

University of Strathclyde

Department of Work, Employment and Organisation

**From Welfare to Work: The Impact of the Jobseeker-Adviser
Relationship on Objective Employment Outcomes**

Joanna Theresa Butler

**Submitted in Fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy**

2020

DECLARATION OF AUTHENTICITY AND AUTHOR'S RIGHTS

This thesis is the result of the author's original research. It has been composed by the author and has not been previously submitted for examination which has led to the award of a degree.

The copyright of this thesis belongs to the author under the terms of the United Kingdom Copyright Acts as qualified by University of Strathclyde Regulation 3.50. Due acknowledgement must always be made of the use of any material contained in, or derived from, this thesis.

Signed: _____

Date: _____

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank the organisations, advisers and clients who participated in this research. Thank you to my supervisors, Professor Colin Lindsay and Professor Dora Scholarios, for their guidance and feedback. Now that I've forgiven her for convincing me to do a PhD, I'm also grateful to Dr Pauline Anderson for her encouragement and support. Finally, endless thanks to my mother, Marlene, for absolutely everything.

ABSTRACT

Employability research investigated within the context of welfare-to-work has predominantly been approached from a social policy or economic background. Resultant employability frameworks conceptualise the influence of supply- and demand-side variables on individual employment outcomes, more recently acknowledging the ‘enabling’ influence of government-led employability programmes on individual outcomes. However, despite policy literature professing the importance of the Personal Adviser in delivering tailored advice and guidance to long-term unemployed jobseekers attending employability programmes, their relationship with their jobseeker has been under-researched as a factor influencing employment outcomes. This thesis attempts to address that gap by suggesting that employability may be an individual outcome, but it is often the result of a collaborative effort.

Situated within social exchange theory, this thesis examines the impact of the jobseeker-adviser psychological contract, in combination with a range of employability factors, in determining objective employment outcomes during the first six months of their social exchange. Hypotheses are tested using multi-source data obtained from jobseekers and advisers over two measurement phases. Phase 1 provides insight into 102 jobseeker-adviser dyads, with objective outcome data provided at Phase 2 for all dyads. Regression analysis demonstrates that key employability components predict objective employment outcomes; but so does the jobseeker-

adviser psychological contract, specifically mutuality of jobseeker obligations. Measures of employability progression and psychological contract breach are captured and analysed at Phase 2, but with a smaller sample size of 42 jobseeker-adviser dyads; thus, not allowing for substantive generalisations to be made. Overall, findings highlight the importance of the jobseeker-adviser social exchange as a factor influencing employment outcomes, and as the first empirical thesis to test these hypotheses, further research directions can provide additional insight in the importance of social exchange in a welfare-to-work setting.

CONTENTS

	Page
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION 1
1.1 FOCUS AND OBJECTIVES OF THESIS 2
1.2 THE SCOPE OF RESEARCH 4
1.2.1. Employability frameworks and the importance of ‘enabling support’ 4
1.2.2. The role of the adviser in enabling employability outcomes 7
1.2.3. Social exchange: the jobseeker-adviser relationship 9
1.3. RESEARCH FRAMEWORK AND DESIGN 13
1.4. CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE 15
1.5. OUTLINE OF THE THESIS 17
CHAPTER TWO: THE INFLUENCE OF EMPLOYABILITY VARIABLES ON JOBSEEKER EMPLOYMENT OUTCOMES	19
2.1. THE CONCEPTUAL EVOLUTION OF EMPLOYABILITY 20
2.1.1. Employability focus: supply and demand 21
2.1.2. Responsibility for individual employability 22
2.1.3. Employability progression as an outcome measure 25
2.2. EMPLOYABILITY FRAMEWORKS RELEVANT TO LONG-TERM UNEMPLOYED JOBSEEKERS 27
2.3. ENABLING SUPPORT FACTORS: THE ROLE OF LABOUR MARKET INTERMEDIARIES IN DEVELOPING JOBSEEKER EMPLOYABILITY 38
2.3.1. Labour market policy: activation and the growth of conditionality 38
2.3.2. Individual factors attributes to labour market success 47
2.3.3. Personal circumstances affecting labour market success 61
2.3.4. External factors influencing labour market success 69
2.3.5 ‘Enabling support’ to facilitate the employability journey 76
2.4. GAPS IN EXISTING EMPLOYABILITY FRAMEWORKS 78
2.5. CHAPTER CONCLUSIONS 79
CHAPTER THREE: JOBSEEKER-ADVISER SOCIAL EXCHANGE: IMPLICATIONS FOR EMPLOYABILITY 81
3.1 SOCIAL EXCHANGE THEORY: THE CONCEPTUAL FOUNDATION FOR EVALUATING THE JOBSEEKER-ADVISER RELATIONSHIP 82
3.2. SOCIAL EXCHANGE: THE IMPORTANCE OF THE ADVISER 84
3.2.1. The importance of personalisation 84

3.2.2. How interactions are formed and perpetuated: a personalisation perspective	87
3.2.3. The problem with personalisation in practice	89
3.2.4. How interactions are formed and perpetuated: the importance of the jobseeker-adviser relationship	96
3.3. MEASURING SOCIAL EXCHANGE THROUGH THE PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT	104
3.3.1. Contexts for psychological contract research: not a workplace monopoly	106
3.3.2. Considerations to be made in the investigation of the psychological contract in a welfare-to-work setting	109
3.4. CHAPTER CONCLUSIONS	125
CHAPTER FOUR: CONCEPTUAL AND RESEARCH FRAMEWORK	127
4.1. DEVELOPMENT OF A REVISED EMPLOYABILITY FRAMEWORK	127
4.2. RESEARCH FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT	131
4.3. CHAPTER CONCLUSIONS	140
CHAPTER FIVE: METHODOLOGY	141
5.1. RESEARCH APPROACH	142
5.2. RESEARCH DESIGN	144
5.3. SAMPLING STRATEGY AND SAMPLE DESCRIPTION	148
5.3.1. Sampling Strategy	148
5.3.2. Sample Description: Advisers at Phase 1 and Phase 2	152
5.3.3. Sample Description: Clients at Phase 1 and Phase 2	155
5.3.4. Sample Description: Organisations	160
5.3.5. Characteristics of employment entered	161
5.3.6. Sample Representativeness	163
5.4. DESIGN OF QUESTIONNAIRE	164
5.4.1. Step 1: Review Employability frameworks	165
5.4.2. Step 2: Review Provider Data	166
5.4.3. Step 3: Design Questionnaires with Antecedent and Employability Variables	167
5.4.4. Step 4: Design Questionnaire with Psychological Contract Variables	170
5.5. DATA COLLECTION: SURVEY DISTRIBUTION ACROSS TWO PHASES	172
5.5.1. Pre-test of data collection tool (November 2015)	172
5.5.2. Phase 1 Data Collection (January 2016 – June 2016)	173
5.5.3. Phase 2 Data Collection (July 2016 – January 2017)	174
5.6. MEASURES	174
5.6.1. Employability Index	175

