were defined and operationalised. Then, specific diagnostic questions were assigned to them. The construction of questions was inspired by scales described in publications, as presented in Table 9.8.

The questions for the scales were selected in a way that was justified from the point of view of the realities of the Polish labour market, and therefore, some were abandoned and new ones added. Especially during the translation into Polish, the original version of the questions was modified so that they would be culturally adequate. None of the scales<sup>14</sup> was used in the original version. In addition, it should be noted that there is no similar diagnostic tool in the existing literature that would collectively include such scales. Therefore, the EMO Questionnaire is originally developed one.

The tool was subjected to psychometric analysis. During the process of assessing the reliability of the EMO Questionnaire, some changes were made to the original versions of individual scales. They mainly concerned the Career Strategy Implementation scale, which initially consisted of two subscales: intrapersonal and interpersonal, which was in line with the suggestion of Q. Weng

Table 9.8 Scales in the Employability Market Orientation Questionnaire

<i>Employability market orientation scales</i>	<i>Primary inspiration sources of final diagnostic tool</i>
Career Exploration (CE)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006)</li> <li>• Stumpf et al. (1983)</li> </ul>
Future Time Perspective (FTP)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Stumpf and Hartman (1984)</li> <li>• subscale <i>Extension</i>, source: Stumpf et al. (1983b)</li> </ul>
Career Planning (CP)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Koen et al. (2010)</li> <li>• Wanberg et al. (2002)</li> </ul>
Vocational Self-Concept Crystallisation (VSCC)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Quint and Kopelman scale as cited in: Weng and McElroy (2010)</li> </ul>
Career Strategy Implementation (CSI)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Griffeth et al. (2005)</li> </ul>

(Compiled by the Author)

and J.C. McElroy (2010). Ultimately, however, based on the results of the factor and reliability analysis, one question was moved to the Vocational Self-Concept Crystallisation (VSCC) scale and three – to the Career Planning (CP) scale. Two questions were excluded from further analysis. Consequently, the scales satisfied the requirement of disconnection. The final version of the Career Strategy Implementation (CSI) scale consists of questions related only to the interpersonal strategy of seeking contact with the employer, which involves having a mentor and/or building a network of social relations.

The detailed characteristics of the scales making up the EMO related to employment competences will be presented below.

The Career Exploration (CE) scale, consisting of eight items, is used to find an answer to the question of whether an individual monitors the professional environment, i.e. the needs of potential customers-employers in terms of skills the individual possesses. The adopted diagnostic approach involved measuring the types of an individual's activity in:

- controlling employment opportunities existing in the labour market – assessing the number and type of job offers;
- developing or acquiring new competences due to the expected increase in demand;
- estimating competitive position against other potential employees with a similar competence portfolio.

Cronbach's alpha for the CE scale stood at 0.85. The set of questions making up this scale is shown in Table 9.9.

The five-item dimension of VSCC served to answer the question of whether individuals are aware of the possessed skills that make up their portfolio of strengths and weaknesses in the context of employers' needs. Cronbach's alpha for VSCC was 0.74. The set of questions making up this scale is shown in Table 9.10.

*Table 9.9* Items of the Career Exploration (CE) Scale

---

Rate on the scale how often you perform the following actions:

- [1] I observe the labour market and the expectations of employers.
- [2] I analyse job offers that give me a chance for professional development.
- [3] I observe what forms of additional training people from my professional environment undergo.
- [4] I check how many potential job offers there are for me in the market.
- [5] I control what professional career others in my profession pursue.
- [6] I look for information about a specific job or company as a potential workplace.
- [7] I regularly talk to people who are well-informed about matters related to my profession.
- [8] I gather information on how I can adapt to different career paths.

The scale of answers: (1) never; (2) rarely; (3) often; (4) very often.

---

(Compiled by the Author and on the Basis of Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden 2006; Stumpf et al. 1983)

*Table 9.10* Items of the Vocational Self-Concept Crystallisation (VSCC) Scale

---

Using the scale, rate the degree to which you agree with the following statements:

- [1] Professional experience helps me get to know myself.
- [2] I know what professional skills I have.
- [3] I am not sure which of my skills I can use in my professional development.  
[reverse coded]
- [4] I know myself well enough to know what kind of work suits me.
- [5] I know how my qualities and skills affect my professional development.

The scale of answers: (1) I strongly disagree; (2) I disagree; (3) I neither agree nor disagree; (4) I agree; (5) I strongly agree.

---

(Compiled by the Author and on the Basis of Quint and Kopelman scale as cited in: Weng, Q. and McElroy, J.C. 2010)

On the other hand, the Career Planning (CP) dimension is used to check, using seven items, whether individuals have specific goals and strive to pursue the selected career path in accordance with labour market rules and needs. Cronbach's alpha for this scale was 0.82.

The set of questions making up this scale is shown in Table 9.11.

The dimension Career Strategy<sup>15</sup> Implementation (CSI) was aimed at checking whether and which actions individuals undertake to communicate with potential employers and promote their competence offer. Based on three items, a diagnosis was performed of whether individuals shape their image among employers and against other professional competitors, whether they intentionally build a network of social relations, and look for a mentor who might potentially support their professional development. Cronbach's alpha was 0.64. The set of questions making up this scale is shown in Table 9.12.

*Table 9.11* Items of the Career Planning (CP) Scale

---

Using the scale, rate the degree to which you agree with the following statements:

- [1] I have a professional development plan.
- [2] My current job is related to my future career goals.
- [3] I know how much effort I have to make to achieve my career goals.
- [4] I do not have clear career goals. [reverse coded]
- [5] I know what skills I will develop in the near future.
- [6] I observe other people who practise a profession similar to mine to know what skills and competences to develop.
- [7] I develop my competences so that they are in line with what potential employers need.

The scale of answers: (1) I strongly disagree; (2) I disagree; (3) I neither agree nor disagree; (4) I agree; (5) I strongly agree.

---

(Compiled by the Author and on the basis of Koen et al. 2010; Wanberg et al. 2002)

*Table 9.12* Items of the Career Strategy Implementation (CSI) Scale

---

Using the scale, rate the degree to which you agree with the following statements:

- [1] I work with a person who supports me in my professional development.
- [2] I have contacts with employees of other companies that can help me find a new job.
- [3] I am active in many fields and have a wide network of contacts who can help me find a job.

The scale of answers: (1) I strongly disagree; (2) I disagree; (3) I neither agree nor disagree; (4) I agree; (5) I strongly agree.

---

(Compiled by the Author and on the Basis of Griffeth et al. 2005)

The last dimension, Future Time Perspective (FTP), consists of five items and is used to assess the degree to which an individual is focused on the future, and to recognise how open and involved the individual is in professional development over time. Cronbach's alpha for this scale was 0.82. The set of questions making up this scale is shown in Table 9.13.

Ultimately, the questionnaire consists of 28 items. It is used to determine the results obtained by the person surveyed on individual scales and one general EMO indicator. The overall result can be treated as a mean of 28 items; however, a weighted mean should be used for scales in which the persons being surveyed responded using a four-level scale. Cronbach's alpha for the general EMO scale as a set of 28 questions is 0.89. This approach, however, has a certain weakness because the scales differ in the number of items and thus gain different weight in the overall result.

Therefore, in order to take into account different scale lengths, they were standardised. Then, the EMO indicator was constructed as the mean of the results from five scales. As a consequence of such a structure, the impact of each

*Table 9.13* Items of the Future Time Perspective (FTP) Scale

Rate on the scale how often you perform the following actions:

- [1] I analyse my professional past.
- [2] I reflect on how professional experience affects my professional development.
- [3] I think about what I can do and what I should improve to have a job.
- [4] I deliberate how my previous decisions and behaviour have affected my current professional situation.
- [5] I think about my professional future.

The scale of answers: (1) never; (2) rarely; (3) often; (4) very often.

(Compiled by the Author and on the Basis of Stumpf and Hartman 1984; Stumpf et al. 1983).

*Table 9.14* Cronbach's Alpha for Individual Scales in the Employability Market Orientation Questionnaire and the Total EMO Scale (the Survey Results)

<i>Dimension</i>	<i>Example of an item</i>	<i>Cronbach's alpha</i>	<i>Number of items</i>
Career Exploration (CE)	I control what professional career others in my profession pursue.	0.85	8
Future Time Perspective (FTP)	I deliberate how my previous decisions and behaviour have affected my current professional situation.	0.82	5
Career Planning (CP)	I have a professional development plan.	0.82	7
Vocational Self-Concept Crystallisation (VSCC)	I know how my qualities and skills affect my professional development.	0.74	5
Career Strategy Implementation (CSI)	I have contacts with employees of other companies that can help me find a new job.	0.64	3
Employability Market Orientation (EMO), total:	—		
for EMO as a set of five scales		0.73	28
for EMO as a set of 28 questions		0.89	

scale on the overall result is the same despite the different number of items. Cronbach's alpha for the general EMO indicator as a set of five scales is 0.73.

The list of Cronbach's alpha indicators for all the dimensions of EMO is presented in Table 9.14.

However, there are several points to be noted here. Namely, the final version of the Career Strategy Implementation scale had the lowest Cronbach's alpha, standing at 0.643, compared to other scales. This may be due to several reasons, the main one probably being cultural conditions. The question potentially raises associations with the negative phenomenon of nepotism, and the response to it can be strongly burdened with the need for social approval of the respondents. Both studies presented in foreign publications and the developed EMO model show that these behaviours related to professional development are very important in the current realities of the Polish labour market. Therefore, they were included in the final version of the EMO questionnaire. However, the general remark is that it would be advisable to check – in more in-depth, perhaps qualitative, studies – how the persons surveyed understand individual questions and what they have in mind when they respond to them. In the case of questions, the answers are declarative in nature. This remark applies to all items. Verifying this on the basis of behavioural indicators would be highly recommended from the point of view of the credibility of the captured image of the actual employee behaviour. All the more so because their answers may be strongly determined by an idea, resulting from the socialisation process, of what behaviours are expected, which may be incompatible with realities.

Also, I decided to preserve the division into scales in the final version of the questionnaire. This allows individual areas of employee behaviour to be controlled. It gives a better picture of the functioning of an individual, allows identifying the areas of potential competence deficits and points to those requiring development.

In the group surveyed, the distribution of results for the EMO indicator is close to normal, as shown in Figure 9.8. The distributions of results for individual scales are included in the statistical annex.

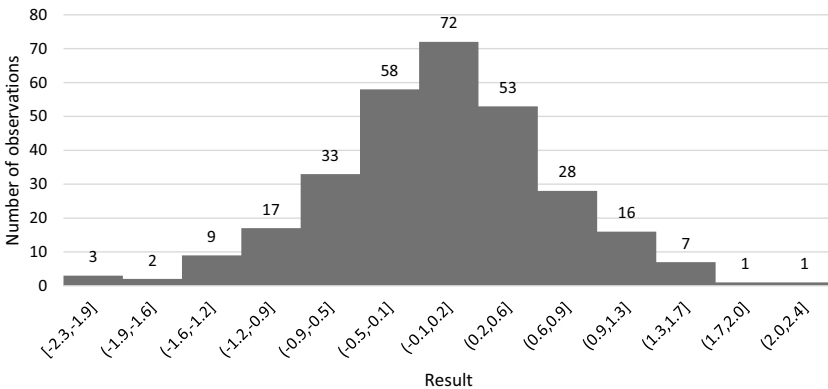


Figure 9.8 Distribution of Standardised Results Obtained in the EMO Questionnaire in the Total Group Surveyed (the Survey Results)

The obtained data show that the compiled EMO Questionnaire differentiates the persons surveyed and allows it to be recognised as a psychometrically useful tool that diagnoses employment competences.

It was found that EMO does not correlate with age and gender. On the other hand, education correlates negatively with EMO.<sup>16</sup> People with lower education (bachelor) exhibit a higher level of EMO than people with higher education.

The regression analysis essentially confirmed these results while controlling for possible interactions between variables. A descriptive list of results can be found in Table 9.15, and static parameters are included in the annex.

The significance of the interaction of education and gender for the overall level of EMO has been identified at the level of tendency. Among men, EMO decreases less as they receive higher education than among women. Women with lower education exhibit stronger EMO than men. However, when they receive higher education, their EMO decreases more strongly than among men; in the case of men, the difference in the level of EMO is small depending on education, as shown in Figure 9.9.

In addition, the importance of the interaction of age and education for the overall degree of EMO was determined at the level of tendency (Figure 9.10). Among the elderly with lower education, the level of EMO increases with age, whereas it changes to a small extent among people with higher education.

Age is also of significance in the case of some of the EMO scales. The level of CE was found to be associated with education. People with lower education demonstrate a higher level of CE. An interaction between age and education was identified at the level of tendency (0.06) (Figure 9.11). Among the elderly, CE drops more sharply as they receive education than among younger people.

There is also a relationship between FTP and education and age. Younger people with lower education are more oriented towards thinking about professional development in the long term.

Age is also associated with VSCC. Older people have a higher level of VSCC than younger people. An interaction with education and gender was also revealed (Figure 9.12). Women with lower education score higher on the VSCC scale than men, but when they receive higher education, the level of VSCC falls more heavily among women than among men.

Interestingly, no relationship was found between EMO and the type of employment contract (short-term and long-term) of the person surveyed. The two-factor variance analysis, taking into account the type of employment contract and the dichotomised level of education (bachelor-higher), revealed a significant interaction with EMO, as shown in Figure 9.13.

Figure 9.13 shows that people with lower education employed on a long-term contract show a stronger EMO than people with higher education. This can be explained by the fact that the people from the latter group might expect long-term employment based on a relational contract, and such an expectation

Table 9.15 Descriptive Characteristics of Relationships Between Socio-demographic Variables Versus Employability Market Orientation and Individual Scales Based on Linear Regression Results (the Survey Results. Only Statistically Significant Relationships are Shown)

Independent variables	Dependent variable	Scales of the dependent variable				
	Employability Market Orientation (EMO)	Career Exploration (CE)	Future Time Perspective (FTP)	Vocational Self-Concept Crystallisation (VSCC)	Career Planning (CP)	Career Strategy Implementation (CSI)
Age	—	People with lower education (bachelor) explore the professional environment more	Younger people are more oriented towards thinking about professional development in the long term	—	Older people have a higher level of Vocational Self-Concept Crystallisation than younger people	—
Gender	—	—	—	—	—	—
Education	People with lower education (bachelor) demonstrate a higher level of EMO	People with lower education (bachelor) demonstrate a higher level of CE	People with lower education are more oriented towards thinking about professional development in the long term	—	—	—
Interactions	Among men, EMO decreases less as they receive higher education than among women	Among the elderly, CE drops more sharply as they receive education than among younger people	—	—	Women with lower education score higher on the Vocational Self-Concept Crystallisation scale than men, but when they receive higher education, the level of VSCC falls more heavily among women than among men	—

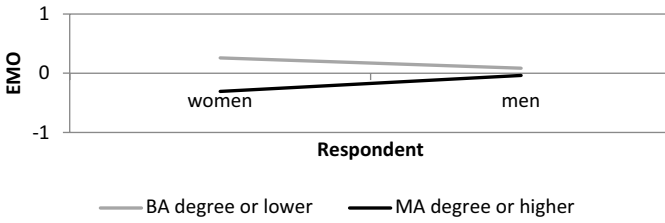


Figure 9.9 Interaction of Gender and Education Versus Employability Market Orientation (the Survey Results)

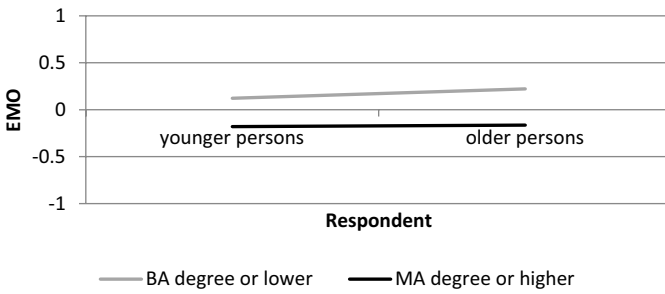


Figure 9.10 Interaction of Age and Education Versus Employability Market Orientation (the Survey Results)

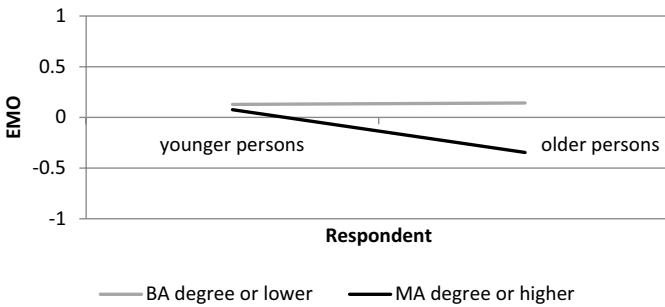


Figure 9.11 Interaction of Age and Education Versus Career Exploration (CE) – EMO Scale (the Survey Results)

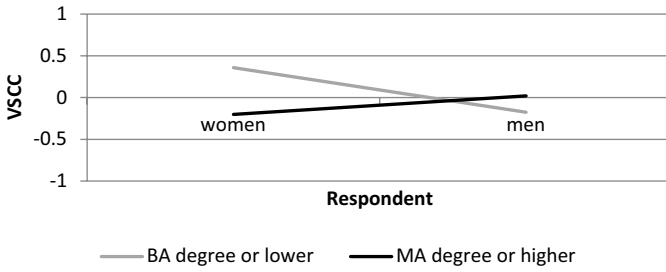


Figure 9.12 Interaction of Gender and Education Versus Vocational Self-Concept Crystallisation (VSCC) – EMO Scale (the Survey Results)

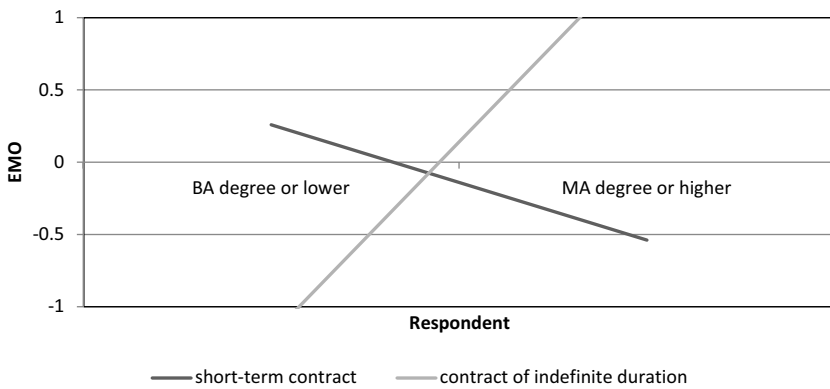


Figure 9.13 Interaction of Type of Employment Contract and Education Versus Employability Market Orientation (the Survey Results)

does not activate EMO. This thesis should be subjected to more thorough research analysis.

In summary, the constructed EMO Questionnaire meets the criteria for its use in the diagnostic and research process. However, taking into account socio-demographic variables, it can be concluded that EMO is activated regardless of the age and gender of the employee, but it depends on education, which means that it will be more likely to occur in the case of a person with a bachelor’s degree than in the case of a person with master’s degree, especially employed on a short-term contract.

### 9.4 Psychological contract, cognitive alternatives and cognitive control versus Employability Market Orientation

In the research process, EMO determinants were sought to answer the question: What does one’s ability to trigger EMO depend on?<sup>17</sup> First and foremost, the importance of the psychological contract, whose indicator is the workplace, was checked.

The obtained results show that people who reveal EMO are present in groups of both sales staff and civil servants. Figures 9.14 and 9.15 depict the distribution of this variable divided into the groups surveyed, depending on the workplace.

The average level of EMO, however, is statistically significantly higher among sales staff than among civil servants. What is more, a correlation was found

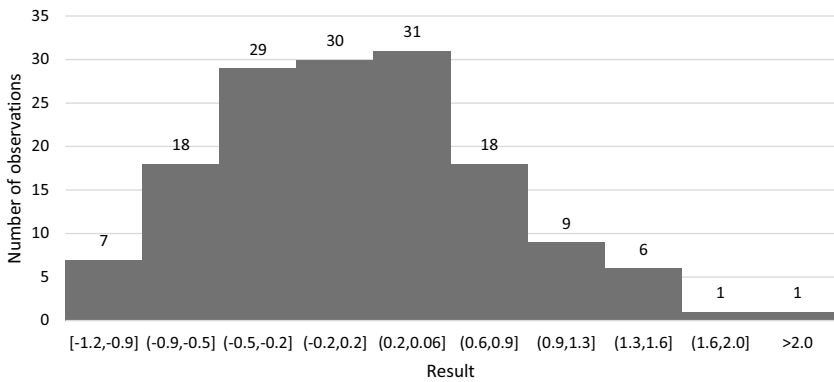


Figure 9.14 Distribution of Standardised Results Obtained in the EMO Questionnaire, Divided into Sales Staff (the Survey Results)

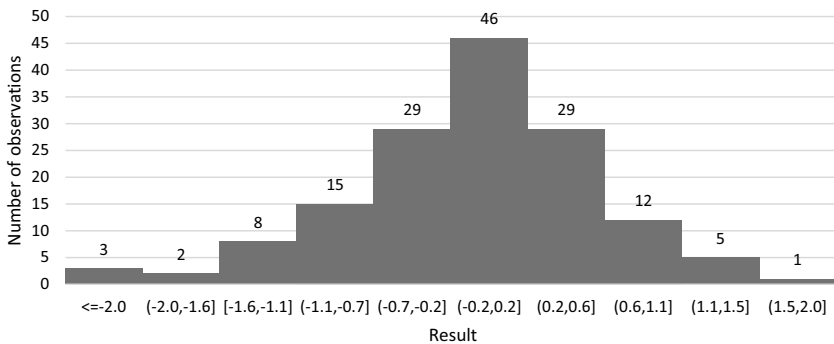


Figure 9.15 Distribution of Standardised Results Obtained in the EMO Questionnaire, Divided into Civil Servants (the Survey Results)

between EMO and the workplace. The direction of this correlation confirms that sales staff achieve a higher level of EMO than civil servants.

Nonetheless, the situation appeared to be more complex when regression analysis was performed according to the schema presented in Table 9.16.

It reveals a relationship between the type of psychological contract expressed in the workplace (sales staff versus civil servants) and EMO, yet only in the regression model controlling for age and gender. Expanding the model with further predictors such as education and interactions between variables makes the relationship disappear. This also holds true of the importance of education,<sup>18</sup> although this relationship occurred in the regression analysis with socio-demographic variables presented in sub-chapter 8.3.

The conclusion is that hypothesis 1 about the relationship between EMO and the psychological contract cannot be unambiguously confirmed.