5.6.2. Subjective Employability: Adviser Perception of Client Employability	178
5.6.3. Mutuality and Reciprocity	179
5.6.4. Psychological Contract Breach	181
5.6.5. Dependent Variables	182
5.6.6. Antecedent and control variables	183
5.7. DESCRIPTION OF MEASURES ACROSS CLIENT AND ADVISER QUESTIONNAIRES	189
5.7.1. Client Questionnaires	189
5.7.2. Adviser Questionnaires	207
5.8. ANALYTICAL STRATEGY	211
5.8.1. Data Analysis	212
5.8.2. Test of survey reliability and validity	215
5.9. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS	216
5.10. RESEARCH LIMITATIONS	217
5.11. CHAPTER CONCLUSIONS	221
CHAPTER SIX: FINDINGS: EMPLOYABILITY FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE OBJECTIVE OUTCOMES	223
6.1. THE IMPORTANCE OF EMPLOYABILITY: SIGNIFICANT VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH ENTERING EMPLOYMENT	224
6.1.1. Variables (not included in the EI) associated with entering employment	224
6.1.2. Variables (included in the EI) associated with entering employment	233
6.1.3. Advisers' subjective assessment of client employability	238
6.1.4. Summary of results relating to entering employment	239
6.2. EMPLOYABILITY PROGRESSION: THE OTHER SIDE OF EMPLOYMENT OUTCOMES	240
6.2.1. Variables associated with employability progression	241
6.2.2. Significant changes in employability from Phase 1 to Phase 2	245
6.2.3. Summary of results relating to employability progression	248
6.3. HYPOTHESES TESTING	248
6.3.1. Test of Hypothesis 1: the role of employability in entering employment	248
6.3.2. Test of Hypothesis 2: the role of employability on employability progression	250
6.3.3. Test of Hypothesis 3: the significance of a dedicated adviser	251
6.4. CHAPTER CONCLUSIONS	251
CHAPTER SEVEN: FINDINGS: THE INFLUENCE OF THE CLIENT-ADVISER RELATIONSHIP ON OBJECTIVE EMPLOYMENT OUTCOMES	253

7.1. INDIVIDUAL-LEVEL ANALYSIS: DESCRIPTIVE SUMMARY OF PERCEIVED CLIENT AND ADVISER OBLIGATIONS AT PHASE 1	254
7.2. DYAD-LEVEL ANALYSIS: DESCRIPTIVE SUMMARY OF MUTUALITY AND RECIPROCITY AT PHASE 1	260
7.2.1. An exploration of reciprocity	261
7.2.2. An exploration of mutuality	263
7.2.3. Mutuality: a comparison of client and adviser obligations	265
7.3. INDIVIDUAL-LEVEL ANALYSIS: DESCRIPTIVE SUMMARY OF PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT BREACH AT PHASE 2	271
7.4. HYPOTHESES TESTING	272
7.4.1. Hypothesis 4: the influence of mutuality on employment outcomes	272
7.4.2. Hypothesis 5: the influence of reciprocity on employment outcomes	273
7.4.3. Hypothesis 6: the impact of psychological contract breach on outcomes	274
7.4.4. Summary of results relating to psychological contract variables	277
7.5. CHAPTER CONCLUSIONS	278
CHAPTER EIGHT: FINDINGS: PREDICTORS OF EMPLOYMENT OUTCOMES	279
8.1. IDENTIFYING PREDICTORS OF EMPLOYMENT SUCCESS THROUGH REGRESSION ANALYSIS	280
8.2. CHAPTER CONCLUSIONS	288
CHAPTER NINE: DISCUSSION	289
9.1. THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS	294
9.1.1. Employability and Employment	294
9.1.2. Employability Progression	302
9.1.3. What (should) work in welfare-to-work	309
9.1.4. Jobseeker-adviser relationship	313
9.2. A REVISED EMPLOYABILITY FRAMEWORK	326
9.3. CHAPTER CONCLUSIONS	329
CHAPTER TEN: CONCLUSION	331
UNDERSTANDING THE FACTORS INFLUENCING UNEMPLOYED JOBSEEKERS' EMPLOYABILITY OUTCOMES	
10.1. REVISITING RESEARCH OBJECTIVES	332
10.2. CONTRIBUTION	337
10.2.1. Theoretical and Empirical	337
10.2.2. Methodological	338
10.2.3. Policy and Practice	338
10.3. OPPORTUNITIES FOR FUTURE RESEARCH	341

REFERENCES	346
APPENDICES	393
Appendix 1: Twenty Years of Welfare-to-Work Policy and Employability (UK)	393
Appendix 2: The Work Programme (WP)	395
Appendix 3: Participant information sheet and consent form	396
Appendix 4: Client Questionnaire (Phase 1)	399
Appendix 5: Adviser Questionnaire (Phase 1)	404
Appendix 6: Client Questionnaire (Phase 2)	408
Appendix 7: Adviser Questionnaire (Phase 2)	412
Appendix 8: Differences in adviser characteristics across provider organisations	415
Appendix 9: Differences in client characteristics across provider organisations	417
Appendix 10: Employability Index Components, Scaling, Reliability, Source and Phase	418
Appendix 11: Tests of multicollinearity as demonstrated by VIF scores at final iteration	422
Appendix 12: Factor Analysis of Measures used in regression: Antecedents, Employability Index, Mutuality and Reciprocity	423
Appendix 13: Employment outcomes for the client sample (N = 102)	424
Appendix 14: Bivariate Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients (r) matrix for variables across adviser sample (N=27)	431
Appendix 15: Employment Outcomes across mutuality (reported as the mean differences)	432
Appendix 16: Employment Outcomes across reciprocity (reported as the mean differences)	432