However, some regularities have been demonstrated within individual scales of EMO. For example, the interaction of gender and workplace has been established, which means that saleswomen reveal higher levels of CE than female civil

*Table 9.16* Research Schema for Verification of Hypotheses 1 and 2 Regarding Determinants of Employability Market Orientation

<i>H.1: There is a relationship between Employability Market Orientation and the transactional versus relational psychological contract</i>	<i>H.2: There is a positive relationship between Cognitive flexibility (dimensions of Cognitive Alternatives and Cognitive Control) and Employability Market Orientation H.2a: The higher the level of Cognitive Alternatives, the stronger Employability Market Orientation</i>	<i>H.2: There is a positive relationship between Cognitive Flexibility (dimensions of Cognitive Alternatives and Cognitive Control) and Employability Market Orientation H.2b: The higher the level of Cognitive Control, the stronger Employability Market Orientation</i>
<i>Independent variable</i> – psychological contract (transactional versus relational) indicator – workplace (sales staff member versus civil servant) <i>Dependent variable</i> – EMO indicator – result in the EMO Questionnaire <i>Controlled variables</i> – age, gender, education	<i>Independent variable</i> – Cognitive Alternatives indicator – result on the CFI scale of Cognitive Alternatives <i>Dependent variable</i> – EMO indicator – result in the EMO Questionnaire <i>Controlled variables</i> – age, gender, education, type of employment contract (short-term versus long-term), workplace	<i>Independent variable</i> – Cognitive Control indicator – result on the CFI scale of Cognitive Control <i>Dependent variable</i> – EMO indicator – result in the EMO Questionnaire <i>Controlled variables</i> – age, gender, education, type of employment contract, workplace

(Compiled by the Author of this Monograph)

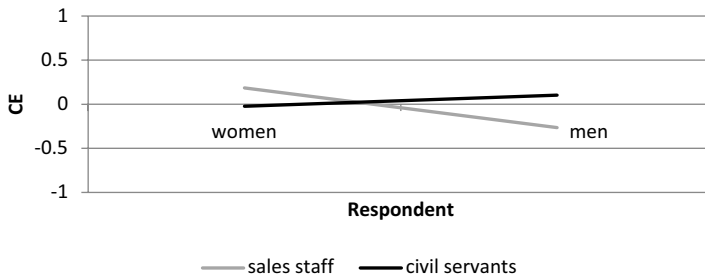


Figure 9.16 Interaction of the Workplace and Gender Versus Career Exploration (CE) – EMO Scale (the Survey Results)

servants (Figure 9.16). A link between FTP and the workplace has also been identified – older civil servants exhibit a lower level of FTP.

A general conclusion is that EMO can be exhibited by an individual regardless of organisational conditions. In groups with both transactional (sales staff) and relational (civil servants) contracts, there are employees who reveal it.

A descriptive summary of the results of regression analysis is presented in Table 9.17, and statistical parameters are contained in the statistical annex.

The obtained results suggest that EMO may be exhibited by employees who have specific personality traits, in this case, Cognitive Flexibility. It has turned out that the groups surveyed do not differ in the average level of Cognitive Flexibility described in the two dimensions of Cognitive Alternatives and Cognitive Control. In turn, a positive relationship between EMO and Cognitive Alternatives has been confirmed, which is consistent with hypothesis 2a. People who can find alternative solutions to problems exhibit stronger EMO. The analysis of the individual scales showed that this relationship does not occur only in the case of the CE scale. The employee's activity in this area does not depend on Cognitive Alternatives. A descriptive summary of the results of regression analysis is presented in Table 9.18, and statistical parameters are contained in the statistical annex.

A similar result, confirming hypothesis 2b, has been obtained for the dimension of Cognitive Control. The relationship of this variable occurs with all EMO scales. People who can control their situation exhibit stronger EMO.

A more detailed analysis of EMO scales has shown that younger people and sales staff members with a high level of Cognitive Alternatives and Cognitive Control are more time-oriented, and women have better VSCC. The type of workplace does not matter, which confirms a limited role of organisational factors.

Interestingly, it has been found that older people achieve higher levels of Cognitive Alternatives and Cognitive Control with age. Men, on the other hand, have a higher level of Cognitive Control than women. This dependence on gender and age did not occur for EMO. Neither does it matter in the

Table 9.17 Descriptive Characteristics of Relationships Between the Workplace (Sales Staff Versus Civil Servants), EMO and Individual Scales, Based on the Results of Linear Regression (the Survey Results. Only Statistically Significant Relationships are Shown)

<i>Independent variable</i>	<i>Dependent variable</i>	<i>Scales of the dependent variable</i>				
		<i>Career Exploration (CE)</i>	<i>Future Time Perspective (FTP)</i>	<i>Vocational Self-Concept Crystallisation (VSCC)</i>	<i>Career Planning (CP)</i>	<i>Career Strategy Implementation (CSI)</i>
Workplace (sales staff versus civil servants) <i>transactional versus relational psychological contract</i>	Civil servants have a statistically significantly lower level of EMO than sales staff this relationship disappears when education is controlled for	—	Civil servants show a lower level of Future Time Perspective	—	—	—
<b>Controlled Variables</b> Age	—	—	Older people show a lower level of Future Time Perspective	Older people have better Vocational Self-concept Crystallisation	—	—

(Continued)

Table 9.17 (Continued)

<i>Independent variable</i>	<i>Dependent variable</i>	<i>Scales of the dependent variable</i>				
	<i>Employability Market Orientation (EMO)</i>	<i>Career Exploration (CE)</i>	<i>Future Time Perspective (FTP)</i>	<i>Vocational Self-Concept Crystallisation (VSCC)</i>	<i>Career Planning (CP)</i>	<i>Career Strategy Implementation (CSI)</i>
Gender	—	—	—	—	—	—
Education	—	—	—	—	—	—
Type of employment contract (short-term versus long-term)	—	—	—	—	—	—
Interactions	—	Saleswomen reveal a higher level of CE than female civil servants and salesmen; in the case of salesmen and male civil servants, this difference is smaller	—	Men with higher education have a better Vocational Self-concept Crystallisation	—	—

*Table 9.18* Descriptive Characteristics of Relationships Between Cognitive Alternatives (Dimension of Cognitive Flexibility), EMO and Individual Scales, Based on the Results of Linear Regression (the Survey Results. Only Statistically Significant Relationships are Shown)

<i>Independent variable</i>	<i>Dependent variable</i>	<i>Scales of the dependent variable</i>				
	<i>Employability Market Orientation (EMO)</i>	<i>Career Exploration (CE)</i>	<i>Future Time Perspective (FTP)</i>	<i>Vocational Self-Concept Crystallisation (VSCC)</i>	<i>Career Planning (CP)</i>	<i>Career Strategy Implementation (CSI)</i>
Cognitive Alternatives (dimension of Cognitive Flexibility)	People who can identify many possible responses to and interpretations of their situation also exhibit strong EMO	—	People who can identify many possible responses to and interpretations of their situation also exhibit strong Future Time Perspective	People who can identify many possible responses to and interpretations of their situation also have a crystallised Vocational Self-Concept	People who can identify many possible responses to and interpretations of their situation also plan their career (Career Planning)	People who can identify many possible responses to and interpretations of their situation also have developed Career Strategy Implementation

(Continued)

Table 9.18 (Continued)

Independent variable	Dependent variable	Scales of the dependent variable				
	Employability Market Orientation (EMO)	Career Exploration (CE)	Future Time Perspective (FTP)	Vocational Self- Concept Crystallisation (VSCC)	Career Planning (CP)	Career Strategy Implementation (CSI)
<b>Controlled Variables</b>						
Age	—	—	Younger people who can identify many possible responses to and interpretations of their situation consider their professional develop- ment from a longer-term perspective	—	—	—
Gender	—	—	—	Women who can identify many possible responses to and interpreta- tions of their situation have a better Vocational Self-Concept Crystallisation than men	—	—

<i>Independent variable</i>	<i>Dependent variable</i>	<i>Scales of the dependent variable</i>				
		<i>Employability Market Orientation (EMO)</i>	<i>Career Exploration (CE)</i>	<i>Future Time Perspective (FTP)</i>	<i>Vocational Self-Concept Crystallisation (VSCC)</i>	<i>Career Planning (CP)</i>
Education	—	—	—	—	—	—
Type of employment contract (short-term versus long-term)	—	—	—	—	—	—
Workplace (sales staff versus civil servants) <i>transactional versus relational psychological contract</i>	—	—	Sales staff members who can identify many possible responses to and interpretations of their situation consider their professional development from a longer-term perspective	—	—	—

regression analysis, which indicates a strong interdependence of Cognitive Alternatives and Cognitive Control with EMO.

In conclusion, the psychological determinant, namely cognitive flexibility, is most strongly related to EMO. Both its dimensions: Cognitive Alternatives and Cognitive Control, strongly correlate with EMO, “neutralising” the relationship between EMO and education. Thus, this confirms hypothesis 2 (2a and 2b).

This leads to the general conclusion that EMO has proved to be most strongly dependent on individual psychological differences in one’s cognitive functioning. Organisational impacts framing a psychological contract are not significant.

## **9.5 Relationship of Employability Market Orientation with job insecurity and employability**

The second general research question concerned the fulfilment by EMO of the adopted criteria of adaptation to the changing labour market, i.e. JI and employability. Thereby, it was defined what the employee exhibiting EMO obtains.

The survey shows that civil servants reveal statistically higher average JI and lower Employability than sales staff (Table 9.19). The analytical process was intended to check the role of EMO in this context. This involves the verification of hypotheses 3 and 4, which follow the schema contained in Table 9.20.

In the first place, hypothesis 3, referring to the criterion of employee adaptation, namely the reduction of the sense of JI, was verified. It was assumed that an individual with a strong EMO would experience less discomfort because of JI. Thus, it would mean that EMO plays an adaptive function in the changing labour market.

As part of the verification of this hypothesis, a regression analysis was carried out in two variants: with no control for the dimensions of Cognitive Alternatives and Cognitive Control and with account being taken of them in the model. In the first variant, there was a negative relationship between JI and EMO. According to predictions, respondents with stronger EMO experienced less JI, with a simultaneous relationship with the type of employment contract, and at the level of tendency, with the workplace. This means that the lowest level of JI is exhibited by sales staff with strong EMO working under a short-term contract.

However, if the dimensions of Cognitive Alternative and Cognitive Control are included in the regression model, then the EMO relationship with JI disappears. As a result, JI is related only to Cognitive Control, the type of employment contract and, at the level of tendency, the workplace. Thus, the lowest JI is experienced by sales staff working under a short-term contract but having a high level of Cognitive Control. Paradoxically, high JI but low Cognitive Control was felt by civil servants employed under a long-term contract. The EMO level is not relevant in this situation. Therefore, hypothesis 3 cannot be unambiguously confirmed, and descriptive characteristics of the identified relationships can be found in Table 9.21.

Similarly to JI, as part of the verification of hypothesis 4, a regression analysis was carried out in two variants: with no control for the dimensions of Cognitive

*Table 9.19* Descriptive Characteristics of Relationships Between Cognitive Control (Dimension of Cognitive Flexibility), EMO and Individual Scales, Based on the Results of Linear Regression (the Survey Results. Only Statistically Significant Relationships are Shown)

<i>Independent variable</i>	<i>Dependent variable</i>	<i>Scales of the dependent variable</i>				
	<i>Employability Market Orientation (EMO)</i>	<i>Career Exploration (CE)</i>	<i>Future Time Perspective (FTP)</i>	<i>Vocational Self- Concept Crystallisation (VSCC)</i>	<i>Career Planning (CP)</i>	<i>Career Strategy Implementation (CSI)</i>
Cognitive Control (dimension of Cognitive Flexibility)	People who have a sense of control over their situation also exhibit strong EMO	People who have a sense of control over their situation also have a high level of CE	People who have a sense of control over their situation also have a strong Future Time Perspective	People who have a sense of control over their situation also have a good Vocational Self-Concept Crystallisation	People who have a sense of control over their situation also have a planned career	People who have a sense of control over their situation also have a designed Career Strategy Implementation
<b>Controlled variables</b>						
Age	—	—	Younger people who control their situation are more time-oriented	—	—	—

(Continued)

Table 9.19 (Continued)

Independent variable	Dependent variable	Scales of the dependent variable				
	Employability Market Orientation (EMO)	Career Exploration (CE)	Future Time Perspective (FTP)	Vocational Self- Concept Crystallisation (VSCC)	Career Planning (CP)	Career Strategy Implementation (CSI)
Gender	—	—	—	Women who control their situation have a better Vocational Self-concept Crystallisation	—	—
Education	—	—	—	—	—	—
Type of employ- ment contract (short-term versus long-term)	—	—	—	—	—	—
Workplace (sales staff versus civil servants) <i>transactional versus relational psychological contract</i>	—	—	Sales staff members who control their situation are more time-oriented	—	—	—

*Table 9.20* Research Schema for Verification of Hypotheses 3 and 4

<i>H3: The stronger Employability Market Orientation, the lower Job Insecurity</i>	<i>H4: The stronger Employability Market Orientation, the higher Employability</i>
<i>Independent variable – EMO</i> Indicator – result in the EMO Questionnaire	<i>Independent variable – Employability Market Orientation (EMO)</i> Indicator – result in the EMO Questionnaire
<i>Dependent variable – Job Insecurity</i> Indicator – Job Insecurity (JI)	<i>Dependent variable – Employability</i> Indicator – Employability (MAE)
<i>Controlled variables – age, gender, education, type of employment contract, workplace, Cognitive Alternatives, Cognitive Control</i>	<i>Controlled variables – age, gender, education, workplace, type of employment contract and cognitive flexibility (Alternatives and Control) and Job Insecurity (JI)</i>

(Compiled by the Author)

*Table 9.21* Descriptive Characteristics of the Relationship Between Job Insecurity (JI) and EMO, Based on the Results of Linear Regression (the Survey Results. Only Statistically Significant Relationships are Shown)

<i>Independent variable</i>	<i>Dependent variable</i>
	<i>Job Insecurity (JI)</i>
Employability Market Orientation	People with strong EMO feel lower Job Insecurity; this dependence disappears for Cognitive Control
<b>Controlled variables</b>	
Age	—
Gender	—
Education	—
Type of employment contract (short-term versus long-term)	People employed under a long-term contract have a higher level of Job Insecurity
Workplace (sales staff versus civil servants)	Civil servants have a higher level of Job Insecurity
<i>transactional versus relational psychological contract</i>	
Cognitive Alternatives (dimension of Cognitive Flexibility)	—
Cognitive Control (dimension of Cognitive Flexibility)	People with high Cognitive Control have lower Job Insecurity

Flexibility and JI and with account being taken of them in the model. In the first variant, a positive relationship was found between EMO and Employability, with the simultaneous weaker significance of the workplace. Sales staff members with strong EMO exhibit greater employability.

In the regression model expanded to include Cognitive Alternatives, Cognitive Control and JI, there is still a strong relationship between EMO and

Employability, with the significance of the introduced predictors. Sales staff with a high level of Cognitive Alternatives and Cognitive Control and strong EMO exhibit high Employability and feel low Job Uncertainty (Table 9.22). Thus, hypothesis 4 has been confirmed.

In addition, a more detailed analysis of the results was carried out, involving the verification of whether correlations exist among the aforementioned variables in particular groups of respondents, i.e. among sales staff and civil servants. The analysis simultaneously comprised income as a more objective indicator than the other indicators based on some declarative answers in the questionnaires. A summary of the outcomes of this analysis is provided in Table 9.23.

It turns out that some differences are important from the point of view of the considerations in this study. Namely, JI is not related to EMO and income among sales staff but is negatively correlated with their Employability. It might seem obvious that if it is easy for an employee to get a job because of high demand, the employee feels low Job Uncertainty. This is probably correct conclusion, yet inference cannot be confined solely to these issues. Namely, it would be completely right if not for the fact that Employability positively correlates with EMO and income. This means that their low JI is determined not only by external demand for sales staff but also by the activity triggered by EMO that they would not have to undertake if it depended solely on the structure of the labour market.

This also could be confirmed by further findings. Specifically, people with a high level of EMO earn more. However, income correlates with Job Insecurity

*Table 9.22* Descriptive Characteristics of the Relationship Between Employability and EMO, Based on the Results of Linear Regression (the Survey Results. Only Statistically Significant Relationships are Shown)

<i>Independent variable</i>	<i>Dependent variable</i>
	<i>Employability (MAE)</i>
Employability Market Orientation	People with strong EMO exhibit greater employability
<b>Controlled variables</b>	
Age	—
Gender	—
Education	—
Type of employment contract	—
Workplace (sales staff versus civil servants)	Civil servants exhibit lower employability
<i>transactional versus relational psychological contract</i>	
Cognitive Alternatives (dimension of Cognitive Flexibility)	People who can identify many possible responses to and interpretations of their situation also exhibit high employability
Cognitive Control (dimension of Cognitive Flexibility)	People who have a sense of cognitive control over their situation also exhibit high employability
Job Insecurity	People with high job insecurity exhibit low employability

*Table 9.23* Comparison of Pearson r Correlation Coefficients for Selected Variables Divided into Civil Servants and Sales Staff (the Survey Results. Only Statistically Significant Relationships are Shown)

Variable	Job Insecurity indicator		Employability Market Orientation		Cognitive Control		Cognitive Alternatives		Employability (MAE)	
	Civil servants	Sales staff	Civil servants	Sales staff	Civil servants	Sales staff	Civil servants	Sales staff	Civil servants	Sales staff
Job Insecurity indicator	—	—	-0.24**	-0.04	-0.32***	-0.05	-0.23**	-0.03	-0.45***	-0.26**
Employability Market Orientation	-0.24**	-0.04	—	—	0.3***	0.43***	0.43***	0.39***	0.47***	0.48***
Income	-0.2*	-0.14	0.17*	0.16*	0.22**	0.295***	0.21*	0.14	0.2*	0.21**

+p < .10; \* p < .05; \*\* p < .01; \*\*\* p < .001.

Source: the survey results. Only statistically significant relationships are shown.

only in the group of civil servants. The design of JI indicator<sup>19</sup> used in the survey suggests that civil servants make their income dependent on the current employer.

On the other hand, sales staff members associate the possibility of earning income with their own activity, including EMO, which results in higher Employability, regardless of the employer, leading to reduced Job Uncertainty. As follows from the regression analysis, low JI does not involve having a long-term contract with the employer. It is, therefore, legitimate to state that sales staff members are independent of the current workplace and the possibility of maintaining a job with one employer.

To sum up, the obtained data confirm the adaptive function of EMO as it is associated with high Employability resulting in their lower JI. Cognitive Alternatives and Cognitive Control play an important role here. Thus, the criteria for adaptation to the changing labour market are met.

### 9.6 Employability Market Orientation as an alternative to Professional Flexibility and Boundaryless Career

The third general research question refers to EMO as an alternative constructs that are associated with the functioning of the individual in the changing labour market.

The first of these is Professional Flexibility, which is considered an important condition for an individual to achieve adaptation. Both groups of respondents obtained similar average values of the Professional Flexibility indicator, and the differences between them are not statistically significant.

Hypotheses 5a, 5b and 5c were verified according to the schema shown in Table 9.24.

Table 9.24 Research Schema for Verification of Hypotheses 5a, 5b, 5c

<i>H.5a: There is a relationship between Employability Market Orientation and Professional Flexibility</i>	<i>H.5b: There is a relationship between Professional Flexibility and Job Insecurity</i>	<i>H.5c: There is a relationship between Professional Flexibility and Employability</i>
<i>Independent variable</i> – Professional Flexibility Professional Flexibility (PF) indicator	<i>Independent variable</i> – Professional Flexibility Professional Flexibility (PF) indicator	<i>Independent variable</i> – Professional Flexibility Professional Flexibility (PF) indicator
<i>Dependent variable</i> – EMO Indicator – result in the EMO Questionnaire	<i>Dependent variable</i> – Job Insecurity Indicator – JI	<i>Dependent variable</i> – Employability Employability (MAE) indicator
<i>Controlled variables</i> – age, gender, education, type of employment contract, workplace, Cognitive Alternatives, Cognitive Control, Job Insecurity (JI)	<i>Controlled variables</i> – age, gender, education, type of employment contract, workplace, Cognitive Alternatives, Cognitive Control	<i>Controlled variables</i> – age, gender, education, type of employment contract, workplace, Cognitive Alternatives, Cognitive Control

(Compiled by the Author of this Monograph)

The conducted regression analysis indicates that there is no relationship between the professional flexibility of those surveyed and EMO. Thus, hypothesis 5 has not been confirmed. Only a statistically significant positive relationship between Professional Flexibility (PF) and the CE scale has been found. People who exhibit Professional Flexibility are also more active as regards career exploration.

An interesting result was, however, obtained for JI. Hypothesis 5b has been confirmed. It has turned out, however, that Professional Flexibility positively correlates with JI. This means that people exhibiting greater Professional Flexibility feel higher JI. In particular, these are civil servants with low Cognitive Control employed under a long-term contract (Table 9.25).

Yet, hypothesis 5c should be rejected since the results of the regression analysis indicate no relationship between Professional Flexibility and Employability.

To conclude, it should be stated that in accordance with the approach adopted in this monograph, Professional Flexibility does not play an adaptive function in the changing labour market. It does not build one's Employability and is associated with a stronger sense of JI. It is interesting as it contradicts quite common beliefs in this respect.

Another concept contained in the studies on the changing labour market, treated as a manifestation of the employee's adaptive activity, is BC. Sales staff members had a statistically significantly higher average level of the BC indicator than civil servants. Hypotheses 6a, 6b and 6c were verified according to the schema shown in Table 9.26.

A positive relationship was found between Boundaryless Career and EMO, which confirms hypothesis 6a. People pursuing a BC exhibit stronger EMO. In particular, this applies to the CE scale. It has turned out that younger people pursuing a BC are more inclined to explore their careers.

It also appears that, similarly to Professional Flexibility, the BC pattern coincides with a higher level of JI. Hypothesis 6b is thus confirmed, although the direction of the established relationship between BC and JI is incompatible with the expected one, considered adaptive. In particular, civil servants working under a short-term contract with a low level of Cognitive Control and pursuing a boundaryless career experience a higher level of Job Insecurity.

Hypothesis 6c should be rejected as no relationship has been found between BC and Employability.

To conclude, it should be stated that the BC pattern does not mean adaptation to the changing labour market because it is connected with JI and does not build Employability.

Nevertheless, the significance of both constructs should not be unequivocally denied. The results obtained may derive from the adopted approach to employee behaviour in the changing labour market and, above all, from the method of measuring these variables. Nonetheless, in comparison with them, EMO is more promising because, according to the research, it allows employees to recover what they lost as the psychological contract changes from a relational to a transactional one.

*Table 9.25* Descriptive Characteristics of Relationships Between Professional Flexibility (PF), EMO and Individual Scales: Job Insecurity (JI) and Employability (MAE), Based on the Results of Linear Regression (the Survey Results. The Remaining EMO Scales are Ignored Because no Relationship has been Found with PF. Only Statistically Significant Relationships are Shown)

<i>Independent variable</i>	<i>Dependent variable</i> <i>Employability Market Orientation (EMO)</i>	<i>Scale of the EMO dependent variable</i> <i>Career Exploration (CE)</i>	<i>Dependent variable</i> <i>Job Insecurity (JI)</i>	<i>Dependent variable</i> <i>Employability (MAE)</i>
Professional Flexibility (PF)	—	People who exhibit professional flexibility are more active as regards Career Exploration	People who are willing to accept many different job offers (high PF) feel a higher level of Job Insecurity	—
<b>Controlled Variables</b>				
Age	—	—		—
Gender	—	—		
Education	—	—		
Type of employment contract (short-term versus long-term)	—	—	People employed under a long-term contract feel a higher level of Job Insecurity	—

Workplace (sales staff versus civil servants) <i>transactional versus relational psychological contract</i>	—	—	Civil servants feel higher Job Insecurity	—
Cognitive Alternatives (dimension of Cognitive Flexibility)	People who can identify many possible responses to and interpretations of their situation also exhibit strong EMO	—		—
Cognitive Control (dimension of Cognitive Flexibility)	People who have a sense of cognitive control over their situation also exhibit strong EMO	—	People who have low cognitive control over their situation feel high Job Insecurity	
Job Insecurity	—	—		

---

Table 9.26 Research Schema for Verification of Hypotheses 6a, 6b, 6c

<i>H. 6a: There is a relationship between Employability Market Orientation and Boundaryless Career</i>	<i>H. 6b: There is a relationship between Boundaryless Career and Job Insecurity</i>	<i>H. 6c: There is a relationship between Boundaryless Career and Employability</i>
<i>Independent variable</i> – Boundaryless Career Boundaryless Career (BC) indicator	<i>Independent variable</i> – Boundaryless Career Boundaryless Career (BC) indicator	<i>Independent variable</i> – Boundaryless Career Boundaryless Career (BC) indicator
<i>Dependent variable</i> – EMO Indicator – result in the EMO Questionnaire	<i>Dependent variable</i> – Job Insecurity Indicator – JI	<i>Dependent variable</i> – Employability Employability (MAE) indicator
<i>Controlled variables</i> – age, gender, education, type of employment contract, workplace, Cognitive Alternatives, Cognitive Control, Job Insecurity (JI)	<i>Controlled variables</i> – age, gender, education, type of employment contract, workplace, Cognitive Alternatives, Cognitive Control, Job Insecurity (JI)	<i>Controlled variables</i> – age, gender, education, type of employment contract, workplace, Cognitive Alternatives, Cognitive Control, Job Insecurity (JI)

(Compiled by the Author of this Monograph)

## 9.7 Verification of the EMO-based path model of adaptation to the changing labour market: Comparison with the predictivity of Savickas's Career Adapt-Abilities Scale

The last stage of the research process is the verification of the hypothetical model of adaptation to the changing labour market described earlier in subchapter 7.6. It was developed as an effect of the analysis of phenomena performed in the theoretical part and the results of my research. It covers the hitherto empirical findings and serves to check whether the resulting model meets the fit criteria (Table 9.27).

In order to verify the model as a whole, a confirmatory path analysis was carried out by means of the lavaan package in the “R” programme. On the basis of partial coefficients of multiple regression, it allowed for establishing the share of individual variables of the model (Nowak 2011, p. 414). The path model establishes a network of connections and causal relationships between variables described by measurable variables. This makes it possible to conclude which model elements can be influenced so that the employee is able to adapt to new realities of the work environment based on a transactional psychological contract.

The conducted research procedure served to answer one more question: whether the same model could be built on the basis of another, already existing, diagnostic tool, i.e. Savickas's Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS), and obtain satisfactory fit indices. This involves the verification of the hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 7. The EMO-based path model of employee adaptation to the changing labour market has better fit indices than that using Savickas's Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS).*

Table 9.27 Descriptive Summary of Relationships Between Boundaryless Career (BC), Employability Market Orientation and Individual Scales, based on the Results of Linear Regression (the Survey Results. The Remaining EMO Scales are Ignored Because no Relationship has been Found with PE. Only Statistically Significant Relationships are shown)

Independent variable	Dependent variable	Scales of the EMO dependent variable	Dependent variable	Dependent variable
	Employability Market Orientation (EMO)	Career Exploration (CE)	Job Insecurity (JI)	Employability (MAE)
Boundaryless Career (BC)	People who pursue a Boundaryless Career (BC) exhibit stronger EMO	People who pursue a Boundaryless Career (BC) exhibit a higher level of CE	People who pursue a Boundaryless Career (BC) exhibit a higher level of Job Insecurity	—
<b>Controlled Variables</b>				
Age	—	Younger people exhibit a higher level of CE	—	—
Gender	—	—	—	—
Education	—	—	—	—
Type of employment contract (short-term versus long-term)	—	—	People employed under a long-term contract feel a higher level of Job Insecurity	—
Workplace (sales staff versus civil servants) <i>transactional versus relational psychological contract</i>	—	—	Civil servants feel higher Job Insecurity	—
Cognitive Alternatives (dimension of Cognitive Flexibility)	People who can identify many possible responses to and interpretations of their situation also exhibit strong EMO	—	—	—
Cognitive Control (dimension of Cognitive Flexibility)	People who have a sense of control over their situation also exhibit strong EMO	—	—	—
Job Insecurity	—	—	People who have low cognitive control over their situation feel high Job Insecurity	—

The verification procedure consisted in checking two variants of five-factor models. Model A reflects the proposed hypothetical adaptation, including Employability Market Orientation (EMO), Employability (MAE), Job Insecurity (JI), Cognitive Alternatives (CFI A) and Cognitive Control (CFI C).

Model B contains the same variables, but Savickas’s Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS) is introduced instead of EMO. The parameters of the tested models are provided in Table 9.28.

Model A measures indicate its good fit, and it can be adopted as the final version of the model of adaptation to the changing labour market. The path chart of Model A is shown in Figure 9.17.

Given the significance of chi-square at 0.004, Model B must be rejected. This means that Savickas’s Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS) has less predictive power than EMO. Thus, hypothesis 7 has been confirmed.

The adopted Model A shows that EMO supports an adaptive process where Employability, which reduces JI, is a mediating variable. The level of EMO is determined by Cognitive Alternatives and Cognitive Control.

The question arises about the contribution of the concept of EMO to the knowledge about employee functioning in the changing labour market. This is best reflected by the comparison of the situation of an employee working

Table 9.28 Parameters of the Tested Models (the Survey Results)

<i>The tested model of adaptation to the changing labour market</i>	<i>Chi-square</i>	<i>RMSEA</i>	<i>CFI/TLI</i>	<i>SRMR</i>
Five-factor Model A EMO/MAE/JI/CFI A/CFI C	0.122	0.052	0.985/0.966	0.032
Five-factor Model B CAAS/MAE/JI/Cognitive Alternatives/Cognitive Control	0.004	0.097	0.96/0.91	0.048

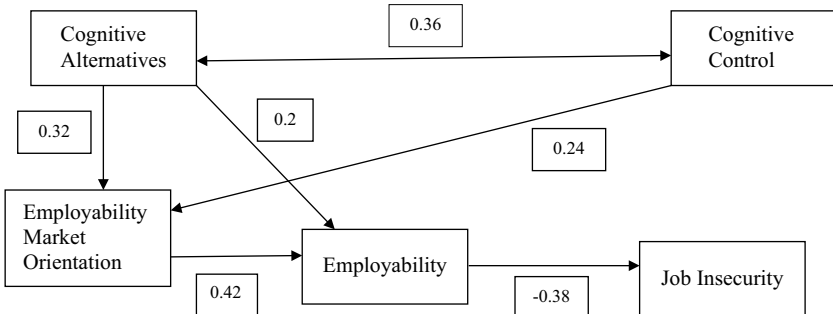


Figure 9.17 Path Chart of Model A – EMO-Based Model of Adaptation to the Changing Labour Market (the Survey Results)

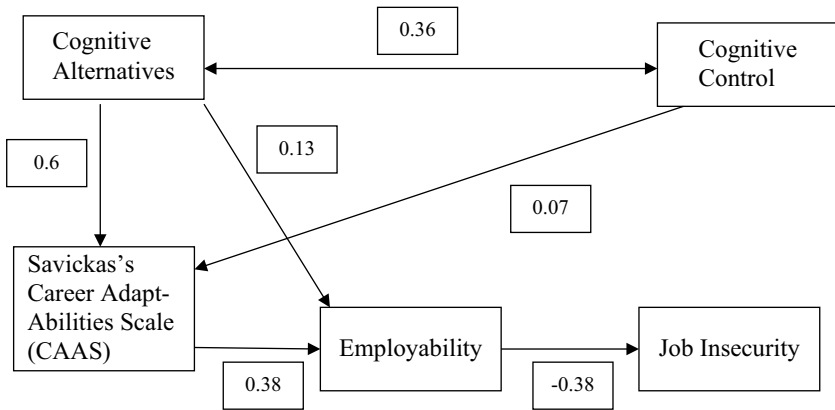


Figure 9.18 Path Chart of Model B (rejected) – CAAS-Based Model of Adaptation to the Changing Labour Market (the Survey Results)

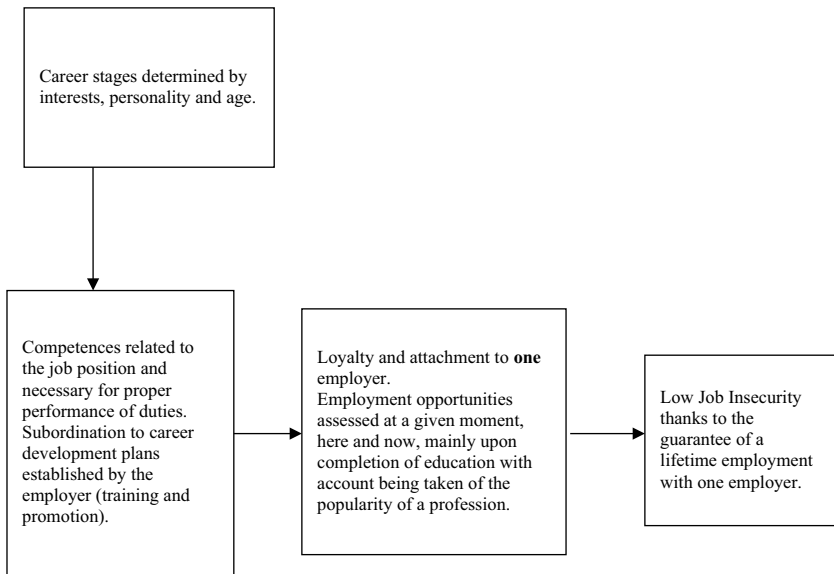


Figure 9.19 A Descriptive Model of Employee Adaptation in an Organisation Based on a Traditional Relational Psychological Contract (Compiled by the Author)

under a relational psychological contract with the current situation where the rules of a transactional contract apply. A description of this is shown in Figures 9.19–9.20.

The fundamental difference between adaptation to a relational versus transactional contract lies in what makes the employee able to get a job and thus experience a relatively low level of JI.

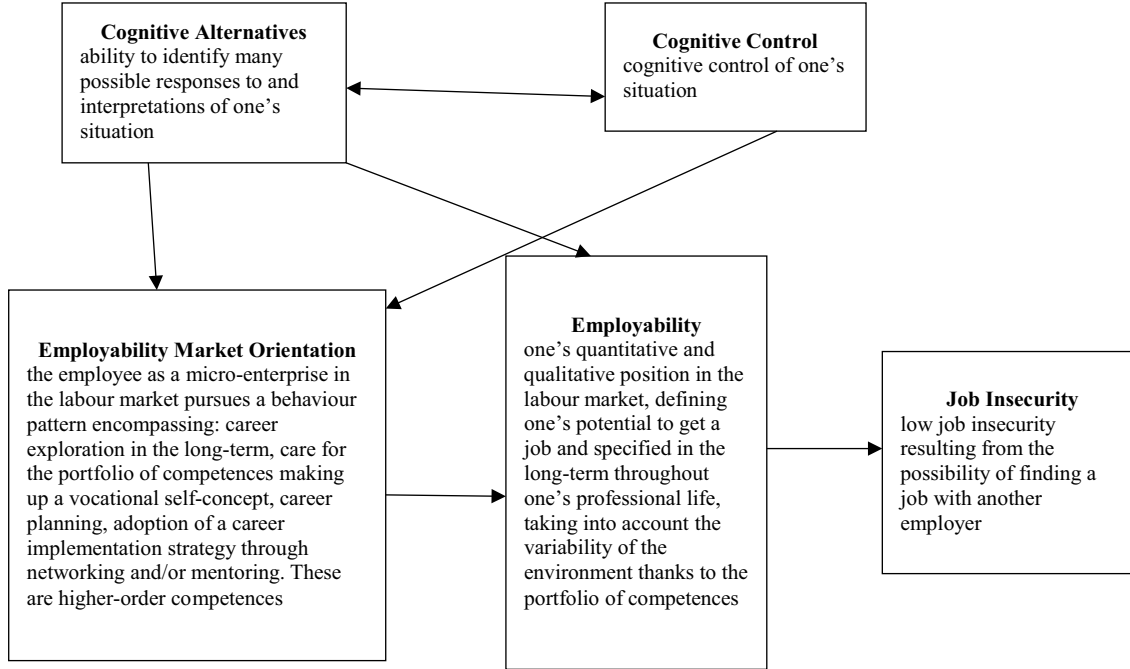


Figure 9.20 A Model of Employee Adaptation to the Changing Labour Market Based on a Transactional Psychological Contract (Compiled by the Author)

In a relational contract, employees entered the labour market after reaching a certain stage of education. They had a set of skills that, at that time, determined their ability to find a job. Of key importance were those skills that were needed to perform tasks at a given position in a certain profession. At that moment, employees essentially remained under the influence of the employer until the end of their professional activity. It was the employer who decided about their training and promotions, which was, to a large extent, determined by the age and seniority of employees.

Meanwhile, as employers cannot guarantee long-term employment, low JI ceases to be dependent on them. What becomes crucial is not the employee's ability to find a job at a particular moment but rather the employee's generalised Employability considered over time and hence variable. Employability can be developed through activities forming EMO. Thus, along with the skills directly related to the performance of job responsibilities, the so-called higher-order competences making up EMO are becoming significant. Their development is no longer associated with age and phases of professional development but with specific attributes of cognitive structures whose flexibility is determined by Cognitive Alternatives and Cognitive Control, allowing for the correct assessment of the rules applicable in the changing labour market.

To sum up, the EMO-based model of employee adaptation to the changing labour market has better fit indices than that relying on Savickas's Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS). The latter has to be rejected due to insufficient levels of these indices.

## **9.8 Profile of an employee with Employability Market Orientation**

Based on the research results, an attempt can be made to characterise a person exhibiting EMO. Employees may trigger EMO regardless of gender and age or the rules of psychological contract under which they function in relation to a particular employer.

What distinguishes them and helps them trigger this behaviour pattern is flexible cognitive structures that have specific properties described in two dimensions. The first of these is the dimension of Cognitive Alternatives whereby employees can perceive, accept and organise their actions, taking into account many scenarios of action. They adequately respond to the surrounding phenomena because they can explain events and behaviours of other people in different contexts and circumstances in a balanced manner and without going to extremes. Thereby, they interpret phenomena and formulate more balanced and adaptive thoughts. This allows them to develop more adequate behaviours when the existing circumstances change, as in the discussed case of the psychological contract shifting from relational to transactional. They generate many alternative solutions and potential actions in difficult situations, which is particularly important in the case of job loss, especially since they were not prepared for it during professional socialisation that taught them how to work for one employer throughout life. Significantly, they can identify the complexity of motives of

other people's actions rather than apply polar thinking in terms of good and bad intentions and stereotypical assessments, which could manifest themselves as a natural response to changing rules in the work environment and result in negative attitudes towards employers.

At the same time, employees do not give the employer control over the situation, as was the case under a relational psychological contract. Thanks to the second dimension, Cognitive Control, they perceive difficult situations as controllable. Thus, they become active players participating in ongoing processes. They perceive their position in a broader context and identify many connections and conditions, allowing them to generate alternative action scenarios. This offers them autonomy and ownership and permits them to accept various employment solutions.

As a result, they can break away from one employer and consider their employment situation in a wider context of the labour market, noticing many prospective employers interested in their skills. This helps them to generate numerous solutions and options for their action without sticking to one direction.

Having a sense of control and the ability to accept a wide range of options, employees understand the rules of reality as dependent upon many factors and go beyond the current workplace, perceiving themselves as subjects of the labour market and exploring their careers (CE) in terms of the needs of employers and their career goals (Career Planning). Their offer is what they can do or what they will decide to learn as part of VSCC. They do so in the long-term (FTP), adapting to the volatility and unpredictability of the professional context. They are ready for a change, depending on how employers' employment needs evolve. They build a competence portfolio. They look for feedback regarding the validity of their competence portfolio, which allows them to build an adequate offer for the employer.

They also monitor the behaviour of other employees to determine their competitive position against them. They conceive the ways of Career Strategy Implementation (CSI), for example, by caring for their image and building a network of social contacts (networking). As a result, by working for one employer, employees partly remain in the labour market, which makes them committed and loyal to their profession, yet not to the current employer. They develop a space for communication with potential employers and create conditions for maintaining this communication.

In effect, they determine their position in the labour market. The position is made up of the ability to relatively quickly find a job (employability) and the market value that their skills carry for employers (marketability) and, in comparison, with other employees.

Thus, their sense of JI becomes independent of the current employer<sup>20</sup> but related to Employability in combination with EMO. It remains under control of the employee and general labour market trends rather than the decisions of one employer. As a result, such employees are more likely to earn a higher income than people who do not exhibit EMO.

Employees work as micro-enterprises and build their relations with the employer, which ensures their subjectivity and partnership instead of a paternalistic subordination inherent in the previous relational contract.

The attitude suggested in many studies, termed professional flexibility involving the acceptance of all working conditions offered by the employer,<sup>21</sup> and is not helpful to employees since it does not reinforce their position in the labour market but solely in the relation with the current employer, which – paradoxically – is associated with greater JI. The same is true of the Boundaryless Career pattern, which – when pursued without taking into account other elements of Employability Market Orientation – does not build their employability or marketability, intensifying their anxiety about whether they will have a job.

In summary, employees achieve adaptation to the changing labour market measured by a low sense of JI through EMO, which contributes to their building of Employability. They take responsibility for professional training and are loyal to the profession they pursue.

The key psychological predisposition to achieve this state is Cognitive Alternatives and Cognitive Control, which can be developed by employees in the training process by facilitating their adaptive activity. Thereby, by managing themselves in a fashion similar to a micro-enterprise in the labour market, employees are prepared to lose their job. This situation does not disorganise them as they are “resilient to shocks,” i.e. antifragile, as N.N. Taleb (2013) would put it. This determines their adaptability to the changing labour market.

## **9.9 Discussion of results**

The starting point for the considerations in this monograph was the assumption that flexible human resource management entails changes in the nature of employer–employee relations. The research results confirm that the attributes of the relational contract are disappearing. This is evidenced by the fact that civil servants who are, by definition, employed under such a psychological contract experience greater JI than sales staff (Table 9.29). This means that they have lost the basic benefit offered to employees by the relational contract and that even in organisations like government offices, traditionally managed in accordance with the rules of a relational contract, the level of JI is high.

Employees are apparently becoming aware that there is no longer lifelong employment in reality. In addition, this is supported by the fact that it is civil servants working under a long-term contract who feel the greatest JI. The type of employment contract, therefore, does not solve employees’ problems in the changing labour market. This challenges the frequently made call for legal solutions to make employers extend employment time, which is clearly not the right direction for solving the issue of JI.

Such action is illusory, and deluded are those who do not identify the real rules of the world of work. The type of contract is of significance for employees probably only in its formal and legal aspect that determines their creditworthiness or

other organisational rights not enjoyed, for example, by temporary workers. This is not directly related to the sense of job security associated with a guarantee of employment. A long-term contract is no longer what it once was. It should be rather considered as a more or less short-term one. It does not really help employees, while increasing the risk of business activity.

A general question that was, therefore, posed concerned whether employees activate behaviours that are a response to the effects of flexible human resource management. The conducted research process makes it possible to conclude that a group of employees who exhibit adaptive behaviours has emerged.

This was identified by the extrapolation of the marketing perspective to the employee level. Employee behaviour in the changing labour market was compared to the operations of a micro-enterprise, leading to the definition of a behaviour pattern termed EMO. The results of the presented research confirm the existence of employees who activate the behaviours that make up EMO. Furthermore, it turns out that EMO functions as a comprehensive construct. Namely, many identified relationships presented, in particular, in the further part of the monograph, exist with the general result of EMO rather than in relation with individual scales. This fact thus disproves the potential objection that individuals have always had a crystallised Vocational Self-Concept, and this is nothing new. Meanwhile, the research shows that the current VSCC of the employee makes sense only in combination with other behaviours consistent with EMO, for example, with CE and FTP, because it must be continually modified in view of the demand for specific competences.

In addition, the research shows that EMO meets the adopted criteria of adaptability to the changing labour market as it supports the employee's building of Employability and reduces JI.<sup>22</sup> This clearly questions negative assessments of the effects of flexible human resource management on employees since some workers can generate adaptive behaviours.

In this context, the research has also questioned the usefulness of professional flexibility and BC mentioned in studies on the behaviour of employees in today's labour market. Traditionally understood professional flexibility is only a temporary antidote that does not solve employees' problems in the changing labour market in a lasting manner. BC can be an element of EMO-based behaviour, yet as such is also associated with JI. None of them builds employability. It is thus worth taking a closer look at these recommendations for employees. However, it should be made clear that the results obtained may be strongly conditioned by how the indicators were designed and should be verified in another research procedure.

For example, the significance of the method of designing the insecurity indicator is evident when it is taken into account that there was no correlation between the sense of JI and EMO among sales staff members, whereas it was present among civil servants.

This can be explained as follows. The JI indicator used in the presented study refers to the current employer. Since civil servants work under a relational psychological contract, they naturally expect the employer to ensure job security.

Moreover, they are accustomed to the employer managing their professional situation and are not focused on controlling it themselves.