LIST OF FIGURES AND TABLES

FIGURES

Title	Page
3.1. Box 3.1: The Adviser Role 85
3.2. Box 3.2: Categorisation of jobseekers 88
4.1. Summary structure of existing employability frameworks 129
4.2. Revised Employability Framework (Butler, 2020) 129
4.3. Conceptual framework of a jobseeker's employability journey 131
4.4. Conceptual framework and research hypotheses for exploring employment outcomes of unemployed jobseekers attending the Work Programme 133
5.1. Research design aligned to Work Programme processes across Phase 1 and Phase 2 146
5.2. Process for designing the research questionnaire 165
6.1. A summary diagram of antecedent and employability variables influencing employment outcomes 229
6.2. Differences between employment outcomes and employability progression outcomes (frequency) 242
6.3. A summary diagram of factors influencing employability progression outcomes 244
6.4. Difference in Employment Outcomes based on EI scores 249
6.5. Difference in Employability Progression based on EI scores 250
7.1. Hierarchy of obligations as rated by clients and advisers 255
7.2. A summary diagram of psychological contract factors influencing employability progression outcomes 259
7.3. Mean difference across client and adviser responses to initial assessments of psychological contract content (AOQ and COQ) 260
7.4. Mean difference in reciprocity (dyad-level analysis) compared to individual-level items 263
7.5. Mean difference in mutuality (dyad-level analysis) compared to individual-level items 264
7.6. Difference in perceived psychological contract breach based on outcome measures 277
8.1. A summary diagram of antecedent, employability and psychological contract factors predicting employment outcomes 284
8.2. Box and Whisker Figure for significant β values from binary logistic regression 285

8.3. Box and Whisker Figure for significant Odds Ratio ((Exp(β)) values from binary logistic regression	286
9.1. Overall significant results linked to employment outcomes – from univariate and multivariate tests	292
9.2. Revised Employability Framework (Butler, 2020)	329

TABLES

Title		Page
2.1. Summary of employability variables captured across key employability frameworks	33
3.1. Psychological contract content: employer and employee obligations relative to the obligations of Work Programme clients and advisers	113
4.1. List of all research hypotheses	139
5.1. Sample description for the adviser: demographic characteristics (%)	153
5.2. Sample description for the adviser: experience in the welfare-to-work sector (years)	153
5.3. Sample description for the adviser: self-reported performance across key indicators and objective performance outcome data (%)	154
5.4. Sample description for the adviser: Perceptions of their organisation (%)	155
5.5. Sample description of the client at Phase 1 and Phase 2 (%)	158
5.6. Description of jobs obtained: number of jobs, time taken to enter employment, duration employed (N = 54)	161
5.7. Client Employment Outcome by Sector (%) (N=102)	162
5.8. Summary of measures and data source at Phase 1 and Phase 2	175
5.9. List of items and their rating scale captured in the Employability Index	177
5.10. Calculations to measure Reciprocity and Mutuality	181
5.11. List of antecedent variables not included in the Employability Index, with their data source and collection phase	185
5.12. List of variables included in the Employability Index, with their data source and collection phase	186

5.13. List of employability variables not measured in the Employability Index	188
5.14. List of psychological contract variables, the source for measures of Mutuality, Reciprocity and Psychological Contract Breach	188
5.15. Factor Analysis Results to reduce person-centred variables	198
5.16. Psychological contract content: obligations of a client and adviser	205
6.1. Bivariate Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients matrix for variables associated with employability outcomes	228
6.2. Employment outcomes for the client sample: Phase 1 Antecedents (N=102) (%)	230
6.3. Employment outcomes for the client sample: Phase 1 Employability Index Items (N=102) (%)	231
6.4. Employment outcomes for the client sample: Phase 1 Subjective Measure of Proximity to Employment (N=102) (Mean, SD)	232
6.5. Employment outcomes for the client sample: Phase 2 Enabling Support Items (%)	232
6.6. Significant differences across antecedent, employability and psychological contract variables across employability progression outcomes	243
6.7. Summary table of significant changes from Phase 1 to Phase 2 across client sample (N = 44)	247
7.1. Bivariate Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients matrix for variables associated with employability outcomes, including psychological contract measures	256
7.2. Agreement between adviser and client response to COQ – mean and ICC	269
7.3. Agreement between adviser and client response to AOQ – mean and ICC	270
7.4. Employment outcomes significantly associated with items demonstrating mutuality	271
7.5. Differences across psychological contract variables (reciprocity, mutuality and breach) and employment outcomes	275
8.1. Hierarchical regression analyses examining the effects of employability and psychological contract variables on employment outcomes (Phase 1)	282

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Employability is at the forefront of policymakers' attempts to improve the labour market opportunities of long-term unemployed jobseekers. Enabled by Government-commissioned welfare-to-work policy and active labour market programmes (across the United Kingdom and Europe), employability programmes are the vehicle by which jobseekers are able to develop the skills and manage the barriers that preclude them from participating in the labour market. While there is inconclusive evidence as to 'what works' to support jobseekers into employment, much of the associated literature promotes the value of the personalised support provided by a dedicated Personal Employment Adviser (hereafter referred to as *adviser*). Set within this context, this thesis investigates the labour market outcomes of long-term unemployed jobseekers influenced by (1) their employability and (2) their relationship with their adviser. The first section of this chapter will justify the focus and objectives of this thesis, before outlining the literature that has helped inform the hypotheses under investigation and subsequent research methodology adopted to achieve the research objectives. Finally, this chapter will conclude with a summary of the proposed contributions to knowledge, before setting out the structure for the remainder of the thesis.

1.1. FOCUS AND OBJECTIVES OF THESIS

Deemed a necessary mechanism to support marginalised, disadvantaged jobseekers into the labour market, *employability* has been a central paradigm in attempts made by policymakers' in the United Kingdom and Europe to improve social inclusion and economic stability through full employment (Department for Education and Employment (DfEE), 1998; Freud, 2007; Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), 1998; Portes & Reed, 2018). Indeed, the Government throughout the years have commissioned employability programmes to meet welfare-to-work policy agendas designed to develop individual employability amongst jobseekers often deemed 'hard to help' (Department for Work and Pensions (DWP), 2012) (See Appendix 1 for a timeline of welfare-to-work in the UK). Commissioned by the DWP, public, private and voluntary organisations deliver such employability programmes in the role of Labour Market Intermediary (LMI) or welfare-to-work provider. The role of the LMI is two-fold: (1) to develop long-term unemployed jobseeker into future employees and (2) to manage the conditionality set out for each jobseeker (Dall & Danneris, 2019; Evans, 2001; Freud, 2007; Johansson, 2007; Williams, 2015). The latter reflects the set of obligations each jobseeker must fulfil to receive financial support in the form of benefits, with non-compliance resulting in the threat of sanctions (i.e. reduction or removal of benefits) (Peck & Theodore, 2000). One of these employability programmes, the Work Programme, is the focus of this empirical study in this thesis. A summary of the Work Programme can be found in Appendix 2.

Much of the literature surrounding employability within a welfare-to-work environment has come from a social policy perspective or exists within evaluations of government-led employability programmes attempting to identify effective methods for helping jobseekers to obtain employment. These reviews and evaluations, however, are often carried out in isolation from associated academic research. Emerging from a review of both social policy and academic literature are conceptualisations of employability which, while comprehensive, pay limited reference to the components of employability which demonstrate its holistic and dynamic nature and neglect to explain how advisers shape the employability of the jobseekers they support through the provision of information, advice, and guidance. These omissions exist despite a wealth of literature which identifies the importance of the adviser in delivering tailored support to meet the on-going and evolving needs of jobseekers.

Employability consists of multiple and interrelated complex components; in turn, it is impossible to homogenise the delivery of support across employability programmes. Therefore, much has been made of the value that personalised, dedicated support from an adviser has in delivering a tailored service to jobseekers with varying barriers to employment (Needham, 2011; van Berkel & Valkenburg, 2007). Despite the importance placed on both personalised support and the jobseeker-adviser interaction, advisers are under-researched and ‘underexposed’ as a factor influencing the effectiveness of the employability programmes they are delivering (Dall & Danneris 2019; Rosholm, 2014; Nothdurfter, 2016; van Berkel, 2013). Specifically, there is limited research into the impact of the jobseeker-adviser relationship on employability outcomes (van Berkel & Valkenburg, 2007). Where research exists,

personalisation and the role of the adviser has often been described in terms of discretionary services offered by an adviser, explored through qualitative methods rather than operationalised to predict or explain how that exchange determines employability outcomes (Lipsky, 1980; McNeil, 2009; Millar, 2000; Rosenthal & Peccei, 2006a, 2006b; Toerien, Sainsbury, Drew & Irvine, 2013; van Berkel, 2013).

These omissions from existing employability frameworks warranted further investigation, and thus the jobseeker-adviser relationship as an employability variable influencing labour market outcomes is the focus of this thesis. The objectives of this thesis emerged as follows:

- (1) Identify factors that significantly influence the employment outcomes of jobseekers attending the Work Programme;
- (2) Add to an emerging body of research investigating employability progression as an outcome of welfare-to-work programme delivery;
- (3) Examine whether employment outcomes are impacted by the jobseeker-adviser relationship.

1.2. THE SCOPE OF RESEARCH

1.2.1 Employability Frameworks and The Importance of ‘Enabling Support’

Chapter 2 sets out the concept of employability. Employability is a multi-

dimensional concept, influenced by a myriad of factors, and for those jobseekers who have multiple disadvantages and co-existing barriers, it can potentially make them ‘harder to help’ into employment (Berthoud, 2003; DWP, 2012). Without a set operationalisation of the term ‘employability’, specifically for long-term unemployed jobseekers, this thesis adopts the following definition pertinent to the population:

Employability is concerned with the management and interaction of internal and external factors impacting an individual’s ability to seek, obtain and retain employment, as well as progress towards, or within, employment. (Butler, 2020).

A review of employability frameworks developed over the past 20 years elucidates key factors impacting individual employability demonstrating similar themes surrounding the impact of knowledge, skills, attitude, ‘assets’, and socioeconomic factors on employability and employment outcomes (Berthoud, 2003, 2009; Fugate, Kinicki, & Ashforth, 2004; Hillage & Pollard, 1998). McQuaid and Lindsay (2005) advanced previous frameworks by acknowledging the influence of external factors (e.g. labour demand) on employability outcomes. However, crucially, Green et al. (2013) have emphasised that macro-level factors (i.e. welfare regime and labour market policy) and LMIs are important enablers of individual employability and employment outcomes. This addition to previous frameworks is an important response to the debates which suggest the onus is on the individual to improve their employability; a feat not always achievable for disadvantaged jobseekers. For long-term unemployed jobseekers, Green et al. (2013, p.21) suggest employability is a

‘collective endeavour’ whereby the Government and the LMI act as ‘enabling support’ influencing employment outcomes – for better or worse.

LMIIs deliver personalised services to jobseekers which are driven by active labour market policies, such as conditionality. While conditionality – in the form of incentives and sanctions – was a pervasive feature of previous incarnations of welfare-to-work policy in practice, it has irrefutably heightened in recent years (Daguerre & Etherington, 2019) as the Conservative-led Coalition Government’s Welfare Reform Act (2012) introduced stricter sanctions to incentivise claimants into employment. However, there are mixed reviews on whether sanctions encourage jobseekers into employment (Oakley, 2014; Pickles, Holmes, Titley & Dobson, 2016; Reeve, 2017) or disadvantage them further (Beatty & Fothergill, 2013; Lindsay & Houston, 2013; Patrick 2017; Reeves & Loopstra, 2017). Overall, it is suggested that enforcement of conditionality fails to consider barriers which are not work-related (Theodore & Peck, 2001).

Finally, Chapter 2 addresses the failure of the UK Government to measure employability programmes not only by quantifiable outcomes, such as ‘job starts’, but the progression a jobseeker makes on their dynamic and gradual journey to employment. Jobseekers with multiple complex barriers to employment, such as ill-health, caring responsibilities, or literacy issues, require different support, can often end up at the back of the ‘queue for jobs’ (Beatty, Fothergill & MacMillan., 2000, p.621), while those with ‘high’ levels of employability enter employment (Fugate et al., 2004). There is a growing body of literature surrounding the progression - or

‘distance travelled’ - a jobseeker can make towards employment through the measurement of softer outcomes, such as health management, improved self-efficacy, social inclusion and engagement (Blades, Fauth & Gibb, 2012). Nevertheless, policymakers have historically prioritised the creation of a skilled workforce as a solution to unemployment – from obtaining technical qualifications to soft skills (such as interpersonal and communication skills) (Blades et al., 2012; DfEE, 1998). However, skills development alone is a narrow point of focus in measuring ‘distance travelled’ considering the holistic nature of employability, which includes factors such as ill-health, caring responsibilities, social relationships and financial independence (Green et al., 2013). Thus, a more holistic measure of employability progression is required.