Conversely, in the case of sales staff, their sense of job security begins to develop regardless of the current employer and is associated with their employability. This is confirmed by the fact that sales staff as a group with a lower level of JI enjoy greater Employability. Thus, it means that the current employer and relational rules do not provide job security but offer Employability in the labour market. At first, this regularity may lead to the conclusion that this is quite obvious: an employee who can be hired by another employer at any time feels less insecurity. The weight of this objection is reduced by what was mentioned earlier in sub-chapter 8.5, namely that Employability is correlated with EMO, meaning that this form of activity, not just demand from the labour market, matters for the employee's situation. Certainly, it would be advisable to verify this in a research process covering two surveyed groups with similar demands from the labour market.

The proposed and positively verified model of adaptation to the changing labour market takes into account that employability is built through EMO and the effect of lower JI. In the past, low JI involved the possibility of maintaining a job with one employer. Now it involves the possibility of finding a job elsewhere.

The difference between the current and past situation of the employee, however, lies in a few issues. The most important is that employees identify, analyse and take into account their position in the changing labour market. Under a relational contract, they did not have to do so because they were to be employed at one place throughout their lives, and their professional development was managed by the employer.

Currently, employees are somehow forced to control their employability and, most importantly, not to make it conditional solely on their education, profession or current employer. What is more, they do not do so only at a given time but are forced to control this in the long-term perspective of their professional activity.

This also holds true where employees seem to be guaranteed employment due to their specific knowledge and skills. Changeability of the environment and modern technologies are making knowledge and skills obsolete. In addition, there can be no guarantee that the employer will not change its business profile or will not go bankrupt as a result of management mistakes, thus leading to the employee losing a job. Of course, extreme cases where employees will not have to build their employability are likely to occur as well, yet they are so rare that they are irrelevant in the context of the general problem of adaptation to the changing labour market.

The unfoundedness and ineffectiveness of sticking to the old direction of reasoning from the past, relational rules of the world of work are confirmed by the results of this research. Although employability is correlated with education, this relationship disappears in the regression analysis, and EMO is of the greatest importance. Thus, the role of education decreases, which does not mean that it is irrelevant, yet it is no longer a sufficient guarantee of having a job.

However, there is also a group of employees who hold such beliefs. These are individuals who are mentally stuck in the past and think in terms of the rules of a relational psychological contract. They remain under the illusion that there still exists a world where workers can be employed in one place throughout their lives.

This may be evidenced by the fact that the level of EMO falls among people with higher education. This is especially true of the FTP scale, where the FTP level decreases with the age of civil servants. This can be treated as a ground for recognising that employees still stick to the myth of higher education, which they believe guarantees employment. The lack of correlation between the sense of JI and education in the group surveyed confirms that it is a myth. The guarantee of job security based on education was provided by organisations operating in line with a relational psychological contract, but this is a thing of the past.

Following the results obtained, it can be supposed that some employees still adopt the selling, instead of marketing, approach.<sup>23</sup> Individuals who fail to notice or correctly interpret the ongoing changes to experience great JI with all related consequences. They belong to a group that is particularly vulnerable to the negative aspects of flexible human resource management.

Therefore, it is so important that this research has identified the dependence of EMO on cognitive flexibility of the employee. That is because for this attitude to be triggered the employee has to have a psychological predisposition of Cognitive Alternatives and Cognitive Control. It means that only employees who interpret the reality correctly and are aware of the current employer-employee relations can adapt their behaviour to these relations. They find many alternative behaviours, feeling that they control the situation and thereby are able to take actions resulting from EMO.

Here, a significant responsibility of education appears. Yet, providing employees with formal knowledge and strictly professional skills is insufficient for them to find their place in and adapt to today's labour market rules. What is necessary is adequate professional socialisation and training to improve individuals' capabilities in terms of cognitive alternatives and cognitive flexibility. Then employees will be able to adapt their behaviour to the changing labour market, ensuring satisfactory effects of the training process.

This will be in line with the general criterion of employee adaptation, whereby EMO is achieved by people who act adequately to the transactional rules introduced by employers under flexible human resource management.

Both the employer and the employee again act consistently and in line with one type of psychological contract. Harmonious cooperation between the employer and the employee is thereby rebuilt, allowing for more efficient operation of organisations and the attainment of their business goals.

Finally, it should be highlighted that disregarding the need to develop EMO may also have multiple consequences for human resource management. The employee's nonadaptive attitude, understood as an unrealistic aspiration to restore traditional relations with the employee, is a problem for business and

*Table 9.29* Summary of Hypotheses and Results of Their Verification (the Survey Results)

<i>Hypothesis</i>	<i>Verification result</i>	<i>Conclusions</i>
H.1: There is a relationship between Employability Market Orientation and the transactional versus relational psychological contract	Unconfirmed	The type of psychological contract is not associated with the employee's inclination to follow Employability Market Orientation; education is significant; employees with lower education demonstrate a higher level of Employability Market Orientation
H.2a: The higher the level of Cognitive Alternatives, the stronger Employability Market Orientation	Confirmed	Employees with a high level of Cognitive Alternatives exhibit a high level of Employability Market Orientation; this relationship does not occur in the case of the Career Exploration scale
H.2b: The higher the level of Cognitive Control, the stronger Employability Market Orientation	Confirmed	Employees with a high level of Cognitive Control exhibit strong Employability Market Orientation; this relationship applies to all EMO scales
H.3: The stronger Employability Market Orientation, the lower Job Insecurity	Partly confirmed	Employees with strong Employability Market Orientation exhibit a lower level of Job Insecurity; this relationship disappears in favour of a stronger relationship between Job Insecurity and Cognitive Control
H.4: The stronger Employability Market Orientation, the higher Employability	Confirmed	Employees with strong Employability Market Orientation have high Employability
H.5a: There is a relationship between Employability Market Orientation and Professional Flexibility	Unconfirmed	Only a statistically significant positive relationship between Professional Flexibility (PF) and the Career Exploration (CE) scale has been found. People who exhibit Professional Flexibility are also more active as regards Career Exploration
H.5b: There is a relationship between Professional Flexibility and Job Insecurity	Confirmed	Employees with a high level of Professional Flexibility exhibit high Job Insecurity

*(Continued)*

Table 9.29 (Continued)

<i>Hypothesis</i>	<i>Verification result</i>	<i>Conclusions</i>
H.5c: There is a relationship between Professional Flexibility and Employability	Unconfirmed	No relationship between Professional Flexibility and Employability
H.6a: There is a relationship between Employability Market Orientation and Boundaryless Career	Confirmed	People pursuing Boundaryless Career exhibit stronger Employability Market Orientation
H.6b: There is a relationship between Boundaryless Career and Job Insecurity	Confirmed	The Boundaryless Career pattern coincides with a higher level of Job Insecurity
H.6c: There is a relationship between Boundaryless Career and Employability	Unconfirmed	No relationship between Boundaryless Career and Employability
The EMO-based path model of employee adaptation to the changing labour market has better fit indices than that using Savickas's Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS)	Confirmed	The EMO-based model of employee adaptation to the changing labour market has better fit indices than that based on Savickas's Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS); the latter must be rejected due to insufficient levels of these indices

economic development as it is a source of conflicts and misunderstandings and hinders efficient cooperation.

It is worth noting, however, that the research findings presented in this monograph suggest that the adaptive attitude expressed as EMO may also be the source of a number of problems. It certainly does affect human resource management and does pose a challenge for employers, which will be discussed in a special chapter.

### **9.10 Sources of limitations to the inference based on the presented research schema: Future research suggestions**

The research schema presented in this monograph entails certain limitations that should be borne in mind and controlled in future studies on EMO.

The research in two groups of sales staff and civil servants was motivated by the need to control the type of psychological contract, but one must be aware that this does not remain without consequences for the results obtained. Demonstrating the differences in EMO between these groups suggests that some intra-organisational conditions may be relevant to this variable. Therefore, research on the organisational determinants of EMO should be conducted,

checking, for example, whether one organisation can employ groups that exhibit EMO to various extents and what it may depend on.

In the future, it would be worth trying to identify such determinants and examine, for instance, the importance of organisational culture, incentive system, leadership style, etc. The research exploration opportunities at the organisational level seem to be considerable and important from a practical point of view.

It is also conceivable that if the studied group were more numerous and deliberately selected for other characteristics, such as the type of profession, other results could be obtained. In particular, one reservation may be that sales staff members, due to the general situation in the labour market, are highly employable as a result of the natural demand for such employees. Although subchapter 8.1.2 demonstrates that the demand for civil servants still exists, it seems that other research should compare professional groups with a similar level of demand in the labour market.

It is also worth noting that the group of civil servants has a different structure of university graduates than the group of sales staff, which might have influenced the results. It seems interesting to check the prevalence of EMO exhibited in the labour market that is how many employees in general display this attitude. This would allow the development of more universal methods of supporting employees' professional and employment activity.

The results were also probably influenced by the research method. When filling in the questionnaire, respondents referred to self-knowledge and made self-descriptions, which has its limitations in terms of the reliability of information (Wieczorkowska and Wierzbiński 2007). The impact of the need for social approval on responses cannot be ruled out. The questions concerned the area of individuals' lives, which pertains to the relation with the employer. It is likely that in public awareness, there are still beliefs that a change of employer is something negative. The building of a network of social relations, so-called networking, may also be associated with nepotism. According to J. Brzeziński (2016), the context of the cultural experience of the respondent may significantly influence the test result. Therefore, it is highly probable that respondents' answers were declarative and burdened with a stereotypical image of what professional behaviour is appropriate.

Perhaps more reliable data would have been obtained if the questionnaire had been based on the so-called behavioural indicators. Respondents would have been asked if they had undertaken specific actions and behaviours over a particular time, and their frequency would have been an indicator. The design of this type of questionnaire requires further research and specific operationalisation of variables.

Also, attention should be paid to the structure of individual indicators, especially Job Insecurity, Employability and marketability. As previously signalled, the way in which they were designed could have a significant impact on the obtained data. In the future, it is worth testing differently structured indicators taking into account, for example, the specificity of the current workplace or, on

the contrary, referring to more general feelings of the employee. It seems necessary to simultaneously control for psychological and personality variables, such as point goal-setting and interval goal-setting, anxiety level or neuroticism.

It would also be interesting to conduct more in-depth research on EMO with the use of IDI interviews and focused group interviews (FGI) with employees. It may turn out that these behaviours also encompass other aspects that the questionnaire in this form did not diagnose.

The presented research procedure only allowed for identifying a certain pattern of employees' behaviour, stating that it exists and checking its role in the context of employability in the changing labour market. Establishing this fact, however, opens up a wide field for research within organisation and management theory, in particular human resource management, since

EMO is a set of employee behaviours the employer has not faced before. It can cause increased retention and fluctuation of employees. It will also make it necessary to abandon standard solutions used so far and to develop new methods, notably methods of human resource management, communication with employees (employer branding, e.g. Baruk 2006) and the shaping of their behaviour adequately to business needs (Eltrán-Martín and Roca-Puig 2013). Thus, it is important whether and what strategies to cope with new employee behaviours are developed by companies, adjusting the manner in which the personnel function is performed in the field of recruitment, selection, evaluation, training and remuneration of employees. A question arises as to whether EMO behaviours are beneficial for companies and whether companies should strive to develop them among employees as they help achieve business goals. It would be a new task for HR departments. Finally, the analysis of EMO behaviours clearly challenges many organisational behaviours that have been applied in the theory of psychology and sociology of management and accepted as obvious assumptions.

In the context of EMO, there is a problem of loyalty, concern (Juchnowicz 2010) and organisational commitment (Bańka et al. 2002) of employees. It should be examined what form they will take among people with strong EMO within a given organisation. Can employees still be expected to display affective commitment? And what about civic behaviour and job satisfaction? New forms of these behaviours might appear. There will also be a need to develop other ways of impacting employees, including the type of motivators. Finally, it is important to analyse the potential effects EMO may bring about in the context of knowledge transfer, information management and confidentiality, innovation, development potential and aspects of the organisation's functioning such as organisational climate or culture. It is also significant how employees will cope with short-term relations and how it will affect their interpersonal bonds, recognition and identification with the goals of the organisation.

It seems that the development of EMO among employees may affect mutual relations among companies in the labour market as potential employers constantly fight for key business competences. Perhaps this will intensify competition for talents. What will also be probable is actions integrating companies that

will merge into groups and employ specific people depending on current business needs, sharing the costs of their remuneration and training.

This indicates the need for research to include a broader economic and legal context, including macroeconomic processes of the game of demand and supply in the labour market. They constitute a permanent element of EMO, where monitoring changes in the environment is an important aspect of determining one's adaptability.

Lastly, it is worth stressing the need to identify other competences of significance to the employee functioning as a micro-enterprise in the labour market, competences that go beyond those included in EMO and support employee efficiency.

## Notes

- 1 Retrieved from: <http://biznes.onet.pl/praca/zarobki/zarobki-urzednikow-rzadowych-w-2014-roku/91fdg6>
- 2 Retrieved from: <http://www.przepisy.gofin.pl/przepisy,262,69590,18,33,20141009,2,1.html>
- 3 Retrieved from: [http://wynagrodzenia.pl/payroll/artukul.php/typ.1/kategoria\\_glowna.514/wpis.3010](http://wynagrodzenia.pl/payroll/artukul.php/typ.1/kategoria_glowna.514/wpis.3010)
- 4 Retrieved from: [http://wynagrodzenia.pl/payroll/artukul.php/typ.1/kategoria\\_glowna.514/wpis.3010](http://wynagrodzenia.pl/payroll/artukul.php/typ.1/kategoria_glowna.514/wpis.3010)
- 5 Retrieved from: <http://www.pulshr.pl/rekrutacja/oto-najbardziej-poszukiwane-zawody-w-polsce-w-2015-r,25842.html>
- 6 Retrieved from: [http://www.rynekpracy.pl/artukul.php/typ.1/kategoria\\_glowna.16/wpis.729](http://www.rynekpracy.pl/artukul.php/typ.1/kategoria_glowna.16/wpis.729)
- 7 There are surely differences in the availability of these jobs depending on many conditions (e.g. region), but this applies to both groups of respondents.
- 8 The tool was used with the authors' permission.
- 9 Retrieved from [http://www.randstad.pl/media/731374/Monitor%20Rynku%20Pracy\\_18%20edycja\\_prezentacja\\_27\\_01\\_2015.pdf](http://www.randstad.pl/media/731374/Monitor%20Rynku%20Pracy_18%20edycja_prezentacja_27_01_2015.pdf)
- 10 The structure of the indicator was based on the following assumptions: "Individual questions or positions of such a specific scale are manifestations of the same latent variable, but they can occur completely independently of each other. (...) For some synthetic indicators, their elements do not have to be highly correlated with each other and, consequently, Cronbach's alpha for such a synthetic indicator can be low. Therefore, Cronbach's alpha should not – albeit it commonly is – be equated with the quality of a synthetic indicator. It is impossible to answer what Cronbach's alpha value must be because even a very high alpha guarantees neither one-dimensionality of the construct nor high accuracy. Unfortunately, when assessing the quality of synthetic indicators composed of multiple questions, we too often restrict ourselves to validating reliability, without thinking about accuracy" (Wieczorkowska-Wierzbńska et al. 2015).
- 11 For example, in the Polish context, I. Marzec and J. Strużyna (2015) define "employability" as "an individual's ability to gain and maintain a satisfactory job through the optimal use of specific competences that allow the individual to pursue career opportunities in the internal and external labour markets." However, this definition is difficult to operationalise and, therefore, other approaches were referred to in developing the indicator.
- 12 Since employability and marketability are measured jointly with one indicator, they are treated as one variable.

- 13 Mean values achieved by the persons surveyed and standard deviations for respective scales can be found in the statistical annex.
- 14 The notions “scale” and “dimension” are used as synonyms.
- 15 In the theory of management, the term “strategy” has its specific scope of meaning (Oblój 2010) that relates to organisations, not individuals. In this case, however, the original version of the name of this scale was maintained as it is widely used in foreign literature.
- 16 It should be stipulated that we are dealing with a situation where the distribution of the education variable is uniform for the entire group surveyed, but it is no longer the case in respective groups, i.e. civil servants and sales staff members. This may be relevant for the obtained results. This was limited in such a way that the regression analyses verifying the hypotheses were in all cases carried out while controlling for this variable. More information on this subject is provided in the statistical annex.
- 17 A detailed description of the procedure, statistical analyses and results are contained in the statistical annex.
- 18 It should be noted that education plays a different role in the case of sales staff than at public administration offices, where it is very often a formal requirement necessary to get a job.
- 19 In the chapter concerning the discussion of the results, this issue is raised again and a different interpretation of the results is sought in connection with the method of designing the job insecurity indicator.
- 20 Civil servants working under a long-term contract and having a low level of EMO and Cognitive Control experienced the greatest Job Insecurity probably because they were particularly attached to the current workplace.
- 21 More in subchapter 5.2.
- 22 The research reveals that people exhibiting strong Employability Market Orientation also earn higher income, which can be considered a more objective criterion than the respondents’ declarative answers given in the questionnaire.
- 23 The differences between these two approaches are explained in subchapters 8.2 and 8.3.

## References

- Bańka, A., Wołowska, A., & Bazińska, R. (2002). Polska wersja Meyera i Allen Skali przywiązania do organizacji. [Polish version of Meyer and Allen of Scale of Attachment to the Organization]. *Czasopismo Psychologiczne [The Psychological Journal]*, 8(1), 65–74.
- Baruk, A.I. (2006). *Marketing personalny jako instrument kreowania wizerunku firmy [Personal marketing as an instrument of creating the company’s image]*. Warszawa: Difin.
- Bolesta-Kukulka, K. (2003). *Sojologia ogólna. [General sociology]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Wydziału Zarządzania Uniwersytetu Warszawskiego.
- Brzeziński, J. (2016). *Metodologia badań psychologicznych. [Methodology of psychological research]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Cichomski, B., Jerzyński, T., & Zieliński, M. (2013). *Polski Generalny Sondaż Społeczny. Dokumentacja badania. Polish General Social Survey. Study documentation.* Warszawa: Instytut Studiów Społecznych im. Profesora Roberta B. Zajonca, Uniwersytet Warszawski.
- De Cuyper, N., Bernhard-Oettel, C., Berntson Hans De Witte, E., & Alarco, K.U.B. (2008). Employability and employees’ well-being: Mediation by job insecurity. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 57(3), 488–509. doi: 10.1111/j.1464-0597.2008.00332.x.Leuven,Belgium.

- De Vos, A., De Hauw, S., & Van der Heijden, B. (2011). Competency development and career success: The mediating role of employability. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 79, 438–447.
- Dennis, J.P., & Vander Wal, J.S. (2010). The cognitive flexibility inventory: Instrument development and estimates of reliability and validity. *Cognitive Therapy & Research*, 34, 241–253. doi: 10.1007/s10608-009-9276-4.
- Eby, L.T., Butts, M., & Lockwood, A. (2003). Predictors of success in the era of the boundaryless career. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24, 689–708.
- Eltrán-Martín, I., & Roca-Puig, V. (2013). Promoting employee flexibility through HR practices. *Human Resource Management*, September–October, 52(5), 645–674. doi: 10.1002/hrm.21556.
- Greenhalg, L., & Rosenblatt, Z. (2010). Evolution of research on job insecurity. *International Studies of Management & Organization*, Spring, 40(1), 6–19. doi: 10.2753/IMO0020-8825400101.
- Griffeth, R.W., Steel, R.P., Allen, D.G., & Bryan, N. (2005). The development of a multidimensional measure of job market cognitions: The employment opportunity index (EOI). *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90, 335–349.
- Hensel, P. (2012). Sektor publiczny - specyfika i metody zarządzania. [The public sector - specificity and management methods]. In B. Glinka, & M. Kostera (Eds.), *Nowe kierunki w organizacji i zarządzaniu. Organizacje, konteksty, procesy zarządzania. [New directions in organization and management. Organizations, contexts, management processes]*. Warszawa: Wolters Kluwer Polska, 171–188.
- Johnston, C.S., Broonen, J.-P., Stauffer, S.D., Hamtiaux, A., Jacques Pouyau, J., Zecca, G., Houssemand, C., & Rossier, J. (2013). Validation of an adapted French form of the Career Adapt-Abilities Scale in four francophone countries. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 83, 1–10.
- Juchnowicz, M. (2010). *Zarządzanie przez zaangażowanie. Koncepcja, kontrowersje, aplikacje. [Management by commitment. Concept, controversy, applications]*. Warszawa: PWE.
- Koen, J., Klehe, U.-Ch., Van Vianen, A.E.M., Zikic, J., & Nauta A. (2010). Job-search strategies and reemployment quality. The impact of career adaptability. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 77, 126–139.
- Marzec, I., & Strużyna, J. (2015). Słownik pojęć ZZL. [Dictionary of HRM Terms.] *Zarządzanie Zasobami Ludzkimi [Human Resources Management]*, 6(107), 7–9.
- Mauno, S., Leskinen, E., & Kinnunen, U. (2001). Multi-wave, multi-variable models of job insecurity: Applying different scales in studying the stability of job insecurity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 22, 919–937. doi: 10.1002/job.
- Nowak, S. (2011). *Metodologia badań społecznych. [Methodology of social research]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- O’Neill, P., & Sevastos, P. (2013). The development and validation of a new multidimensional Job Insecurity Measure (JIM): An inductive methodology. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 18(3), 338–349. doi: 10.1037/a0033114.
- Obłój, K. (2010). *Pasja i dyscyplina strategii. Jak z marzeń i decyzji zbudować sukces firmy? [The passion and the discipline of strategy. How to build a company’s success from dreams and decisions?]*. Warszawa: Poltext.
- Rostkowski, T. (2007). Mierniki elastyczności kapitału ludzkiego oraz elastycznego zarządzania kapitałem ludzkim. Metoda oceny. [Measures of human capital flexibility and flexible human capital management. Assessment method]. In M. Juchnowicz (Ed.), *Elastyczne zarządzanie kapitałem ludzkim w organizacji wiedzy. [Flexible human capital management in the organization of knowledge]*. Warszawa: Difin, 120–171.