1.2.2. The Role of the Adviser in Enabling Employability Outcomes

Chapter 3 builds on the notion that employability is a ‘collective endeavour’ (Green et al., 2013), but contends that enabling support comes from advisers at the frontline instead of LMIs at an organisational level. In a review of employability programmes over the past 20 years, there is one key factor highlighted as crucial to their success: the personalised support that a jobseeker receives from their dedicated adviser (Haughton, Jones, Peck, Tickell & White, 2000; McNeil, 2009; Millar, 2000; van Berkel & Valkenburg, 2007). As employability is made up of multiple components, all with varying weights and influences depending on the individual, the adviser is the one constant in a potentially changeable employability context. Without an adviser offering the information, advice and guidance (IAG) required to overcome barriers and

navigate the labour market, the jobseeker might not be able to make any headway towards employment. However, it is the quality of the interaction between an adviser and their jobseeker, as co-producers of personalised support, that is critical to producing employability outcomes (Rosenthal & Peccei, 2006a; Toerien et al., 2013; van Berkel & Valkenburg, 2007).

Research describes the challenge of implementing personalisation is in practice, with a spotlight on adviser discretion delivered at ‘street-level’ (Lipsky, 1980, 2010; Nothdurfter, 2016; Rosenthal et al., 2006). Constrained by conditionality, performance expectations, and the advisers’ knowledge and skills, discretion is often ungoverned and influenced by the jobseeker’s ‘compliance’ with the programme, allowing advisers to “play a key role in providing or denying access to welfare state provisions” (van Berkel, van der Aa & van Gestel, 2010, p. 449). The outcome of this behaviour was demonstrated in a recent Work Programme evaluation, whereby jobseekers were less concerned about personalisation and more concerned about their relationship with their adviser, more precisely, what they did or did not receive by way of expected support (Meager, Newton, Sainsbury, Corden & Irvine, 2014; Newton et al., 2012). What emerges is a tension between expectations and reality that are often difficult to manage and can inhibit the delivery of effective services to jobseekers in need, and the engagement of jobseekers (Patmore, 2008; Rice, Fuertes & Monticelli, 2018; Toerien et al., 2013). As the quality of interaction between two parties guides appropriate IAG activities, employability may be an individual outcome, but it is often the result of a collaborative effort.

Central to this thesis is the argument that the jobseeker-adviser relationship can contribute to employability outcomes, with the quality of the relationship an adviser cultivates with their jobseeker critical in producing employability outcomes, and arguably as important as any other employability variable set out in Chapter 2. Yet, while research describes personalisation, advisers are under-researched as a factor influencing the effectiveness of the programmes they are delivering (van Berkel, 2013). Moreover, there is limited research into the impact of the jobseeker-adviser relationship on employability outcomes (van Berkel & Valkenburg, 2007). The ‘relationship’ has not been operationalised to predict or explain how this may impact the jobseeker’s employability journey. Utilising social exchange and the overarching theory by which to investigate the relationship between the jobseeker and adviser, the concept of the psychological contract, with its predictive power (Guest & Conway, 2002), can be used as a means of operationalising the jobseeker-adviser relationship.

1.2.3. Social Exchange: The Jobseeker-Adviser Relationship

Evidence is inconclusive in regard to ‘what works’ to move long-term unemployed jobseekers closer to the labour market (Dall & Danneris, 2019). However, when considerable attention is paid to what happens at street level, the effectiveness of employability programmes can be understood through the personal interactions and social exchange between advisers and jobseekers (Dall & Danneris, 2019). Moreover, Sok, Blomme, and Trompa (2013) suggest that employability is an outcome of the exchange process and found that the psychological contract can explain variance among self-perceived employability. Therefore, Chapter 3 sets out the concept of the

psychological contract and the appropriateness of its application within a welfare-to-work setting – a new context for psychological contract research. With roots in social exchange theory and the social norm of reciprocity (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004; Rousseau, 1989) a psychological contract is a subjective belief regarding the exchange of mutual obligations between two parties, based on perceived promises and judged on contributions (Rousseau, 1989). Traditionally investigated within an occupational context (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005), the context for investigating psychological contracts is no longer a workplace monopoly but includes academic settings and volunteering organisations (Bordia, Bordia, Restubog, 2015; Bordia, Restubog, Bordia & Tang, 2017; Nichols, 2013), or any setting where mutual expectations exist between two parties with the potential for a power imbalance (Guest, 1998a; Rousseau, 1998). Nevertheless, this thesis proposes that there are more similarities between the workplace and employability programmes than would initially be apparent. While the traditional ties of employment contracts do not bind jobseekers, they are bound by explicit and implicit conditions aligned to the welfare benefit they receive.

In the context of welfare-to-work, the jobseeker and the adviser are the two parties within a psychological contract whereby the dynamic between the two is impacted by compulsion and contract requirements. When a jobseeker claims benefit, they sign a contract which sets out their level of activity and the conditions for their receipt of payment. From the first day a jobseeker enters an employability programme, there is a commitment or set of obligations, or contract, created between the jobseeker and adviser which should help convey a clear message of the purpose of the programme and support on offer: however, this contract is often renegotiated

throughout the jobseekers' time on the programme - by both the jobseeker or adviser (Haughton et al., 2000). Without a standardised set of jobseeker or adviser conditions, or obligations, the scope for failing to meet the expectations of each party is inevitable (Conway & Briner, 2005; Guest, 1998a). As such, psychological contract breach could impact the jobseeker-adviser relationship and how each party proceeds in terms of the service offered and received. Any perceived broken promises or failure to carry out expected activities – from either party – may result in subsequent negative individual and organisational outcomes, for example, failing to enter employment or reduced organisational citizenship behaviours (Patmore, 2008; Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski & Bravo, 2007).

While breach steals the limelight in empirical studies, studies of mutuality (i.e. the agreement between two parties on the specific obligations of one party) and reciprocity (i.e. the degree of perceived reciprocal exchange, made by one party) have been neglected, despite fundamentally embodying the concept's grounding in social exchange theory (Farnese, Livi, Barbieri and Schalk, 2018, p.3). Therefore, assessments of mutuality and reciprocity at the beginning of a relationship are predictive of future breach and outcomes (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004; Farnese et al., 2018; Nichols & Ojala, 2009; Vandendaele, Bruyer & Jacobs, 2016). As the title of a paper by Farnese et al. (2018) suggests, “you can see how things will end by the way they begin”. Thus, examining reciprocity and mutuality of jobseeker and adviser obligations is useful in explaining, and predicting, future breach and outcomes, especially as there is evidence to suggest that outcomes of a social exchange in employability programmes can be identified from the initial interaction (Bellis, Oakley,

Sigala & Dewson, 2011; Haughton et al., 2000; Newton et al., 2012). Therefore, investigating the social exchange between and adviser and jobseeker within a welfare-to-work context, adopting the psychological contract as the measure of exchange, is useful in explaining and predicting employability outcomes. In sum, Chapter 3 sets the foundation for understanding the nature and complexity of the jobseeker-adviser relationship as a social exchange, operationalised through the psychological contract, as a means of providing insight into how the interaction between two parties can impact employment outcomes.

In sum, interrelated complex individual factors make it impossible to homogenise support (Needham, 2011), and the jobseeker-adviser relationship is key in producing employability outcomes (Rosenthal & Peccei, 2006a; van Berkel, 2013). However, two gaps emerge from the existing research. First, for those jobseekers with complex barriers, entering employment should not be the sole measure of success, but instead improved employability, that is, employability progression should be celebrated. However, the second is the more substantial of the two gaps, is the omission of the adviser as an enabling support factor. While McQuaid and Lindsay (2005) and Green et al. (2013) have come closest to creating a framework which is relevant within the context of long-term unemployed jobseekers by considering the role of LMIs as 'enabling' support, policies are enacted at the frontline whereby interventions can either succeed or fail. While it is clear that a more comprehensive picture of the role of LMIs on individual employability is progressively emerging, the role of the adviser has yet to be included in any frameworks predicting and explaining employability outcomes. Despite policy literature highlighting the role of the adviser as vital to the delivery of

personalised services to jobseekers, and thus the effectiveness of government-led employability programmes, the jobseeker-adviser relationship has not been operationalised to predict or explain how this may impact employment outcomes. Under the umbrella of social exchange theory, the concept of the psychological contract has predictive power and can be used as a means of operationalising the relationship. Therefore, the jobseeker-adviser relationship is explored in this thesis via the concept of the psychological contract. From the literature review carried out, the following research design evolved.

1.3. RESEARCH FRAMEWORK AND DESIGN

The theoretical framework driving the research design and methodology behind this thesis is based on the following problem. The jobseeker-adviser relationship is considered key to successfully achieving employability outcomes for jobseekers on employability programmes, yet, the relationship is often described from a policy focus, while the application in practice is under-researched. Hence, the purpose of this thesis is to understand how psychological contracts, alongside employability variables, influence employment outcomes, addressing the research objectives set out in Section 1.1.

This thesis empirically tests the conceptual framework set out in Chapter 4. Specifically, the thesis develops hypotheses about the relationships between employability, psychological contracts variables (i.e. Mutuality, Reciprocity, and Psychological Contract Breach) and outcomes (i.e. entering employment and

demonstrating employability progression), adopting quantitative methods to capture measurable data. Social exchange and the development of employability occurs over time, therefore a longitudinal (repeated measures) quantitative research design was implemented (Wang et al., 2017). A two-phase research design gathered survey data from Work Programme clients¹ and advisers at two points in time, with a six-month time lag. To investigate the jobseeker-adviser relationship (i.e. jobseeker-adviser dyad) requires multi-ratings; hence, surveys were designed for both parties. This study utilised four surveys across two phases (i.e. one for the adviser and one for the client at Phase 1 and 2). The first phase was designed to baseline client employability, and allow for the exploration of specific variables across individual factors (e.g. demographic variables, person-centred factors and length of unemployment), personal circumstances (e.g. housing, dependents and social support), external factors (e.g. local labour market), and enabling factors (e.g. welfare-to-work provision).

Employability frameworks (Chapter 2) identified multiple critical employability variables linked to the likelihood of entering employment, which required the development of a parsimonious composite employability measure to aid with analysis. An Employability Index (EI) was created to measure employability and assess any changes in a Work Programme clients' employability score from Phase 1 to Phase 2 across a single measure (Chapter 5). Pertinent theoretically derived variables

¹ "Client" is the specific term referring to a long-term unemployed jobseeker attending the Work Programme (i.e. the sample population in this study). "Jobseeker" is a general term for an individual seeking employment who may or may not be claiming benefits. These terms will be used accordingly within this study.

were included in the EI if they could be altered through support from the LMI, for example, job-search confidence. Furthermore, objective employment outcome data was provided. Psychological contract measures were based on the structure, rating scales and (for the most part) the wording of existing standardised surveys, with the obligations aligned to the role of both the adviser and jobseeker.

A sample of 102 Work Programme clients and 27 advisers in Scotland, totalling 102 jobseeker-adviser dyads emerged from Phase 1. The second phase measured changes in client employability and psychological contract breach, and tested employability progression. Phase 2 data was gathered from 42 adviser-client dyads. Due to the smaller sample size, less emphasis is placed on Phase 2 data in this thesis (i.e. progression and psychological contract breach) but is explored to support any findings from Phase 1 data and also to prompt further research. Significant relationships between variables are analysed to understand, explain, and predict, the impact employability components and psychological contract variables had on employment outcomes. Tests to analyse and identify the contribution of antecedent, employability and jobseeker-adviser relationship factors to employment outcomes are outlined in Chapter 5.