- Savickas, M., & Porfeli, E. (2012). Career Adapt-Abilities Scale: Construction, reliability, and measurement equivalence across 13 countries. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 80, 661–673.
- Sijtsma, K. (2009, March). On the use, the misuse, and the very limited usefulness of Cronbach's alpha. *Psychometrika*, 74(1), 107–120. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11336-008-9101-0>.
- Stumpf, S.A., & Hartman, K. (1984). Individual exploration to commitment and withdrawal. *Academy of Management Journal*, 2, 308–329.
- Stumpf, S.A., Colarelli, S.M., & Hartman, K. (1983a). Development of the Career Exploration Survey (CES). *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 22, 191–226.
- Stumpf, S.A., Colarelli, S.M., & Hartman, K. (1983b). *PsycTESTS*. doi: 10.1037/t01483-000.
- Świątek-Barylska, I. (2013). *Lojalność pracowników współczesnych organizacji. Istota i elementy składowe. [The loyalty of employees of modern organizations. The essence and components]*. Łódź: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego.
- Taleb, N.N. (2013). *Antykruchłość. O rzeczach, którym służą wstrząsy*. Warszawa: Kurhaus.
- Tavakol, M., & Dennick, R. (2011). Making sense of Cronbach's alpha. *International Journal of Medical Education*, 2, 53–55. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5116/ijme.4dfb.8dfd>.
- Van der Heijde, C.M., & Van der Heijden, B.I.J.M. (2006). A competence-based and multidimensional operationalisation and measurement of employability. *Human Resource Management*, 45(3), 449–476.
- Wanberg, R.C., Hough, L.M., & Song, Z. (2002). Predictive validity of a multidisciplinary model of reemployment success. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 1100–1120.
- Weng, Q., & McElroy, J.C. (2010). Vocational self-concept crystallization as a mediator of the relationship between career self-management and job decision effectiveness. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 76, 234–243.
- Widerszal-Bazyl, M. (2007). Niepewność pracy jako źródło stresu. [Job insecurity as a source of stress]. *Bezpieczeństwo Pracy [Work Safety]*, 7–8. <http://archiwum.ciop.pl/25607> (accessed: 14.02.2016).
- Wieczorkowska, G., & Wierzbiński, J. (2007). *Statystyka. Analiza badań społecznych. [Statistics. The social research analysis]* Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe Scholar.
- Wieczorkowska-Wierzbińska, G., Wierzbiński, J., & Król, G. (2015). Metody ilościowe. [Quantitative methods]. In M. Kostera (Ed.), *Metody badawcze w zarządzaniu humanistycznym. [Research methods in humanistic management]*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Akademickie Sedno, 176–177.

# 10 Managing employees with Employability Market Orientation

## A challenge for human resource management

### 10.1 What starts with laughter...?

The theoretical inference and the findings of empirical research confirm that employees commenced to exhibit behaviours that are a response to flexible management introduced in companies. Owing to the rules of the transactional psychological contract, it has become a common practice for employees to engage in the activity resulting in the necessity to develop employability and marketability. This gives rise to an unprecedented scale of behaviours arising from Employability Market Orientation that employers have never faced. If they have, they occurred mainly among representatives of liberal professions. It is therefore worth taking a look at what this situation may mean for the way people are managed. It should be pointed out that the considerations that follow are hypothetical predictions of the direction of changes and potential problems. They should be thoroughly studied as reliable and systematised scientific data on this subject are currently scarce. Wherever there are such data, their scope is definitely not exhaustive. Besides, many consequences are unpredictable because they can affect mutual interaction of various phenomena, not a simple deterministic dependence.

By all means, unquestionable is the fact that the rules of employability and the resulting employee behaviours, which make up Employability Market Orientation, do occur and give rise to new problems and dilemmas for managers. Denying their existence in the current conditions of strong competition and globalisation can be an important factor hampering the development and chances of market survival of an organisation. The approach to these rules and the level of their acceptance, followed by the introduction of adequate solutions, can determine the efficiency of cooperation and human resource management. First and foremost, the introduction of adequate solutions will help generate an added value for the company, ensuing from human capital, at a level that gives the company a competitive advantage.

Clear signals, confirming the significance of these issues, can be found in the Deloitte report (2016). A survey conducted on a group of 7000 respondents in more than 130 countries shows that a change of a psychological contract between the employee and the employer from relational to transactional is one of four major phenomena that need to be taken into account and necessitate

modifications in human resource management. Over 71% of HR managers and directors surveyed assessed it as important and very important. They point to the resulting necessity to make changes in human resource management in virtually all areas.

This problem has its consequences for the structure of human capital and the ways of managing it so as to achieve business goals. In consequence, this is reflected in the manner of implementing the personnel function at all three – political, strategic and operational – levels.

## **10.2 Loss of the exclusivity privilege**

The starting point for making the following inference is the situation that has emerged and in which employers have found themselves as a result of the formation of a transactional contract and employee behaviours stemming from Employability Market Orientation. One of the challenges that managers are about to face will be to come to terms with the fact that employees are no longer professionally active solely within the confines of their employing organisation. At the same time, they are actors-players in the labour market and remain in a constant relation with other potential employers, which ensues from the activity within the dimensions of Career Exploration (CE) and Career Strategy Implementation (CSI). The situation is different than in a relational contract, where employees were in a way “owned” by the organisation, which could exercise control over them in many ways. Employers were in a position of strength, and employees had limited room for manoeuvre because they were more or less fated to have one workplace throughout their life. “Being let go from the company” entailed difficulties for the employee in finding re-employment and, what is more, was negatively assessed by society. The situation, therefore, meant that the employer was privileged, which determined the applied methods and instruments of human resource management. Currently, when employees can take advantage of many employment options and ensure that such options are available, employers forfeit the advantage of being able to threaten to break the employment contract. Companies must therefore find themselves in a new reality and develop new management methods. They face problems that have not occurred on such a scale to date. For example, they are forced to compete with other employers for employees, which is particularly evident in the so-called war for talent (Pawłowska 2013). This requires activity adapted to the employee treated as a micro-enterprise offering services in the labour market. Companies are losing their privileged position as employers, which strongly supports the development of the employee market as well as the visible generational differences among employees (so-called millennials).

In day-to-day human resource management, it is necessary to accept the fact that employees strive to constantly improve their employability in the course of their work, which means that they are all the time preparing for work for another employer. Hence, a paradox arises that the current employer acts as though for the benefit of a future one. This is a contradiction in itself that is hard to accept for many companies and human resource managers.

### **10.3 Employability: ignore or accept...**

In her studies, Y. Baruch (2006) assumed that HR managers are the organisational entities responsible for creating a psychological contract. They are tasked with the introduction, implementation and promotion of the idea of employability among employees. That is why, in her studies, Y. Baruch focused on this group to check companies' attitude towards the rules of employability. She sought answers to the questions: how organisations perceive the idea of employability; whether they try to adapt it or reject it; and if so, for what reasons; whether they believe in this idea and are able to accept it. The results show that the managers surveyed know the concept of psychological contract, but employability is something completely new to them. As a management concept, the rules of employability arouse respect, and managers treat them with detachment. The results show that at the strategic, business policy and practical levels, this approach is considered difficult to implement.

However, the question arises whether it is realistic and legitimate from the business point of view to disregard these rules in the personnel sphere if there is significant evidence, including the evidence presented in this study, testifying to their existence. The identified employee behaviours stemming from Employability Market Orientation take place regardless of employers' attitude towards these rules. This is one of those areas that remain beyond the supervision and control capabilities of the company. This area falls within the realm of the employee and employee behaviours in response to the changing labour market. The employer must reckon with employee behaviours that follow Employability Market Orientation and the fact that employees build their job security based on employability. Employers have little influence on this situation. They will have to take into consideration that employee reactions will differ from the ones they have become accustomed to. Employers will experience the effects of this situation to a greater or lesser extent. The only issue to be determined is what attitude towards this new reality employers will adopt.

### **10.4 Rules of employability in the personnel policy**

One of the basic issues for companies to resolve is their attitude towards the rules of employability. This ensues from the human resource management policy, i.e. the rules and principles of "managing" human resources, adopted and implemented by the company (Bolesta-Kukułka 1995).

Companies that seek to build their competitiveness based on their human capital must answer the question of what psychological contract with employees is optimal for them in accordance with the criterion of efficiency of economic activity. The point of reference is the possibility for the company to pursue its business goals. This implies the necessity to decide what will be exchanged with employees, what the employer commits to and what the employer offers. When the Employability Market Orientation attitude is being formed, it is indispensable to decide on the extent to which the rules of employability, such as for

example a certain temporality of cooperation and providing the employee with opportunities to develop competences, will be taken into account.

Companies can adopt three main approaches to this situation: strategic acceptance, strategic rejection and ongoing response to emerging problems. The last approach consists of random steering of relations with employees without controlling the effects. The choice of the other two approaches is determined by the specifics of the company's operations and the extent to which human capital is important for achieving business objectives. The selection of the approach depends on which model is optimal from the point of view of operation in the market. It seems that in the case of companies offering services based on modern technologies, strategic rejection of the rules of employability seems very risky and unfavourable because it can cause harmful fluctuation of hard-to-acquire employees with rare skills. Adopting a personnel policy focused on the acceptance of the rules of employability brings about certain consequences for every aspect of the personnel system at the strategic and operational levels. This calls for taking regulatory (management) action with regard to the personnel function, aimed at adapting this function to the rules of employability (Lichtarski 2000). For example, P.R. Sparrow (1996) clearly proves, based on research findings, that changes in the psychological contract in the banking sector require a modification of the role of the personnel function.

The data contained in the aforementioned Deloitte report (2016) show that, in the respondents' opinion, almost everything that has been done so far within the framework of human resource management – from recruitment to management, through performance, to the remuneration system – should be redesigned. This goes far beyond the introduction of minor operational modifications. The scope of these changes depends on the flexibility of the entire process of implementing the personnel function within the meaning of P.M. Wright and S.A. Snell's model described in sub-chapter 2.2. It is about the ability of individual subsystems, such as recruitment and selection, remuneration, evaluation and training, to change by modifying the procedures and methods used and adapting and implementing them.

### **10.5 The business basket of competences of an organisation and temporality of the relation with the employee**

From the point of view of company interests, the basic problem is to have employees with competences that allow them to pursue business goals on an ongoing basis. As discussed in the initial part of the monograph, these goals change over time. That is why flexible human resource management has been introduced to adapt to them, which is manifested, among other things, by the continuous process of personnel cuts and employment. It is advantageous for the company because it controls the time and number of employees with whom it starts and ends cooperation. Owing to the presence of employees with Employability Market Orientation, numerous phenomena begin to take place beyond the control of the employer. Employees who independently control their employment situation can decide to leave for another employer at any

time. They are no longer obligated to feel the traditionally perceived loyalty specific to a relational contract. The company must therefore determine what level of spontaneous job leavers (employee fluctuation) it is able to tolerate from an economic and business point of view. Under a transactional contract, this situation is much more unpredictable.

That is why it is crucial for the HR department to perform the role of a strategic and business partner, which results from the philosophy of human capital. To this end, the HR department's task is to build a business portfolio of competences of organisation employees and to trigger such employee behaviours that will result in a satisfying offer for the customer and competitive advantage. This boosts the chance of the company's survival in the market. To achieve this goal, the rules of employability need to be taken into account, and adapting to these rules is part of the organisation's business orientation. Therefore, the task of the HR department is to reduce the risk of a competence deficit due to the employees' Employability Market Orientation. Proper communication with employees in the internal and external labour markets is necessary.

## **10.6 Creating employer image: employer branding**

A natural consequence ensuing from the incessant activity of employees, consisting of career exploration and the application of various career strategy implementation methods, is the need to create an employer image (Employer Branding) so that the employer can effectively communicate with potential job candidates on an ongoing basis. It is essential to use arguments related to the rules of employability. In doing so, the employer provides a comprehensive offer contained in the structure of a psychological contract selected by the organisation to shape relations with employees.

Information on the existing possibilities should be included in the communication regarding employer image and disseminated to potential candidates via appropriate channels (Pahor and Franca 2012; Starineca 2015). At the same time, it must be competitive and unique compared to the offers of other employers. Therefore, the labour market is becoming an area of the company's marketing activity related to the personnel system.

It is particularly critical to control the communication channels used by talented people and people with competences of key significance for the enterprise to communicate with the professional environment, for example social media, professional associations, networking meetings and conferences.

It is worth noting that the created image of individual employers forms a component of the employee's competence portfolio. That is why employer branding can be a significant intangible incentive within the company's incentive system, which can allow the employer to reduce the costs of financial remuneration. Employees will compensate for lower income by investing in experience gained from working for a valued employer, which strengthens their employability and marketability.

Interviews with employees leaving the company, the so-called exit interviews recommended in the related literature, serve the purpose of monitoring whether

the organisation's offer addressed to employees is appropriately customised to efficiently negotiate with job candidates. The moment of parting ways with employees fulfils other functions than before. The way both sides part ways should ensure that at least two objectives are met: securing a positive image of the employer among potential employees and maintaining relations with the employee so as to enable future cooperation. This process is supported by monitoring a given employee's competence offer against others and adapting selection methods and the incentive system to this offer.

This generally involves controlling the level of personnel's employability as it can determine their inclination to change their employer, and thus the stability of the organisation's functioning in the market.

It should not be forgotten that this situation also affects mutual relations between employers in the labour market. This is a clear area of competitiveness. It creates new opportunities to acquire key competences and enables cooperation among employers, who can develop a platform for exchanging information and perhaps for "renting" employees while sharing the costs of their remuneration.

### **10.7 Investing in an employee for the current, but ... also a future, employer**

Behaviours in the context of Employability Market Orientation result in employees perceiving their relations with the employer within a shorter time frame (Future Time Perspective) and striving not only to obtain income but also to develop competences (Vocational Self-Concept Crystallisation and Career Planning) that strengthen their employability. Hence, enterprises face a special dilemma related to investments in employee training. By enhancing the skills of their employees, they risk that the main beneficiary will be another employer. Organisations must properly balance their decisions in this regard, finding an optimal solution between risk and profit. Certain solutions can be provided securing their interests for in formal and legal contracts with employees.

Organisations will be able to attract and retain some candidates, focusing in the training process on both the competences organisations need and those that will enhance employees' employability and marketability. In particular, Future Time Perspective of employees should encourage companies to show opportunities for collaboration in terms of employees' plans, professional goals and career. This implies a modification of the remuneration system: a system that factors in the rules of employability and gives up, for example, the seniority bonus aimed at ensuring long-term attachment of employees.

Advisable is also clear and performance-related criteria for awarding bonuses as a variable component of remuneration, showing employees how their efficiency changes over a given period. This is particularly significant in the employee appraisal system, which is becoming increasingly important for the employee from this point of view. The selection of appraisal criteria should not be based solely on those aspects that are important for the interests of the company. It is advisable that they show the development of employees in terms of

their competences. Providing extensive problem-solving – instead of tell-and-listen – feedback (Sidor-Rządkowska 2015) with an emphasis on individual development is of particular informational and motivational significance.<sup>1</sup> Employees are thus supported in the area of Career Planning and Vocational Self-Concept Crystallisation.

It can also be treated as a component of employees' appraisal in terms of their loyalty to the profession, which will be the basis for issuing recommendations for the next employer.

Due to the human capital possessed by the enterprise, it will be useful to design and introduce to human resource management the measures of employability and marketability of employees along with their inclination to change the employer. These are the issues that should be considered in developing employment plans.

In order to ensure the external alignment of the personnel function<sup>2</sup> (Lundy and Cowling 2000), other strategic and operational actions, taking into account employee behaviours and resulting from the rules of employability, will be necessary at the level of the entire personnel system. They should be adjusted to employee type based on the typology of Ch. Handy, i.e. core, contract and peripheral employees.

## **10.8 A new culture of management...?**

In the context of employability, the HR department, as a strategic and business partner, is tasked with monitoring the situation in the labour market, access to the necessary competences and guaranteeing stability of the organisation's portfolio of skills necessary to achieve business objectives. However, in addition to controlling the competence supply and demand stream as part of the implementation of the personnel function, there arises a problem of developing the rules and principles of management, including creating an organisational culture that is adequate to the rules of employability. This involves, for instance, proper shaping of relations between core and peripheral employees hired for a short term, avoiding actions discriminating against individual groups and providing opportunities for efficient cooperation. The management of job insecurity experienced by employees, which will probably become crucial for the image of the organisation, may be a permanent component of the efficient functioning of the organisation. It will also be a component shaping internal organisational relations between employees and the management staff.

In particular, exhibiting Employability Market Orientation by employees will necessitate the adjustment of the leadership style. This means that the competences of an employee/micro-enterprise can be efficiently used in cooperation understood as a mutual exchange of benefits rather than an effect of issued instructions and hierarchy typical of a relational psychological contract. This is manifested by the disappearance of middle management in modern organisational structures and the growing importance of teamwork and the project work system (Bartkowiak 1997).

It is essential to create leadership based on partner relations, where it is natural for both parties to be equal and negotiate the terms of a contract to perform specific tasks. The significance of this phenomenon can be seen in the results of the Deloitte report (2016). It has also been confirmed in the research conducted by the Team of the International Management Center at the University of Warsaw in cooperation with the consulting firm PWC, the Polish Human Resource Management Association and PKN Orlen SA. In in-depth interviews, HR directors emphasised clearly that in the face of a difficult business environment and the declining general economy, the need for true, enterprising leaders is greater than in the times when it sufficed to manage a company growing along with the market. Therefore, respondents believe that it is leadership development programmes that nowadays represent the most important human resource management initiative determining the chances of dynamic development of companies.<sup>3</sup>

It will not be easy to shape adequate organisational attachment and develop employee loyalty, ensuring a satisfactory level of organisational commitment. It might be advisable to consider whether teaching own employees about Employability Market Orientation and the rules of employability, as practised in Scandinavian countries, is in the interest of the organisation (Bańka 2006).

In conclusion, the considerations presented above are only a selection from a wide range of possible scenarios. There is no doubt, however, that numerous phenomena are emerging in the area of human resource management. The presented suppositions require verification, but there is no doubt that many of the previously adopted assumptions, principles and rules have become obsolete. Their continued application and *a priori* treatment as effective poses a great risk, all the greater that it regards specific personnel risk.

## Notes

- 1 The related forms of employee appraisal, the so-called constant feedback, emerge.
- 2 External alignment – consistency of personnel function actions with the company's overall strategy.
- 3 This topic is discussed in more detail in the paper by A. Pawłowska and M. Zdziarski (2015).

## References

- Bańka, A. (2006). Kapitał kariery – uwarunkowania, rozwój i adaptacja do zmian organizacyjnych oraz strukturalnych rynku pracy. [Career capital – conditions, development and adaptation to organizational and structural changes in the labor market]. In Z. Ratajczak, A. Bańka, & E. Turska (Eds.), *Współczesna psychologia pracy i organizacji. [Contemporary psychology of work and organization]*. Katowice: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego, 59–117.
- Bartkowiak, G. (1997). *Psychologia zarządzania. [Psychology of management]*. Poznań: Akademia Ekonomiczna.

- Baruch, Y. (2006). Career development in organizations and beyond: Balancing traditional and contemporary viewpoints. *Human Resource Management Review*, 16, 125–138.
- Bolesta-Kukulka, K. (1995). *Polityka personalna w strategii rozwoju firmy. [Personnel policy in the company's development strategy]*. Warszawa: Międzynarodowa Szkoła Menedżerów.
- Deloitte. (2016, April). *The new organization: Different by design*. (Global Human Capital Trends 2016). [https://www2.deloitte.com/content/dam/Deloitte/na/Documents/human-capital/BCTWF-2016/na\\_HC\\_Trends\\_2016\\_presentation\\_BCTWF\\_Launch.pdf](https://www2.deloitte.com/content/dam/Deloitte/na/Documents/human-capital/BCTWF-2016/na_HC_Trends_2016_presentation_BCTWF_Launch.pdf) (accessed: 15.05.2016).
- Lichtarski, J. (2000). Funkcja personalna a zarządzanie personelem. [Personal function and personnel management]. In T. Listwan (Ed.), *Zarządzanie kadrami – perspektywy badawcze i praktyka. [Human resources management – research perspectives and practice]*. Wrocław: Akademia Ekonomiczna, 237–243.
- Lundy, O., & Cowling, A. (2000). *Strategiczne zarządzanie zasobami ludzkimi. [Strategic human resource management]*. Kraków: Oficyna Ekonomiczna, Dom Wydawniczy ABC.
- Pahor, M., & Franca, V. (2012). The strength of the employer brand: Influences and implications for recruiting. *Journal of Marketing and Management*, 3(1), 78–122.
- Pawłowska, A. (2013). Potencjał społeczny organizacji i strategia personalna. [Social potential of the organization and personnel strategy]. In J. Bogdanienko, & W. Piotrowski (Eds.), *Zarządzanie. Tradycja i nowoczesność. [Management. Tradition and modernity]*. Warszawa: PWE, 329–347.
- Pawłowska, A., & Zdziarski, M. (2015). Dimensionality of leadership in the perceptions of senior human resource executives in Poland. *Management and Business Administration. Central Europe*, 23(1), 49–69.
- Sidor-Rządkowska, M. (2015). *Kompetencyjne systemy oceny pracowników. Przygotowanie, wdrażanie i integrowanie z innymi systemami ZZL. [Competency systems of employee evaluation. Preparation, implementation and integration with other HRM systems]*. Kraków: Wolters Kluwer Polska.
- Sparrow, P.R. (1996). Transitions in the psychological contract: Some evidence from the banking sector. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 6(4), 75–92.
- Starineca, O. (2015). Employer brand role in HR recruitment and selection. *Economics & Business*, 27, 58–63. doi: 10.1515/eb-2015-0009.

# 11 What about the employee?

## A slightly subjective conclusion

As mentioned in the Introduction, the issues described in this monograph arouse many emotions and automatically trigger the need to value them. I have the impression that, contrary to previous declarations, the analysis of these issues with a focus on safeguarding scientific objectivity has not reduced the need to take a stance on this topic. The identification of Employability Market Orientation has had the opposite effect, opening up new areas of doubt and dilemmas. True, it no longer places the employee in the role of a victim of a profit-oriented employer, but the threat may come from a different side with a less physically specific and more psychologically painful face. It spontaneously brings to mind the observation made years ago by E. Fromm (1999) that:

The average person today is terribly alone and feels alone. He feels himself to be a commodity, by which I mean he feels that his value depends on his success, depends on his saleability, depends on approval by others. He feels that it does not depend on the intrinsic ... value of his personality, not on his powers, his capacity to love, not on his human qualities—except if he can sell them, except if he can be successful. This is what I mean by the “marketing orientation”. Due to marketing orientation, in the case of majority of people, respect for themselves is an extremely unstable feeling. They feel valuable not because they are convinced about it (...), but because they are accepted by others, because they can sell themselves, because others say: “He’s a great man” or “She’s a great woman.”

I am convinced that the presented concept of Employability Market Orientation has the potential to, despite appearances, produce a completely different effect for the professional life and subjectivity of the individual. This follows from the findings of the previously mentioned studies by N. De Cuyper et al. (2008).

Employees as micro-enterprises can intentionally control their position in the labour market and do not depend on one, not always comfortable, workplace. Persons who have access to numerous employment opportunities can control their attachment to the employer. Previously, under a relational contract, they were dependent and, at the same time, more or less emotionally bound on para-communal terms. Their fear of losing their job was deep because they perceived

themselves in the organisation as members of a larger community with stronger interpersonal ties. Their loss was identified with rejection by a group of close friends or loved ones. There were no alternative solutions, and the individual was in some way doomed to remain placed in the employment situation throughout their life. New realities of the labour market potentially give more independence, freedom and partnership, to man though some people would probably want to escape from this freedom<sup>1</sup> into a safe, paternalistic relation with the employer. To derive psychological benefits from a transactional psychological contract with the employer, this relation must be built on emotional maturity and a lasting, stable employee value system. Negative effects of market orientation can be avoided if employees have well-established self-assessment and self-esteem independent of external factors.

It is worth believing that the natural human instinct will make human beings find a solution to this situation and develop psychological defence mechanisms and behaviour patterns that will serve to achieve a balance between the requirements of the professional environment and the needs of the individual. It will be interesting to observe the directions of future development of the described phenomena.

★ ★ ★

Finally, a small request. If, after reading the text, you get the impression that all this is obvious, please ask yourself and your friends whether they are prepared for a job loss ..., whether they have competences that other employers need ..., whether they know how to reach them and what professional image to demonstrate? Are they a subject or a victim of changes ...?

## Note

- 1 It is a paraphrased title of another work by E. Fromm (2008), *Ucieczka od wolności [Escape from freedom]*. Warszawa: Czytelnik.

## References

- De Cuyper, N., Bernhard-Oettel, C., Berntson Hans De Witte, E., & Alarco, K.U.B. (2008). Employability and employees' well-being: Mediation by job insecurity. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 57(3), 488–509. doi: 10.1111/j.1464-0597.2008.00332.x. Leuven, Belgium.
- Fromm, E. (1999). *Miłość, płęć i matriarchat. [Love, gender and matriarchy]*. Poznań: Dom Wydawniczy Rebis.

## 12 Glossary of diagnosed variables

**Cognitive Alternatives (CFI A)** – a dimension of cognitive flexibility in accordance with the approach of J.P. Dennis and J.S. Vander Wal. It refers to an individual's ability to find multiple alternative explanations for human behaviours and causes of life events and the ability to generate many alternative solutions and potential actions in difficult situations.

- Diagnostic tool – Alternatives Scale, Cognitive Flexibility Inventory (CFI) according to J.P. Dennis and J.S. Vander Wal. Adaptation to Polish conditions: *Alternatives Scale in the Cognitive Flexibility Test* developed by A. Pawłowska.

**Cognitive Flexibility** – a property of cognitive structures of an individual. This study applied in line with the understanding of J.P. Dennis and J.S. Vander Wal. It determines the ability of an individual to “switch” the possessed cognitive set so as to adapt to changing environmental stimuli. Thereby, the individual can replace inadequate and maladaptive thoughts with more balanced, more poised and more adaptive ones, which in turn helps the individual formulate the right strategy for action.

An individual with less flexible (rigid) cognitive structures explains events in stereotypical, more or less extremely negative, categories without the possibility of introducing changes to which the current situation may incline.

In contrast, persons endowed with cognitive flexibility can find other, alternative explanations for events. Such persons use cognitive resources to search for solutions that are best for them at a given moment. They are able to generate numerous alternatives and test their usefulness when unexpected, stressful situations arise. The general cognitive flexibility of an individual comprises two distinguished dimensions: Cognitive Alternatives and Cognitive Control.

- Diagnostic tool – Cognitive Flexibility Inventory (CFI) according to J.P. Dennis and J.S. Vander Wal. Adaptation to Polish conditions: *Cognitive Flexibility Test* developed by A. Pawłowska.

**Professional Flexibility (PF)** – used in the monograph in accordance with traditional understanding, meaning readiness of an individual to generate adequate behaviours in response to emerging expectations of the employer related to possessed skills, number and type of tasks, level of remuneration, time and place of work and other aspects linked to the functioning in the relation with the given employer.

- Diagnostic tool – Professional Flexibility (PF) indicator developed by A. Pawłowska.

**Boundaryless Career (BC)** – career building based on frequent changes of employer by way of cyclical termination and execution of contracts. It is connected with employees' loyalty to their own plans, occupation and profession in lieu of loyalty to the organisation.

- Diagnostic tool – Boundaryless Career (BC) indicator developed by A. Pawłowska.

**Cognitive Control (CFI C)** – a dimension of Cognitive Flexibility in accordance with the approach of J.P. Dennis and J.S. Vander Wal. It determines the degree of an individual's perception of difficult situations as controllable.

- Diagnostic tool – Control Scale, Cognitive Flexibility Inventory (CFI) according to J.P. Dennis and J.S. Vander Wal. Adaptation to Polish conditions: *Control Scale in the Cognitive Flexibility Test* developed by A. Pawłowska.

**Job Insecurity (JI)** – a two-dimensional construct that includes: a cognitive element (perceived probability of a job loss) and an emotional element (fear of a potential job loss).

- Diagnostic tool – Job Insecurity (JI) indicator developed by A. Pawłowska based on Randstad indicator (analysed in terms of difficulty in finding a job) and modified versions of questions used by the Polish General Social Survey (PGSS) carried out by the Institute for Social Studies in the research project International Social Survey Programme 1997: "Work Orientations II."

**Career Adapt-Abilities Scale** – a diagnostic tool constructed by Savickas and his team on the basis of the Career Construction Theory (CCT). It focuses on how individuals use their psychological potential to achieve professional goals. It diagnoses a set of specific attitudes, beliefs and competences (ABCs), which are grouped into four dimensions of adaptability:

- concern – concern for one's professional future;
- control – control of one's own professional future;
- curiosity – interest in discovering possible future scenarios of professional development;
- confidence – trust in oneself in pursuit of one's own aspirations.

These dimensions are treated as an individual's adaptation potential – a type of base that allows the individual to build current strategies for solving problems and behaviours related to shaping the vocational self-concept.

- Diagnostic tool – Savickas's Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS). Adaptation to Polish conditions: *Career Adapt-Abilities Scale* developed by A. Pawłowska.

**Employability (MAE)** – the ability of an individual to cope with changes and transitions in the labour market related to a loss of employment. Used in the monograph as a construct made up of two components: employability and marketability determined in a long-term horizon throughout the working life of an individual.

- **Employability** – is determined by an individual's subjective perception and assessment of the ability to gain employment in quantitative terms (number of available jobs);
- **Marketability** – the qualitative position of an individual in the labour market in the individual's subjective assessment. It specifies how much individuals are convinced that their competences are appreciated in both internal (within the company) and external labour markets by current and/or potential employers. It determines an individual's position in relation to other employees-competitors, determining to what extent the individual's competences are rare and sought after. It is connected with the perception of added value that an individual contributes to the labour market, resulting from the positive and unique outputs of that individual's work;
- Diagnostic tool – overall Employability (MAE) indicator developed by A. Pawłowska.

**Employability Market Orientation (EMO)** – a perspective adopted by employees who treat themselves as micro-enterprises offering services exchanged in the labour market.

It is a behaviour pattern ensuing from higher order employability competences that go beyond those necessary to perform job responsibilities. It serves to build employability and marketability of the employee, ultimately leading to the reduction of job insecurity. It supports an individual's adaptation to the changing labour market.

It comprises the following five types of behaviours, identified by extrapolation of the marketing approach to the level of an individual: Career Exploration (CE), Future Time Perspective (FTP), Vocational Self-Concept Crystallisation (VSCC), Career Planning (CP) and Career Strategy Implementation (CSI).

From the perspective of the organisation, it is a pattern of employee behaviours in response to flexible human resource management resulting in a change of the psychological contract from relational to transactional.

- Diagnostic tool – EMO Questionnaire developed by A. Pawłowska.

## 13 Statistical annex

### 13.1 Descriptive statistics of the diagnosed variables

*Table 13.1* Frequency Distribution and Percentage Share of Men and Women in the Total Group Surveyed as well as among Sales Staff and Civil Servants (the Survey Results)

<i>Gender</i>	<i>Groups surveyed</i>				<i>Total</i>	
	<i>Sales staff</i>		<i>Civil servants</i>			
	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Woman	76	50.7	89	59.3	165	55.0
Man	74	49.3	61	40.7	135	45.0
Total	150	100.0	150	100.0	300	100.0

*Table 13.2* Frequency Distribution and Percentage Share of People with Bachelor's Degree or Lower Level of Education and Master's Degree or Higher Level of Education in the Total Group Surveyed as well as Among Sales Staff and Civil Servants (the Survey Results)

<i>Education</i>	<i>Groups surveyed</i>				<i>Total</i>	
	<i>Sales staff</i>		<i>Civil servants</i>			
	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Bachelor's degree – lower	119	79.3	33	22.0	152	50.7
Master's degree – higher	31	20.7	117	78.0	148	49.3
Total	150	100.0	150	100.0	300	100.0

*Table 13.3* Frequency Distribution and Percentage Share of People at a Given Age in the Total Group Surveyed (the Survey Results)

		<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Cumulative percentage</i>
<b>Important</b>	20	1	0.3	0.3
	21	3	1.0	1.3
	22	8	2.7	4.0
	23	4	1.3	5.3
	24	7	2.3	7.7
	25	49	16.3	24.0
	26	29	9.7	33.7
	27	24	8.0	41.7
	28	18	6.0	47.7
	29	23	7.7	55.3
	30	21	7.0	62.3
	31	10	3.3	65.7
	32	9	3.0	68.7
	33	7	2.3	71.0
	34	9	3.0	74.0
	35	8	2.7	76.7
	36	11	3.7	80.3
	37	12	4.0	84.3
	38	6	2.0	86.3
	39	6	2.0	88.3
40	5	1.7	90.0	
41	6	2.0	92.0	
42	3	1.0	93.0	
43	8	2.7	95.7	
44	6	2.0	97.7	
47	2	0.7	98.3	
48	3	1.0	99.3	
49	2	0.7	100.0	
	Total	300	100.0	

*Table 13.4* Descriptive Statistics of the Diagnosed Variables in the Total Group Surveyed (the Survey Results)

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Standard deviation</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>
Employability Market Orientation (EMO)	0.0 <sup>1</sup>	0.69	-2.29	2.11
Cognitive Alternatives (CFI A)	5.21	0.85	1.00	7.00
Cognitive Control (CFI C)	5.02	1.01	1.86	7.00
Job Insecurity (JI) indicator	1.30	0.95	0.00	3.00
Employability (MAE) indicator	3.42	0.51	1.71	5.00
Boundaryless Career (BC) indicator	1.87	1.12	0.00	4.00
Professional Flexibility (PF)	2.82	0.53	1.00	4.00

(Continued)

Table 13.4 (Continued)

Variable	Mean	Standard deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS)				
Dimension of concern	3.87	0.78	1.00	5.00
Dimension of control	4.05	0.59	1.00	5.00
Dimension of curiosity	3.99	0.60	1.00	5.00
Dimension of confidence	4.13	0.58	1.17	5.00

1 The mean value equal to zero results from the use of standardised results scored by the persons surveyed in the Employability Market Orientation Questionnaire. More information on this subject is provided in sub-chapter 9.3.

Table 13.5 Descriptive Statistics of the Respective EMO Scales in the Total Group Surveyed (the Survey Results)

EMO scale	Mean	Standard deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Career Exploration (CE)	2.37	0.60	1.00	4.00
Future Time Perspective (FTP)	2.91	0.58	1.00	4.00
Career Planning (CP)	3.58	0.63	1.57	5.00
Career Strategy Implementation (CSI)	3.04	0.81	1.00	5.00
Vocational Self-Concept Crystallisation (VSCC)	3.81	0.54	1.80	5.00

### 13.2 Significance of differences between mean values of the diagnosed variables

Table 13.6 Significance of Differences Between Mean Values of the Diagnosed Variables in the Surveyed Groups of Sales Staff and Civil Servants (the Survey Results)

Variable	M	Sd	Significance of differences between mean values for sales staff and civil servants F test of one-variable ANOVA analysis of variance
Total EMO	3.14	0.43	F (1.298) = 7.43; $p < .007$
Sales staff	3.21	0.41	
Civil servants	3.08	0.45	
Cognitive Flexibility (CFI Alternatives)	5.21	0.85	Insignificant
Sales staff	5.215	0.87	
Civil servants	5.2	0.84	
Cognitive Flexibility (CFI Control)	5.02	1.01	Insignificant
Sales staff	5.03	1.03	
Civil servants	5.02	0.99	
Job Insecurity (JI) indicator	1.3	0.95	F (1.298) = 9.08; $p < 0.003$

(Continued)

Table 13.6 (Continued)

<i>Variable</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>Sd</i>	<i>Significance of differences between mean values for sales staff and civil servants</i> <i>F test of one-variable ANOVA analysis of variance</i>
Sales staff	1.13	0.92	
Civil servants	1.5	0.95	
MAE	3.42	0.51	F (1.298) = 7.43; $p < .007$
Sales staff	3.54	0.49	
Civil servants	3.30	0.51	
BC	1.87	1.12	F (1.296) = 12.45; $p < .001$
Sales staff	2.1	1.14	
Civil servants	1.64	1.05	
Professional Flexibility	2.82	0.53	Insignificant
Sales staff	2.84	0.55	
Civil servants	2.8	0.5	

### 13.3 Correlations among the studied variables

Table 13.7 Pearson Coefficients of Correlation Between the Diagnosed Variables and Demographic Variables and Workplace (Sales Staff Versus Civil Servants) (the Survey Results)

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Workplace (sales staff versus civil servants)</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>Education</i>	<i>Income</i>
Employability Market Orientation (EMO)	-0.16**	0.04	-0.05	-0.17**	0.19***
Cognitive Alternatives (CFI A)	-0.01	0.08	0.166**	0.07	0.16**
Cognitive Control (CFI C)	-0.04	0.21***	0.169**	0.04	0.25***
Job Insecurity (JI) indicator	0.17**	-0.09	0.03	0.09	-0.17**
Employability (MAE) indicator	-0.23***	0.06	0.02	-0.13*	0.25***
Boundaryless Career (BC) indicator	-0.21***	0.14*	-0.09	-0.24***	-0.05
Professional Flexibility (PF)	-0.04	0.002	0.001	0.004	-0.08

\*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\*  $p < .001$ .

Table 13.8 Contingency Table of Pearson Correlation Coefficients for the Diagnosed Variables (the Survey Results)

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Employability Market Orientation (EMO)</i>	<i>Cognitive Alternatives (CFI A)</i>	<i>Cognitive Control (CFI C)</i>	<i>Job Insecurity (JI) indicator</i>	<i>Employability (MAE) indicator</i>	<i>Boundaryless Career (BC) indicator</i>	<i>Professional Flexibility (PF)</i>
<b>Employability Market Orientation (EMO)</b>	—	0.41***	0.36***	-0.17**	0.49***	0.15*	0.04
<b>Cognitive Alternatives (CFI A)</b>	0.41***	—	0.36***	-0.13*	0.37***	0.01	0.08
<b>Cognitive Control (CFI C)</b>	0.36***	0.36***	—	-0.18**	0.33***	0.06	-0.01
<b>Job Insecurity (JI) indicator</b>	-0.17**	-0.13*	-0.18**	—	-0.38***	0.20***	0.13*
<b>Employability (MAE) indicator</b>	0.49***	0.37***	0.33***	-0.38***	—	0.02	-0.04
<b>Boundaryless Career (BC) indicator</b>	0.15*	0.01	0.06	0.20***	0.02	—	0.14*
<b>Professional Flexibility (PF)</b>	0.04	0.08	-0.01	0.13*	-0.04	0.14*	—

\* p < .05; \*\* p < .01; \*\*\* p < .001.

*Table 13.9* Pearson Coefficients of Correlation Between Employability Market Orientation and Demographic Variables, as Broken Down into the Groups of Sales Staff and Civil Servants (the Survey Results)

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>Education</i>	<i>Income</i>
Employability Market Orientation (EMO), total	0.04	-0.05	-0.17**	0.19***
Employability Market Orientation (EMO) – sales staff	-0.05	0.03	-0.01	0.1*
Employability Market Orientation (EMO) – civil servants	0.09	-0.06	-0.16*	0.17*

\*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\*  $p < .001$ .

*Table 13.10* Pearson Coefficients of Correlation Between Employability Market Orientation and the Diagnosed Variables, as Broken Down into the Groups of Sales Staff and Civil Servants (the Survey Results)

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Cognitive Alternatives (CFI A)</i>	<i>Cognitive Control (CFI C)</i>	<i>Job Insecurity (JI) indicator</i>	<i>Employability (MAE) indicator</i>	<i>Boundaryless Career (BC) indicator</i>	<i>Professional Flexibility (PF)</i>
Employability Market Orientation (EMO), total	0.41***	0.36***	-0.17**	0.49***	0.15*	0.04
Employability Market Orientation (EMO) – sales staff	0.393***	0.43***	-0.04	0.48***	0.14	-0.04
Employability Market Orientation (EMO) – civil servants	0.428***	0.3***	-0.24**	0.47***	0.1	0.1

\*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\*  $p < .001$ .

*Table 13.11* Pearson Coefficients of Correlation Between the Diagnosed Variables and the Dimensions of Savickas's Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (the Survey Results)

<i>Variables</i>	<i>CAAS</i>			
	<i>Dimension of concern</i>	<i>Dimension of control</i>	<i>Dimension of curiosity</i>	<i>Dimension of confidence</i>
Employability Market Orientation (EMO)	0.62***	0.486***	0.61***	0.54***
Cognitive Alternatives (CFI A)	0.52***	0.52***	0.6***	0.55***
Cognitive Control (CFI C)	0.17**	0.32***	0.28***	0.26***

(Continued)

Table 13.11 (Continued)

Variables	CAAS			
	Dimension of concern	Dimension of control	Dimension of curiosity	Dimension of confidence
Job Insecurity (JI) indicator	-0.11	-0.16**	-0.14*	-0.13*
Employability (MAE) indicator	0.396***	0.45***	0.396***	0.37***
Boundaryless Career (BC) indicator	0.16**	0.08	0.05	0.001
Professional Flexibility (PF)	0.14*	0.06	0.08	0.07

\* p < .05; \*\* p < .01; \*\*\* p < .001.

### 13.4 Distributions of results for the respective Employability Market Orientation scales

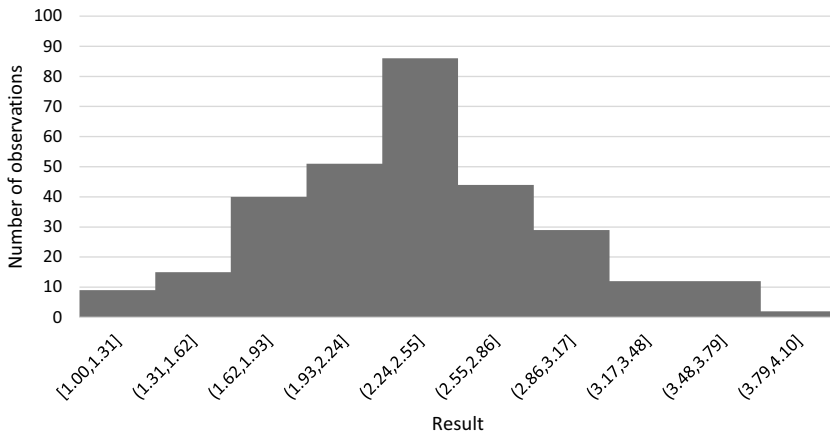


Figure 13.1 Distributions of Results for the Career Exploration Scale (the Survey Results)

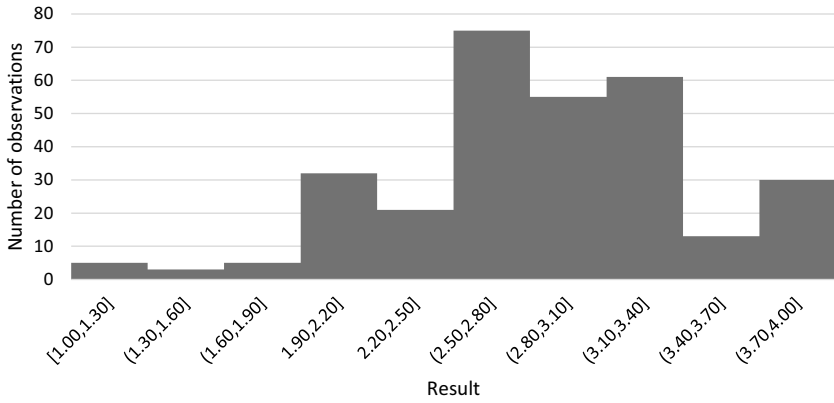


Figure 13.2 Distributions of Results for the Future Time Perspective Scale (the Survey Results)

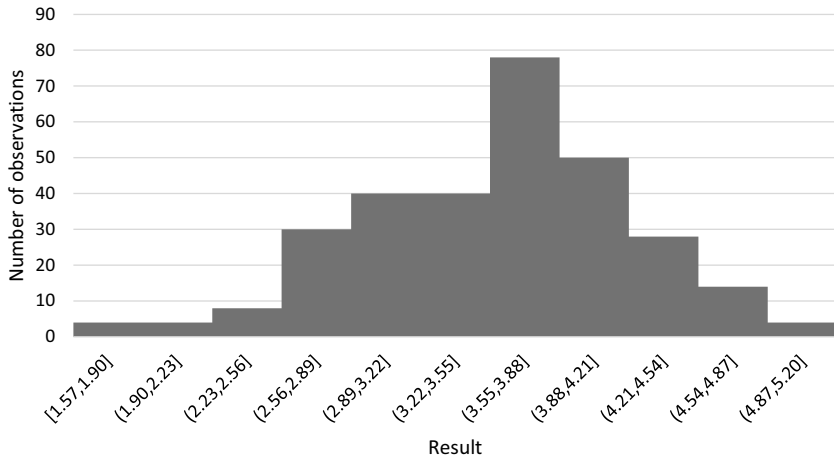


Figure 13.3 Distributions of Results for the Career Planning Scale (the Survey Results)

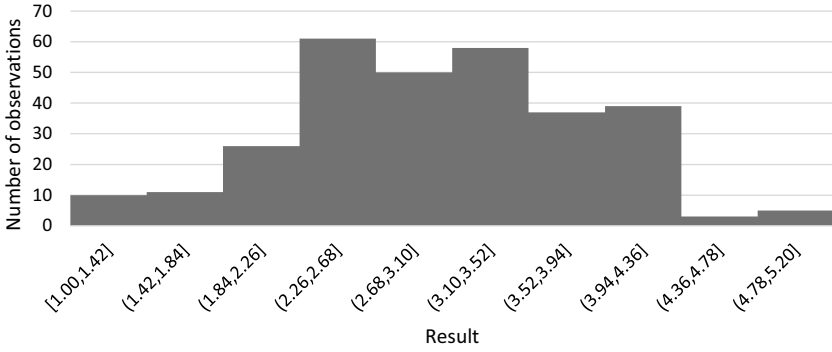


Figure 13.4 Distributions of Results for the Career Strategy Implementation Scale (the Survey Results)