1.4. CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE

This thesis contributes to knowledge across four domains: theory, methodology, policy and practice. First, although research has considered the importance of the adviser in helping jobseekers achieve labour market success, employability

frameworks have yet to include them as a critical enabling support factor influencing jobseeker employability and employment outcomes. This omission is surprising due to the proliferation of research into employment antecedents within a welfare-to-work setting which acknowledge the importance of personalisation and the role of the adviser. Furthermore, this thesis is the first to empirically test the impact of the psychological contract, in the specific context of welfare-to-work. Second, methodologically, the concept of the psychological contract can further the extant descriptive research around personalisation and the role of the adviser by adding empirical evidence to the discussion. Also, by capturing multi-source data, this study adopts a bilateral approach to measuring the perception of both the jobseeker and also the adviser – a practice often recommended, but rarely delivered (Cullinane & Dundon, 2006; Nichols, 2013). This thesis can therefore provide insight into the predictive nature of jobseeker-adviser relationship variables on employment outcomes by way of dyad-level analysis (specifically mutuality and reciprocity).

Third, the significance of this study in terms of applicability across policy lies in adding to the current activation literature vis-à-vis strategies directed towards achieving employment, and employability progression. While the Government and LMI have focussed on the importance of personalised support from a dedicated adviser, this thesis suggests personalised support may not be as important as setting expectations between two parties and fulfilling obligations. Finally, and practically, a ‘good’ adviser will clearly explain obligations and set expectations with their jobseeker from the offset (Bellis et al., 2011) and this thesis aims to provide a better understanding of that process. Understanding the content of psychological contracts

from the perspective of both parties is essential for identifying how best to build stable psychological contracts and ensure positive outcomes ensue. Moreover, by understanding how to engage with jobseekers effectively, advisers will be better able to understand the impact of their attitudes and behaviour.

1.5. OUTLINE OF THE THESIS

With the focus of this thesis aimed at understanding how jobseeker-adviser relationships, alongside employability variables, influence employment outcomes, this thesis first reviews the literature across two main domains. Chapter 2 examines the concept of employability and associated frameworks, while suggesting that progression towards employment is an alternative measure of labour market success for long-term unemployed jobseekers who may have multiple and complex barriers preventing them from entering employment. Chapter 3 emphasises the importance of the adviser in provided enabling support to jobseekers aiming to enter employment but highlights the descriptive nature of extant research which has not yet been operationalised to predict employment outcomes. Building on the gaps in previous literature Chapter 4 sets out the research framework and hypotheses upon which the subsequent methodology is based, as Chapter 5 sets out the measures and analytic strategy this thesis adopts to address the research objectives.

Findings are presented across Chapters 6, 7 and 8. Chapter 6 presents the variables associated with employment outcomes and also employability progression. Next, Chapter 7 sets out how the jobseeker-adviser relationship influences

employment outcomes. Specifically, the jobseeker-adviser relationship is explored through psychological contract variables (i.e. Mutuality, Reciprocity and Psychological Contract Breach). Chapter 8 explored the results of a binary logistic regression to identify the variables that predict whether a jobseeker will enter employment or not. Chapter 9 interprets and synthesises the results, setting them within the employability, social exchange theory and psychological contract literature. Finally, Chapter 10 concludes by summarising the contributions this thesis has made, before identifying limitations and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER TWO

THE INFLUENCE OF EMPLOYABILITY VARIABLES ON JOBSEEKER EMPLOYMENT OUTCOMES

Employability is a dynamic and multi-dimensional concept with varying definitions; therefore, developing typologies of employability is undoubtedly complex. Previous attempts to organise employability variables have resulted in multiple theoretical and empirical frameworks developed over the past two decades which emphasise that individual employability will vary dependent on demographic characteristics, attitudes and behaviours, personal circumstances, and socioeconomic factors (e.g. Fugate et al., 2004; Hillage & Pollard, 1998). However, many early frameworks were developed for a working population, overlooking long-term unemployed jobseekers, often facing multiple complex barriers to employment, who require additional support to navigate their employment journey. As a means of support, and to build economic security, government-commissioned employability programmes awarded to labour market intermediaries are designed and delivered to develop the skills of long-term unemployed jobseekers (DfEE, 1998). Thus, in this welfare-to-work context, McQuaid and Lindsay (2005) and Green et al. (2013) advance earlier frameworks in two significant ways: they emphasise the role of external factors such as labour demand on individual employability, while also remarking on the importance of ‘enabling support’ provided by LMIs as a factor influencing the employment outcomes of those jobseekers for whom they support.

The structure of this chapter is guided by the premise that employability research is not theory-driven; instead, empirical research is explained post hoc by theory (Forrier, De Cuyper & Akkermans, 2018). As such, frameworks and empirical research will be explored concurrently to identify those factors unequivocally found to influence employability and employment, drawing out the primary contrasting evidence. The section will focus on the two holistic employability frameworks, devised by McQuaid and Lindsay (2005) and Green et al. (2013), this thesis aims to develop, drawing out the main arguments and contradictions, before summarising a selection of the empirical evidence associated with employability variables comprising those frameworks. Finally, attention will be drawn to the gaps in existing frameworks. First, a summary of the definition and concept of employability.

2.1. THE CONCEPTUAL EVOLUTION OF EMPLOYABILITY

“Fragmented and fuzzy” (Forrier, Verurggen & De Cuyper, 2015, p.56), employability, like many concepts, is nebulous, contested, and lacking an agreed-upon universal definition (de Grip, van Loo & Sanders, 2004; Gazier, 1998; McQuaid, Green & Danson, 2005). Without a set operationalisation of the term, the meaning varies depending on the context in which it is used (Tamkin & Hillage, 1999; Williams, Dodd, Steele & Randall, 2016). Investigated by policymakers, academic researchers and practitioners, with interpretations made across a variety of disciplines, the conceptualisation of employability emerges with different foci (Forrier & Sels, 2003). For example, the link between employability and employment rates dominate social policy discussion; employability research from an organisational perspective will

tackle the supply of, and demand for, employability skills; and individual employability is concerned with the ability of an active jobseeker to appeal to an internal or external labour market (Thijssen, Van der Heijden & Rocco, 2008). From a labour economics perspective, Gazier (1998, 2001) highlighted the evolutionary and dynamic nature of employability, whereby at the beginning of twentieth century a ‘dichotomic’ version of employability categorised individuals as employable (able and willing) or unemployable (due to social, physical or mental barriers), to the current version of employability as ‘interactive’ whereby individual and socioeconomic factors interact to determine the employability of an individual in a given labour market. A mainstay internationally since the end of the 1980s, interactive employability signals a shift from a supply-led emphasis, with individual factors the dominant determinant of labour market success, to a ‘broader’ view of employability which acknowledges an interaction between external and internal forces (McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005). Yet, two core debates emerge amongst employability scholars: both are aligned in their polarisation of the individual from the external context within which they operate. The first weighs up the merits of a supply-side or demand-side focus on employability and the second considers who is responsible for individual employability.