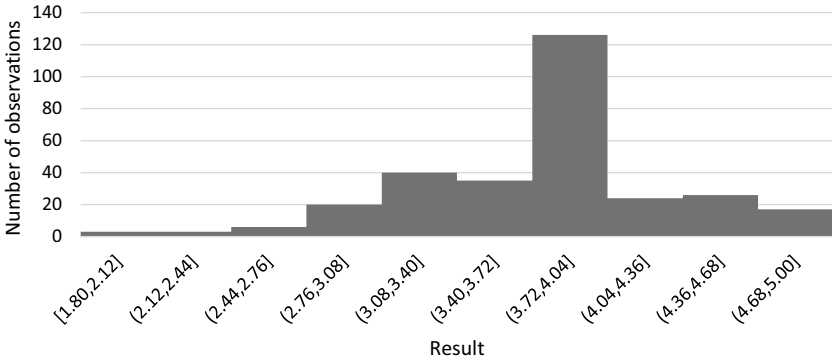


Figure 13.5 Distributions of Results for the Vocational Self-Concept Crystallisation Scale (the Survey Results)

### 13.5 Factor analysis of Employability Market Orientation

Table 13.12 Cronbach's Alphas for the Respective Items of the EMO Questionnaire (the Survey Results)

<i>Item of the Employability Market Orientation questionnaire</i>	<i>Total item correlation</i>	<i>Cronbach's alpha with item deleted</i>
I observe the labour market and the expectations of employers	0.445	0.889
I analyse job offers that give me a chance for professional development	0.443	0.889
I observe what forms of additional training people from my professional environment undergo	0.484	0.888
I check how many potential job offers there are for me in the market	0.426	0.889
I control what professional career others in my profession pursue	0.395	0.890
I look for information about a specific job or company as a potential workplace	0.375	0.890
I regularly talk to people who are well-informed about matters related to my profession	0.491	0.888
I gather information on how I can adapt to different career paths	0.623	0.885
I analyse my professional past	0.397	0.890
I reflect on how professional experience affects my professional development	0.493	0.888
I think about what I can do and what I should improve to have a job	0.564	0.887
I deliberate how my previous decisions and behaviour have affected my current professional situation	0.398	0.890
I think about my professional future	0.515	0.887
Professional experience helps me get to know myself	0.426	0.889
I know what professional skills I should develop	0.552	0.887
I am not sure which of my skills I can use in my professional development	0.394	0.890
I know myself well enough to know what kind of work suits me	0.428	0.889
I know how my qualities and skills affect my professional development	0.483	0.888
I have a professional development plan	0.562	0.886
My current job is related to my future career goals	0.404	0.890
I know how much effort I have to make to achieve my career goals	0.517	0.887
I do not have clear career goals	0.525	0.887
I work with a person who supports me in my professional development	0.112	0.898
I have contacts with employees of other companies that can help me find a new job	0.358	0.891
I am active in many fields and have a wide network of contacts who can help me find a job	0.422	0.889
I know what skills I will develop in the near future	0.644	0.885

(Continued)

Table 13.12 (Continued)

<i>Item of the Employability Market Orientation questionnaire</i>	<i>Total item correlation</i>	<i>Cronbach's alpha with item deleted</i>
I observe other people who practise a profession similar to mine to know what skills and competences to develop	0.577	0.886
I develop my competences so that they are in line with what potential employers need	0.483	0.888

Table 13.13 Cronbach's Alphas for the Respective Scales of the EMO Questionnaire (the Survey Results)

<i>EMO scales</i>	<i>Total item correlation</i>	<i>Cronbach's alpha with item deleted</i>
Career Exploration	0.446	0.699
Future Time Perspective	0.469	0.690
Career Planning	0.681	0.604
Career Strategy Implementation	0.306	0.750
Vocational Self-Concept Crystallisation	0.567	0.652

### 13.6 Coding of selected variables

Table 13.14 Coding of Selected Variables – Summary (Compiled by the Author)

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Coding</i>
Gender	Woman/man
Education	Bachelor's degree/Master's degree
Workplace/group	Sales staff/civil servants
Type of employment contract	Short-term/long-term

### 13.7 Data from the linear regression analysis of socio-demographic variables and Employability Market Orientation

Table 13.15 Standardised Beta Coefficients of Linear Regression for Socio-Demographic Variables and EMO (the Survey Results)

<i>Predictor/dependent variable</i>	<i>EMO<sup>+</sup></i> <i>R<sup>2</sup> = 0.019</i>	<i>CE**</i> <i>R<sup>2</sup> = 0.038</i>	<i>FTP***</i> <i>R<sup>2</sup> = 0.083</i>	<i>VSCC**</i> <i>R<sup>2</sup> = 0.035</i>
<b>Age</b>	0.029	-0.102	<b>-0.138*</b>	<b>0.147*</b>
<b>Gender</b>	0.024	0.046	0.033	-0.078
<b>Education</b>	<b>-0.172**</b>	<b>-0.135*</b>	<b>-0.195**</b>	-0.091
<b>Gender x age</b>	-0.078	-0.023	-0.036	-0.091

(Continued)

Table 13.15 (Continued)

Predictor/dependent variable	EMO <sup>+</sup> R <sup>2</sup> = 0.019	CE <sup>**</sup> R <sup>2</sup> = 0.038	FTP <sup>***</sup> R <sup>2</sup> = 0.083	VSCC <sup>**</sup> R <sup>2</sup> = 0.035
<b>Gender x education</b>	<b>0.111<sup>+</sup></b>	0.008	0.036	<b>0.189<sup>**</sup></b>
<b>Age x education</b>	<b>-0.021<sup>+</sup></b>	<b>-0.109<sup>+</sup></b>	-0.004	0.029

The designation beside the dependent variable refers to the level of significance of the model. The adjusted R-squared value is provided below. The remaining EMO scales have been ignored because no statistically significant relationship was found.

+p < .10; \* p < .05; \*\* p < .01; \*\*\* p < .001.

### 13.8 Data from linear regressions verifying the respective hypotheses

#### 13.8.1 Hypothesis 1

**Hypothesis 1: There is a relationship between Employability Market Orientation and the transactional versus relational psychological contract.**

*Independent variable:* psychological contract (transactional versus relational) indicator – workplace (sales staff member versus civil servant)

*Dependent variable:* EMO

indicator – result in the EMO Questionnaire

*Controlled variables:* age, gender, education

Table 13.16 Standardised Beta Coefficients of Linear Regression for the Variables: Psychological Contract (Workplace: Sales Staff Versus Civil Servants) and EMO (the Survey Results)

Predictor/dependent variable	EMO <sup>*</sup> R <sup>2</sup> = 0.018	EMO <sup>*</sup> R <sup>2</sup> = 0.022	EMO <sup>+</sup> R <sup>2</sup> = 0.023	CE <sup>**</sup> R <sup>2</sup> = 0.054	FTP <sup>***</sup> R <sup>2</sup> = 0.087	VSCC <sup>**</sup> R <sup>2</sup> = 0.029
	regression model I	regression model II	regression model III	regression model III	regression model III	regression model III
<b>Age</b>	-0.022	0.016	0.017	<b>-0.109<sup>+</sup></b>	<b>-0.148<sup>*</sup></b>	<b>-0.064<sup>*</sup></b>
<b>Gender</b>	0.023	0.017	0.02	0.043	0.026	-0.079
<b>Workplace</b> (sales staff versus civil servants)	<b>-0.158<sup>**</sup></b>	-0.1	-0.109	-0.096	<b>-0.215<sup>**</sup></b>	-0.041
<b>Education</b>	—	-0.113	-0.102	-0.074	-0.067	0.14
<b>Gender x age</b>			-0.079	-0.015	-0.042	-0.096
<b>Gender x education</b>			0.088	-0.081	0.014	<b>0.216<sup>**</sup></b>
<b>Age x education</b>			-0.035	<b>-0.123<sup>*</sup></b>	-0.022	0.024

(Continued)

Table 13.16 (Continued)

Predictor/ dependent variable	EMO*	EMO*	EMO <sup>+</sup>	CE**	FTP***	VSCC**
	R <sup>2</sup> = 0.018	R <sup>2</sup> = 0.022	R <sup>2</sup> = 0.023	R <sup>2</sup> = 0.054	R <sup>2</sup> = 0.087	R <sup>2</sup> = 0.029
	regression model I	regression model II	regression model III	regression model III	regression model III	regression model III
<b>Workplace x gender</b>			0.035	<b>0.146*</b>	0.042	-0.045
<b>Workplace x education</b>			-0.076	-0.074	-0.001	-0.03

The designation beside the dependent variable refers to the level of significance of the regression model. The adjusted R-squared value is provided below.

+p < .10; \* p < .05; \*\* p < .01; \*\*\* p < .001.

### 13.8.2 Hypothesis 2

**Hypothesis 2: There is a positive relationship between Cognitive Flexibility (dimensions of Cognitive Alternatives and Cognitive Control) and Employability Market Orientation.**

**Hypothesis 2a: Cognitive Alternatives, a dimension of cognitive flexibility, impacts EMO. The higher the level of Cognitive Alternatives, the stronger EMO.**

*Independent variable:* Cognitive flexibility Alternatives indicator – result in the CFI Alternatives questionnaire

*Dependent variable:* Employability Market Orientation indicator – result in the EMO Questionnaire

*Controlled variables:* age, gender, education, workplace (sales staff versus civil servants), type of employment contract.

Table 13.17 Standardised Beta Coefficients of Linear Regression for the Variables: Cognitive Alternatives (Dimension of Cognitive Flexibility) and EMO (the Survey Results)

Predictor/ dependent variable	EMO*** R <sup>2</sup> = 0.193	CE** R <sup>2</sup> = 0.038	FTP*** R <sup>2</sup> = 0.198	VSCC*** R <sup>2</sup> = 0.221	CP*** R <sup>2</sup> = 0.168	CSI* R <sup>2</sup> = 0.025
<b>Gender</b>	-0.012	0.036	0.003	<b>-0.113**</b>	-0.027	0.061
<b>Age</b>	-0.043	-0.108	<b>-0.204***</b>	0.090	0.010	0.065
<b>Education</b>	<b>-0.126<sup>+</sup></b>	-0.086	-0.080	-0.084	-0.080	-0.107
<b>Workplace</b> (sales staff versus civil servants)	-0.071	-0.078	<b>-0.187**</b>	-0.016	-0.003	0.040
<b>Type of employment contract</b> (short-term versus long-term)	0.058	0.082	0.031	0.074	0.036	-0.022

(Continued)

Table 13.17 (Continued)

Predictor/ dependent variable	EMO*** R <sup>2</sup> = 0.193	CE** R <sup>2</sup> = 0.038	FTP*** R <sup>2</sup> = 0.198	VSCC*** R <sup>2</sup> = 0.221	CP*** R <sup>2</sup> = 0.168	CSI* R <sup>2</sup> = 0.025
<b>Cognitive Alternatives</b>	<b>0.425***</b>	.073	<b>0.329***</b>	<b>0.468***</b>	<b>0.426***</b>	<b>0.175**</b>

The designation beside the dependent variable refers to the level of significance of the regression model. The remaining EMO scales have been ignored because no statistically significant relationship was found.

+p < .10; \* p < .05; \*\* p < .01; \*\*\* p < .001.

**Hypothesis 2b: The higher the level of Cognitive Control, the stronger Employability Market Orientation.**

*Independent variable:* dimension of Cognitive Control indicator – result on the CFI scale of Cognitive Control

*Dependent variable:* EMO

indicator – result in the EMO Questionnaire

*Controlled variables:* age, gender, education, type of employment contract, workplace (sales staff and civil servants)

Table 13.18 Standardised Beta Coefficients of Linear Regression for the Variables: Cognitive Control (Dimension of Cognitive Flexibility) and EMO (the Survey Results)

Predictor/dependent variable	EMO*** R <sup>2</sup> = 0.152	CE** R <sup>2</sup> = 0.044	FTP*** R <sup>2</sup> = 0.107	VSCC*** R <sup>2</sup> = 0.167	CP*** R <sup>2</sup> = 0.141	SP*** R <sup>2</sup> = 0.062
<b>Gender</b>	-0.058	0.02	-0.001	<b>-0.162**</b>	-0.077	0.021
<b>Age</b>	-0.04	-0.116	<b>-0.171**</b>	0.094	0.009	0.046
<b>Education</b>	-0.111	-0.083	-0.068	-0.067	-0.064	-0.101
<b>Workplace</b> (sales staff versus civil servants)	-0.089	-0.08	<b>-0.207**</b>	-0.036	-0.021	0.036
<b>Type of employment contract</b> (short-term versus long-term)	0.034	0.075	0.023	0.048	0.011	-0.039
<b>Cognitive Control</b>	<b>0.38***</b>	<b>0.109<sup>+</sup></b>	<b>0.131**</b>	<b>0.412***</b>	<b>0.401***</b>	<b>0.265***</b>

The designation beside the dependent variable refers to the level of significance of the regression model. The adjusted R-squared value is provided below.

+p < .10; \* p < .05; \*\* p < .01; \*\*\* p < .001.

**13.8.3 Hypothesis 3**

**Hypothesis 3: The stronger Employability Market Orientation, the lower Job Insecurity.**

*Independent variable:* EMO

indicator – result in the EMO Questionnaire

*Dependent variable:* job insecurity

indicator – Job Insecurity (JI)

*Controlled variables:* age, gender, education, type of employment contract, workplace, Cognitive Alternatives, Cognitive Control

Table 13.19 Standardised Beta Coefficients of Linear Regression for the Variables: Job Insecurity (JI) and EMO (the Survey Results)

<i>Predictor/dependent variable</i>	<i>Job Insecurity (JI)***</i>	
	<i>Model I</i> <i>R<sup>2</sup> = 0.065</i>	<i>Model II</i> <i>R<sup>2</sup> = 0.081</i>
<b>Gender</b>	-0.067	-0.036
<b>Age</b>	0.071	0.105
<b>Education</b>	-0.016	-0.006
<b>Workplace</b>	<b>0.134<sup>+</sup></b>	<b>0.132<sup>+</sup></b>
(sales staff versus civil servants)		
<b>Type of employment contract</b>	<b>0.186**</b>	<b>0.191***</b>
(short-term versus long-term)		
<b>EMO</b>	<b>-0.156**</b>	-0.080
<b>Cognitive Alternatives</b>	—	-0.052
<b>Cognitive Control</b>	—	<b>-0.148*</b>

The designation beside the dependent variable refers to the level of significance of the regression model. The adjusted R-squared value is provided below.

+p < .10; \* p < .05; \*\* p < .01; \*\*\* p < .001.

### 13.8.4 Hypothesis 4

**Hypothesis 4: The stronger Employability Market Orientation, the higher Employability.**

*Independent variable:* Employability Market Orientation (EMO)

indicator – result in the EMO Questionnaire

*Dependent variable:* Employability

indicator – Employability (MAE) indicator

*Controlled variables:* age, gender, education, workplace, type of employment contract, Cognitive Alternatives, Cognitive Control and Job Insecurity (JI)

Table 13.20 Standardised Beta Coefficients of Linear Regression for the Variables: Employability (MAE) and EMO (the Survey Results)

Predictor/dependent variable	Employability (MAE)***	Employability (MAE)***
	Model I $R^2 = 0.262$	Model II $R^2 = 0.379$
<b>Gender</b>	0.021	-0.015
<b>Age</b>	0.058	0.049
<b>Education</b>	0.024	-0.002
<b>Workplace</b> (sales staff versus civil servants)	<b>-0.179**</b>	<b>-0.178**</b>
<b>EMO</b>	<b>0.472***</b>	<b>0.335***</b>
<b>Type of employment contract</b> (short-term versus long-term)	—	-0.032
<b>Cognitive Alternatives</b>	—	<b>0.148**</b>
<b>Cognitive Control</b>	—	<b>0.102*</b>
<b>Job Insecurity (JI)</b>	—	<b>-0.266***</b>

The designation beside the dependent variable refers to the level of significance of the regression model. The adjusted R-squared value is provided below.

\*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\*  $p < .001$ .

### 13.8.5 Hypothesis 5

**Hypothesis 5a: There is a relationship between Employability Market Orientation and Professional Flexibility.**

*Independent variable:* Professional Flexibility

Professional Flexibility (PF) indicator

*Dependent variable:* EMO

indicator – result in the EMO Questionnaire

*Controlled variables:* age, gender, education, type of employment contract, workplace, Cognitive Alternatives, Cognitive Control, Job Insecurity (JI)

Table 13.21 Standardised Beta Coefficients of Linear Regression for the Variables: Professional Flexibility (PF) and EMO (the Survey Results)

Predictor/dependent variable	EMO***	CE**
	$R^2 = 0.249$	$R^2 = 0.059$
<b>Gender</b>	-0.060	0.021
<b>Age</b>	-0.071	<b>-0.129<sup>+</sup></b>
<b>Education</b>	<b>-0.123<sup>+</sup></b>	-0.092
<b>Workplace</b> (sales staff versus civil servants)	-0.058	-0.073
<b>Cognitive Alternatives</b>	<b>0.332***</b>	0.032
<b>Cognitive Control</b>	<b>0.256***</b>	<b>0.109<sup>+</sup></b>
<b>Job Insecurity</b>	-0.067	0.04

(Continued)

Table 13.21 (Continued)

Predictor/dependent variable	EMO*** $R^2 = 0.249$	CE** $R^2 = 0.059$
<b>Type of employment contract</b> (short-term versus long-term)	0.052	0.05
<b>Professional Flexibility (PF)</b>	0.012	<b>0.141**</b>

The designation beside the dependent variable refers to the level of significance of the regression model. The adjusted R-squared value is provided below. The remaining EMO scales have been ignored because no significant relationship with Professional Flexibility was found.

+p < .10; \* p < .05; \*\* p < .01; \*\*\* p < .001.

***Hypothesis 5b: There is a relationship between Professional Flexibility and Job Insecurity.***

*Independent variable:* Professional Flexibility

Professional Flexibility (PF) indicator

*Dependent variable:* Job Insecurity

Job Insecurity (JI) indicator

*Controlled variables:* age, gender, education, type of employment contract, workplace, Cognitive Alternatives, Cognitive Control

Table 13.22 Standardised Beta Coefficients of Linear Regression for the Variables: Professional Flexibility (PF) and Job Insecurity (JI) (the Survey Results)

Predictor/dependent variable	Job Insecurity (JI)*** $R^2 = 0.091$
<b>Gender</b>	-0.032
<b>Age</b>	0.108
<b>Education</b>	-0.002
<b>Workplace</b> (sales staff versus civil servants)	<b>0.147*</b>
<b>Cognitive Alternatives</b>	-0.09
<b>Cognitive Control</b>	<b>-0.163**</b>
<b>Type of employment contract</b> (short-term versus long-term)	<b>0.172**</b>
<b>Professional Flexibility (PF)</b>	<b>0.121*</b>

The designation beside the dependent variable refers to the level of significance of the regression model. The adjusted R-squared value is provided below.

\* p < .05; \*\* p < .01; \*\*\* p < .001.

***Hypothesis 5c: There is a relationship between Professional Flexibility and Employability.***

*Independent variable:* Professional Flexibility

Professional Flexibility (PF) indicator

*Dependent variable:* Employability

Employability (MAE) indicator

*Controlled variables:* age, gender, education, type of employment contract, workplace, Cognitive Alternatives, Cognitive Control

Table 13.23 Standardised Beta Coefficients of Linear Regression for the Variables: Professional Flexibility (PF) and Employability (MAE) (the Survey Results)

<i>Predictor/dependent variable</i>	<i>Employability (MAE)***</i> <i>R<sup>2</sup> = 0.224</i>
<b>Gender</b>	-0.026
<b>Age</b>	-0.005
<b>Education</b>	-0.041
<b>Workplace</b> (sales staff versus civil servants)	<b>-0.242***</b>
<b>Cognitive Alternatives</b>	<b>0.288***</b>
<b>Cognitive Control</b>	<b>0.233***</b>
<b>Type of employment contract</b> (short-term versus long-term)	-0.061
<b>Professional Flexibility (PF)</b>	-0.062

The designation beside the dependent variable refers to the level of significance of the regression model. The adjusted R-squared value is provided below.

\*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\*  $p < .001$ .

### 13.8.6 Hypothesis 6

***Hypothesis 6a: There is a relationship between Employability Market Orientation and Boundaryless Career.***

*Independent variable:* Boundaryless Career

Boundaryless Career (BC) indicator

*Dependent variable – EMO*

indicator – result in the EMO Questionnaire

*Controlled variables:* age, gender, education, type of employment contract, workplace, Cognitive Alternatives, Cognitive Control, Job Insecurity (JI)

Table 13.24 Standardised Beta Coefficients of Linear Regression for the Variables: Boundaryless Career (BC) and EMO (the Survey Results)

<i>Predictor/dependent variable</i>	<i>EMO***</i> <i>R<sup>2</sup> = 0.26</i>	<i>CE***</i> <i>R<sup>2</sup> = 0.095</i>
<b>Gender</b>	-0.073	-0.007
<b>Age</b>	-0.072	<b>-0.141**</b>
<b>Education</b>	-0.103	-0.044
<b>Workplace</b> (sales staff versus civil servants)	-0.043	-0.050
<b>Cognitive Alternatives</b>	<b>0.331***</b>	0.043
<b>Cognitive Control</b>	<b>0.247***</b>	0.090
<b>Job Insecurity</b>	<b>-0.092<sup>+</sup></b>	0.005
<b>Boundaryless Career (BC)</b>	<b>0.112*</b>	<b>0.245***</b>
<b>Type of employment contract</b> (short-term versus long-term)	0.038	—

The designation beside the dependent variable refers to the level of significance of the regression model. The adjusted R-squared value is provided below. The remaining EMO scales have been ignored because no significant relationship with Boundaryless Career (BC) was found.

+  $p < .10$ ; \*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\*  $p < .001$ .

**Hypothesis 6b: There is a relationship between Boundaryless Career and Job Insecurity.**

*Independent variable:* Boundaryless Career

Boundaryless Career (BC) indicator

*Dependent variable:* Job Insecurity

Job Insecurity (JI) indicator

*Controlled variables:* age, gender, education, type of employment contract, workplace, Cognitive Alternatives, Cognitive Control

Table 13.25 Standardised Beta Coefficients of Linear Regression for the Variables: Boundaryless Career (BC) and Job Insecurity (JI) (the Survey Results)

Predictor/dependent variable	Job Insecurity (JI)*** R <sup>2</sup> = 0.132
<b>Gender</b>	-0.059
<b>Age</b>	0.101
<b>Education</b>	0.046
<b>Workplace</b>	<b>0.164*</b>
(sales staff versus civil servants)	
<b>Cognitive Alternatives</b>	-0.078
<b>Cognitive Control</b>	<b>-0.177**</b>
<b>Boundaryless Career (BC)</b>	<b>0.246***</b>
<b>Type of employment contract</b> (short-term versus long-term)	<b>0.143*</b>

The designation beside the dependent variable refers to the level of significance of the regression model. The adjusted R-squared value is provided below.

\* p < .05; \*\* p < .01; \*\*\* p < .001.

**Hypothesis 6c: There is a relationship between Boundaryless Career and Employability.**

*Independent variable* – Boundaryless Career

Boundaryless Career (BC) indicator

*Dependent variable* – Employability

Employability (MAE) indicator

*Controlled variables*– age, gender, education, type of employment contract, workplace, Cognitive Alternatives, Cognitive Control

Table 13.26 Standardised Beta Coefficients of Linear Regression for the Variables: Boundaryless Career (BC) and Employability (MAE) (the Survey Results)

<i>Predictor/dependent variable</i>	<i>Employability (MAE)***</i> $R^2 = 0.222$
<b>Gender</b>	-0.022
<b>Age</b>	-0.005
<b>Education</b>	-0.050
<b>Workplace</b> (sales staff versus civil servants)	<b>-0.0241***</b>
<b>Cognitive Alternatives</b>	<b>0.282***</b>
<b>Cognitive Control</b>	<b>0.237***</b>
<b>Boundaryless Career (BC)</b>	-0.038
<b>Type of employment contract</b> (short-term versus long-term)	-0.062

The designation beside the dependent variable refers to the level of significance of the regression model. The adjusted R-squared value is provided below.

\*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\*  $p < .001$ .

# Index

Pages in *italics* refer figures; pages in **bold** refer tables and pages followed by n refer notes.

- Acedański, J. 40  
adaptability 67–69  
adaptation 9, 47–48, 67–69  
adaptation to changing labour market  
103–104, 107–108, 160–161, 184;  
CAAS 152, 154–157; EMO-based  
path model of 8–9, 152, 154–156,  
154–157; hypothetical model of  
98–99, 99  
adaptive behaviours 3–4, 11, 27, 78–79,  
88, 160  
Akkermans, J. 78–79, 87, **87**  
Alarco, K.U.B. 71, 117–118, 180  
Allen, D.G. 118  
Altman, E. 34  
Anglo-Saxon model 28  
Annelies, E.M. 88, 92  
antifragility 3  
anti-luddites 27  
Argyris, Ch. 32  
Arnold, J. 62  
Arthur, M.B. 59–60, 63  
Ashford, S. 36  
attitudes, beliefs and competences  
(ABCs) 123  
Bajcar, B. 94  
Banai, M. 114–115  
Baňka, A. 5, 13, 42, 57, 74, 80n1, 94, 96,  
100n1  
Baruch, Y. 173  
Bechky, B.A. 39, 51, 77  
Beck, U. 1, 28  
Bednarska-Wnuk, I. 48, 50  
behavioural indicators 129, 165  
Beheshtifar, M. 73–74, 78  
Bernhard-Oettel, C. 71, 117–118, 180  
Berntson, E. 71  
Berntson Hans De Witte, E. 71,  
117–118, 180  
Blustein, D.L. 88–90  
Bobko, P. 36  
Bohdziewicz, P. 83  
Bolesta-Kukulka, K. 105  
boundaryless career (BC) 9, 58–62, **153**,  
183; and employability 149, **152**;  
indicator 120–122, **122**, 123, 149  
Brenninkmeijer, V. 78–79, 87, **87**  
Briscoe, J.P. 59  
Bryan, N. 118  
Bunian, S.M. 25  
Butts, M. 71  
CAAS *see* career adapt-abilities scale  
career(s) 41, 56, 60, 78–79, 149, 158;  
adaptability 67; as organisational  
promotion ladder 57; orientation *see*  
career orientations; success 57–58;  
typologies of 61–63; women's 63  
career adapt-abilities scale (CAAS) 7–9,  
14, 78, 103–104, 108, 110, 122–124,  
152, 154–157, 183–184  
career construction theory (CCT)  
122–123  
career exploration (CE) 88–90, 172, 184;  
scale 125, **125–126**, 130  
career orientations: cultural determinants  
63–64; as to employees' behaviour  
61–63; precariat, proteanism and  
boundaryless career 58–61  
career planning (CP) 86–87, 92, 177,  
184; scale **125**, 125–126, **127**

- career strategy implementation (CSI) 86, 92–93, 172, 184; scale **125**, 125–126, **127**, 129
- CCT *see* career construction theory
- CE *see* career exploration
- Central Statistical Office (GUS) 26, 105
- CFI *see* cognitive flexibility inventory
- changing labour market 5; adaptation to *see* adaptation to changing labour market; employee's professional life in 70; new realities of 68, 75, 85, 96, 181
- chronic flexibility 61
- Civelli, F. 12, 25
- cognitive alternatives (CFI A) 112, 182; scale **112**, 112–114, **113**
- cognitive control (CFI C) 112, 183; scale 112–114, **113**, **114**
- cognitive flexibility 9, 94–98, 182
- cognitive flexibility inventory (CFI) 7, 136, 182–183; alternatives scale **112**, 112–114, **113**; control scale 112–114, **113**, **114**; Cronbach's alpha value 113
- competence market 12
- contemporary organisations 21
- continental model 28
- continuing vocational training (CVT) 39
- contract workers 25
- Conway, N. 37, 41, 59, 62–63
- Coombs, C. 62
- CP *see* career planning
- Cronbach's alpha 120, 124, 167n10; for CE scale 125; for CP scale 126; for CSI scale 126, 129; for FTP scale 127; for individual scales in EMO **128**; for total EMO scale **128**
- CSI *see* career strategy implementation
- Dauwalder, J.P. 13, 54, 56, 73
- De Cuyper, N. 71, 117–118, 180
- De Guzman, B.A. 76–77
- De Hauw, S. 71, 118
- Deloitte report (2016) 171, 174, 178
- Dennick, R. 117
- Dennis, J.P. 7, 98, 112, 182–183
- De Vos, A. 71, 118
- diagnosed variables: descriptive statistics of **185–187**; mean values of **187–188**; Pearson coefficients of correlation **188–191**
- diagnostic tools and indicators: boundaryless career 120–122, **122**, **123**; dimensions of cognitive flexibility *see* cognitive flexibility inventory; employability and marketability 117–119, **119**, **119**; Employability Market Orientation 125–128; job insecurity 114–117, **116**; professional flexibility 120, **121**, **121**; Savickas's career adapt-abilities scale 122–124
- Dobrzyński, M. 28
- Duarte, M.E. 13, 54, 56, 73
- Eby, L.T. 50, 71
- Eisenhardt, K.M. 21
- Ellis, A. 3
- Emerson, R. 41
- EMO *see* Employability Market Orientation
- EMO and individual scales, regression analysis: boundaryless career **153**; cognitive alternatives **139–141**; job insecurity and employability **150–151**; professional flexibility **150–151**; socio-demographic variables *vs.* 130, **131**; workplace (sales staff *vs.* civil servants) **137–138**
- EMO-based path model 152, **154–156**, **154–157**
- EMO questionnaire 8–9, 103, 184; Cronbach's alphas **128**, **194–195**; individual scales 124, **129**; scales in **125**
- EMO scale: age and education *vs.* CE 130, **132**; analysis of 136; career exploration 125, **125–126**, **191**; career planning **125**, 125–126, **127**, **192**; career strategy implementation **125**, 125–126, **127**, 129, **193**; future time perspective **125**, 127, **128**, **192**; gender and education *vs.* VSCC 130, **133**; vocational self-concept crystallisation 125, **125–126**, **193**; workplace and gender *vs.* CE **136**
- employability 9, 107–108, 184; high 14, 71, 83, 99, 107–108, 118, 146, **146**, **148**, **163**; ignore/accept 172; in labour market 161; and marketability 117–119, **119**, **119**, 165; rules in personnel policy 173–174
- employability and marketability (MAE) indicator 117–119, **119**, **119**, 184
- employability competences 13, 84, 86–87; career exploration 88–90; career planning 92; career strategy implementation 92–93; in foreign studies, selected theories of 76–80; future time perspective 93–94; higher order 6, 13, 74, **156**, 157; in Polish

- studies 74–76; significance for employee 72–74; vocational self-concept crystallisation 90–91
- Employability Market Orientation (EMO) 6–9, 13–14; age and education *vs.* 130, 132; changing labour market *see* adaptation to changing labour market, changing labour market; coding of selected variables **195**; diagnosed variables in research process 110, **111**; diagnostic tools and indicators in research *see* diagnostic tools and indicators; employee with 157–159; employment contract and education *vs.* 130, 133; factor analysis of **194–195**; gender and education *vs.* 130, 132; hypotheses, research schema verification *see* hypotheses, verification of; marketing approach and career competence model **87**; research approach and monograph contribution *see* research and monograph; research questions, hypotheses and variables **109–110**; respective competences of *see* employability competences; sales staff and civil servants, survey of *see* staff and civil servants; socio-demographic determinants and variables 103, 110; socio-demographic variables **195–196**
- employee(s): activities and professional duties 73; adaptation of organisation to environment 21–22; adaptation process 67–69; behaviour 4, 6–7, 10, 32, 61–63, 83, 85–86, 129, 160, 166, 171; with EMO 157–159; employability and marketability 69–72, 86, 176–177, 184; employability competences for 72–80; *see also* employability competences; flexibility 120; groups of 106; insecurity 115; (dis)loyalty 38–41; marketing perspective to 84–85; as micro-entrepreneur in labour market 83–84, 180; pattern of behaviour 84, 86; self-assessment and self-esteem 181; value of personality 180
- employee expectations: adaptation 47–48; flexibility 48–49; mobility 49–51
- employer 5; creating image 175; and employee *see* employer–employee relations
- employer–employee relations 1, 5, 8, 20, 73; cooperation between 12; psychological contract between 171; skills 87; transactional psychological contract *see* psychological contract
- employment 74, 106, 115, 117–118, **121**, 122, 125, 130, 155, 157–162, 165; contract 110, **111**, 133, **135**, **138**, **141**, 142, **144–146**, **148**, **150**, **152–153**, 172; renewability of 70
- Eysenck, H. 94
- Feldman, D.C. 50, 95
- Feldman, S. 32–33
- flexibility 9, 22–23, 48–49, 67–68
- flexible management 1, 11–12, 20, 24, 26, 36–37, 47, 56, 74; employee's response to 3–4, 11, 19, 171; principles of 1, 58; rules of 2, 33, 51
- flexicurity 27–28
- Flum, H. 88–90
- Fordism 22
- free-floating professionalism 61
- Frey, A. 80n1, 100n1
- Fromm, E. 181n1
- Fryczyńska, M. 75
- FTP *see* future time perspective
- future time perspective (FTP) 93–94, 184; scale **125**, 127, **128**, 162
- Ganesh, S.I. 59–60
- Gerber, M. 59, 62–63
- Giddens, A. 70
- Greenhalgh, L. 36, 106, 115
- Greller, M. 32
- Griffeth, R.W. 118
- Grill, J. 80n1, 100n1
- Grote, G. 59, 62–63
- Gubler, M. 62
- Guest, D. 37, 41, 59, 62–63
- Guichard, J. 13, 54, 56, 73
- Gunz, H. 59–60
- Hall, D.T. 59, 77
- Handy, Ch. 8, 25–27, 72, 84, 177
- Hartman, K. 94
- Hecker, R. 5, 36–37, 40
- higher-order competences 13, 74, 156, 157
- Hodson, R. 83
- Holland, J. 54–56
- Holland, P. 5, 36–37, 40
- Hough, L.M. 118
- Huibers, M. **87**
- human capital 6, 18, 172, 175, 177
- human resource management 6, 11, 18–19, 171; company's incentive system 175;

- competences of organisation 175–176;  
 culture of management 177–178;  
 department 175, 177; employability  
 rules in personnel policy 173–174;  
 employee appraisal 178n1; flexible *see*  
 human resource management,  
 flexibility of; ignore/accept, employ-  
 ability 172; interviews with employees  
 175; managers and directors 172, 178
- human resource management, flexibility  
 of 2, 22, 33, 37, 73, 174; cognitive-  
 behavioural flexibility 24; competition  
 23; flexibility of organisation 22–23;  
 flexicurity 27–28; human capital of  
 organisation 24; neo-luddites and  
 anti-luddites 27–28; qualitative  
 flexibility 25; quantitative flexibility  
 24; segmentation of workforce 25–27
- hypotheses, verification of: 1 and 2 **135**; 3  
 and 4 **145**; 5a, 5b, 5c **148**; 6a, 6b, 6c  
**152**; research questions and variables  
**109–110**; results **163–164**; verified  
 106–108
- Iellatchitch, A. 61
- individual(s): ability 94–95; adaptation to  
 changing labour market *see* adaptation  
 to changing labour market; cognitive  
 flexibility 94–98; employability and  
 marketability 84; image of employers  
 175; marketing approach 184; position  
 in labour market 71; proactive  
 behaviour 48; professional develop-  
 ment of *see* professional development;  
 professional life 70, 85; reactive  
 behaviour 48; tolerant behaviour 48
- Inkson, K. 59–60, 63
- Jabłońska-Wołozyn, M. 75
- Jeffers, S. 37
- JI *see* job insecurity
- job insecurity (JI) 9, 104–105, 165, 183;  
 employer and employee 115; indicator  
 115–117, **116**, 148, 160; low and high  
 level 116–117; lower 14, 107, **109**,  
**121**, **145**, **163**, 198; measuring  
 114–115; psychological contract  
 35–38; sense of 106, 115–116, 118,  
 158–160; solutions to 69–72
- job mobility 63
- job security 2, 6, 12, **34**, 35–38, 42,  
**42**, 49, 62, 69–71, 85, 106, 118,  
 160–162, 173
- Juchnowicz, M. 24, 28, 48
- Kalleberg, A.L. 21, 33, 49, 83
- Kasprzak, E. 62
- Kinnunen, U. 105
- Klehe, U.Ch. 88, 92
- Koen, J. 88, 92
- Kolmar, Ch. 1
- Konarski, S. 80n3
- Konecki, K. 94
- Kotler, P. 84–85
- Koźmiński, A.K. 13, 21, 23, 72, 83–84
- Król, G. 117
- Kuijpers, M. 79
- labour market 5, 117, 166–167; adaptation  
 to changing *see* adaptation to changing  
 labour market; behaviour in 104, 121;  
 employability 161; employees as  
 micro-enterprises 83–84, 180; and  
 employment competences 115; groups of  
 employees in 106; internal and external  
 118; models of 28; Polish 118, 124
- Lahey, M.A. 104
- Lee, C. 36
- Leighton, P. 5, 36–37, 40
- Lens, W. 94
- Leskinen, E. 105
- Lifton, R.J. 59
- linear regressions: hypothesis 1 196,  
**196–197**; hypothesis 2 and 2a 197,  
**197–198**; hypothesis 2b 198, **198**;  
 hypothesis 3 198–199, **199**; hypothesis  
 4 199, **200**; hypothesis 5a 200,  
**200–201**; hypothesis 5b 201, **201**;  
 hypothesis 5c 201, **202**; hypothesis 6a  
 202, **202**; hypothesis 6b 203, **203**;  
 hypothesis 6c 203, **204**
- Lipka, A. 40
- Lockwood, A. 71
- Łukasiewicz, G. 61, 77
- Management by Objectives (MBO) 18
- marketability 7–10, 13, 67–80, 84, 86–87,  
 99, 117–119, 159, 165, 175–177,  
 184; and employability 117–119, **119**,  
 119, 165
- Marklund, S. 71
- Marzec, I. 120, 167n11
- Matyjak, T. 40
- Mauno, S. 105
- Mayrhofer, W. 61
- McElroy, J.C. 88, 90–92, 125
- McInnis, K.J. 32–33
- Mediterranean model 28
- Meyer, J.P. 32–33

- Meyer, M. 61  
 Mice, A. 56  
 mobility 4, 7, 9, 12, 54, 56, 63–64, 67–68, 72, 77, 84, 91, 115; flexibility and 47–49; types of 49–51  
 Morawski, W. 37  
 Morgan, G. 95  
 Mustapha, M.Y. 25
- Nauta, A. 88, 92  
 neo-luddites 27  
 Ng, T.W.H. 50, 95  
 Nicholson 50  
 Nieznańska-Cwynar, A. 91  
 Noe, R.A. 78  
 Nosal, C.S. 93–94  
 Nota, L. 13, 54, 56, 73
- Ok Choi, K. 76–77  
 O'Mahony, S. 39, 51, 77  
 O'Neill, P. 36, 114–115  
 organisational behaviour 4–5, 10, 166; theories 3, 8, 32  
 organisational flexibility 12, 28, 34  
 organisational management 18–16  
 Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development (OECD) 36
- Parsons, F. 89  
 Pawłowska, A. 178n3, 182–184  
 personnel function 6, 10, 32, 166; designing 8; external alignment of 177, 178n2; implementation of 41, 85, 172, 174, 177; performance of 3–4, 14, 18–20  
 personnel risk 12, 15, 18–19, 43, 178  
 PF *see* professional flexibility  
 Pfeffer, J. 71  
 PKN Orlen SA 178  
 Polak, J. 93–94  
 Polish General Social Survey (PGSS) 116  
 Polish Human Resource Management Association 178  
 Porfeli, E. 7, 13, 67–68  
 precariat 58–59  
 precarity 9  
 professional development 5, 9, 73–74, 76, 85; employee activity in changing labour market *see* career(s), career orientations; modern approach 56–58; process 39; traditional approach 54–56  
 professional flexibility (PF) 183; and employability **148**, 149, **150–151**; indicator 120, **121**, 121, 148  
 promotion **34**, 41, **42**, 54, 56–57, 62, 69, 85, **87**, 89, 92, 155, 157, 173  
 protean career 58–59, 63  
 proteanism 9, 58–59, 62  
 psychological contract 2, 15, 98–99, 105–107, 135; balanced 33; consequences of breach 33; employee expectations and obligations 41–43, **42**; employee (dis)loyalty 38–41; evaluation of 32; job (in)security 35–38; relational and transactional 33–35, **34**; transitional 33; vocational (un)training 38–39  
 psychological mobility 50  
 PWC 178
- rational emotive theory 3  
 Reich, R.B. 2, 27  
 Reisel, W.D. 114–115  
 remuneration system 105  
 research and monograph: addressed to employees 11; cognitive objectives 6–7; concept of antifragility 3; descriptive function 4; empirical contribution 10; employee behaviours 4; expressive function 4; flexible management 2–3; fragile 3; methodological level 10; monograph structure 8–10; practical objectives 8; theory-related context 10
- Reykowski, J. 95  
 Rifkin, J. 27  
 Robinson, S.L. 77  
 Roland, W.B. 78–79, 87  
 Roper, J. 59–60  
 Rosenblatt, Z. 36, 106, 115  
 Rossier, J. 13, 54, 56, 73  
 Rostkowski, T. 49, 120  
 Rotter, J. 94  
 Rousseau, D.M. 32–33, 59–60  
 Rymaniak, J. 12, 23
- Saks, A.M. 63, 89  
 Savickas, M.L. 7–8, 13, 54, 56–57, 67–68, 73, 78, 86, 103–104, 108, 110, 122–124, 152, 154–157, 183–184  
 Savickas's career construction model 67–69  
 Schaufeli, W.B. 78–79, 87  
 Scheeren, J. 79  
 Schein, E. 32, 54–56  
 Schyns, B. 79

- self-concept 55, 91  
 self-employment 61  
 seniority bonus 56, 176  
 Sevastos, P. 36, 114–115  
 Shostrom, E.L. 94  
 Sienkiewicz, Ł. 24, 28, 50, 64  
 Sijtsma, K. 117  
 Snell, S.A. 24, 174  
 Song, Z. 118  
 Sorensen, K.L. 50  
 Soresi, S. 13, 54, 56, 73  
 Sparrow, P.R. 174  
 staff and civil servants 164; research  
   questions and schema 103–105, *104*;  
   as surveyed groups 105–106; verified  
   hypotheses 106–108, **109–110**  
 Standing, G. 26, 37, 39, 58–59  
 Steel, R.P. 118  
 Strużyna, J. 120, 167n11  
 Strykowska, M. 37, 57, 75  
 Stumpf, S.A. 94  
 Styła, R. 93  
 Suchar, M. 50, 72  
 Sull, D.N. 21  
 Sullivan, S.E. 35, 41, 61, 63  
 Super, D.E. 54–56, 67  
 Świątek-Barylska, I. 34, 38, 40, 42  
 Syrett, M. 5, 36–37, 40  
  
 Taleb, N.N. 3, 159  
 Tavakol, M. 117  
 Terelak, J.F. 91  
 Thomas, D.C. 63  
 transactional psychological contract 69,  
   85–86, 88, 98–99, 171; employability  
   competences for employee 72–80;  
   new employer-employee relations  
   32–43; *see also* psychological contract  
  
 Trevor, Ch. 71  
 Turek, D. 80n3  
  
 unstable career 61  
  
 Van der Heijden, B.I.J.M. 71, 76, 118  
 Vander Wal, J.S. 7, 98, 112, 182–183  
 Van Esbroeck, R. 13, 54, 56, 73  
 Van Vianen, A.E.M. 13, 54, 56, 73  
 Verbruggen, M. 50, 59, 61  
 Vianen, V. 88, 92  
 Vielmetter, G. 1, 11  
 vocational self-concept crystallisation  
   (VSCC) 86–87, 90–91, 177, 184; scale  
   125, **125–126**, 130, 136, 160  
 vocational (un)training 38–39  
 VSCC *see* vocational self-concept  
   crystallisation  
  
 Wanberg, R.C. 118  
 Wang, L. 59  
 Waters, L. 59  
 Weng, Q. 88, 90–92, 124  
 West 50  
 Widerszal-Bazyl, M. 37, 114  
 Wieczorkowska-Nejtardt, G. 91, 95, 97  
 Wieczorkowska-Wierzbińska, G. 117  
 Wierzbiński, J. 117  
 Winnicka-Wejs, A. 40  
 Wittekind, A. 59, 62–63  
 Wojtczuk-Turek, A. 24, 97  
 worker cynicism 35  
 Wright, P.M. 24, 174  
  
 Zare, E. 73–74, 78  
 Zdziarski, M. 178  
 Zikic, J. 63, 88–89, 92  
 Zimbardo, P.G. 93–94