2.1.1. Employability focus: supply and demand

A common occurrence amongst early employability research, and conceptualised through employability frameworks, was the adoption of a supply-side focus whereby employability is considered an individual asset that can be improved

through the development of job-search behaviours and employer-sought skills and attitudes (Fugate et al., 2004; Martin, Villeneuve-Smith, Marshall & McKenzie, 2008). Nevertheless, even by improving their employability skills, an individual has little to no control over the availability of vacancies nor employer selection and recruitment processes (Clarke & Patrickson, 2008; De Vos & Buyens, 2001). Hence, the demand-side influence on individual employability moved from the side-lines, with labour demand and employer recruitment practices acknowledged and accepted as factors influencing individual employability (de Bruin & Dupois, 2008; de Grip et al., 2004; Green et al., 2013; McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005). Moreover, Genov (2014, p. 168) argues that studies which explore the ways and means of enabling employability of unemployed individuals without addressing the influence of demand sides of the labour market on individual labour market success, present “substantial theoretical deficits in the specifications of employability”. Furthermore, external factors influencing individual employability have evolved, and devolved, to a broader discussion around where the responsibility for individual responsibility lies.

2.1.2. Responsibility for individual employability

Within ‘interactive’ employability (Gazier, 1998, 2001) the responsibility for employability remains with the individual, despite the role played by labour market competition and employer demand. Evident in much of the literature, employability is often person-centred, with the onus on the individual to increase their chances of obtaining work within the context of their current labour market by improving their skills and knowledge. Fugate et al. (2004, p.15), for example, propose that as the

“responsibility for career management and development [shifts] from employers to employees” individuals with “high levels of employability” will utilise their human and social capital to seek work in a proactive and adaptable manner and effectively navigate their local labour market to achieve their career goal. Moreover, following a comprehensive analysis of employability over the last century, de Grip et al. (2004, p.216) suggest the following:

Employability refers to the capacity and the willingness of workers to remain attractive for the labour market (supply factors), by reacting and anticipating on changes in tasks and work environment (demand factors), facilitated by the human resource development instruments offered to them (institutions).

De Grip et al. (2004, p.216) suggest that implicit in the definition is the notion that employability is a “shared responsibility” between workers and their employer organisations. However, while accepting that employability can be developed through organisational ‘facilitation’, the onus remains on the individual to ‘willingly’ seek out that support, assuming that individuals possess the knowledge to identify skills and traits valued by employers, and the initiative to address any skills gaps through workplace training or continuous professional development.

The underlying supposition within the above definition, and others (e.g. Berntson, Sverke & Marklund, 2006; Elias, Hogarth & Pierre, 2002), is that employability can only be developed by individuals already in employment.

Definitions which single out ‘workers’ and ‘employees’ overlook a section of the population often most in need of support to develop their ‘attractiveness’ to the labour market. Furthermore, Forrier et al. (2018, p.2) challenge the notion that employability is grounded in personal agency (i.e. an individual asset owned and influenced by the individual alone) but instead argue that adopting an agentic paradigm is only applicable to individuals who are already ‘highly employable’. Thus, excluding any reference to impairments or disadvantages which restrict a jobseeker's ability to embody the qualities Fugate et al. (2004) suggest are essential for ‘high employability’. By disregarding long-term unemployed jobseekers who potentially have multiple barriers to employment (for example health concerns, literacy issues, and childcare responsibilities), and placing the onus on individuals to be ‘willing’ and ‘proactive’, these definitions minimise the barriers jobseekers face and make assumptions about their to navigate supply and demand factors without support. Thus, the role of any LMI responsible for delivering employability programmes to jobseekers is to ‘manage’ and ‘support’ the development of individual employability across jobseekers who may have to contend with multiple complex barriers to employment (Scottish Executive, 2006, p.16).

Green et al.’s (2013, p.25) proposed that the enhancement of employability is a collaborative effort between jobseekers, employers, and the LMI, that is, employability is a “collective endeavour”. Also, Reid (2015, p.55) redefined employability in a Higher Education context as “something to be achieved”, the outcome of a process beyond person-centred factors, situated within the individuals’ context (i.e. demographical, cultural, and geographical), and ‘enabled’ by the

Government and management in by providing students with opportunities and finance by which to improve their chances of future employment. Therefore, for long-term unemployed jobseekers who may lack the wherewithal to develop their own skills or navigate the labour market, the Government and LMI cannot abdicate responsibility to jobseekers who may not know how to improve their employability, nor be able to manage and circumstantial or external barriers to employment.

2.1.3. Employability progression as an outcome measure

Employability success for the Government and LMIs is predominantly measured as jobseekers' successful navigation of the labour market into employment as the final destination. However, employment is not the only outcome associated with improved employability, but for long-term unemployed jobseekers facing multiple complex barriers, progression towards employment is a more appropriate employability outcome. There is an evolving, yet under-researched, interest in 'distance travelled', or 'unemployment trajectories', as a measure of the progression jobseekers make towards employment (Blades et al., 2012; Danneris, 2018).

Jobseekers with ill-health, caring responsibilities, or literacy issues require different support and often end up at the back of the 'jobs queue' (Beatty, Fothergill, Houston, Powell & Sissons, 2009). For jobseekers to enter employment, many potential barriers have to be overcome, some of which are more salient than others at different junctures on their journey (Danneris, 2018). As such, to get to the front of the 'jobs queue' there may be steps required to develop the qualities that employers seek,

and the jobseekers should exit any employability programme more employable than when they started. These steps, as well as hard outcomes, should be recognised as a successful employability outcome. 'Distance' can be viewed as the change in soft outcomes, such as a change in variables which are often crucial in the success of hard outcomes (Crabbe, 2006), evidenced by hard outcomes in addition to soft interim outcomes achieved on the way to gaining employment (Blades et al., 2012; Dewson, Eccles, Tackey & Jackson, 2000; Lloyd & O'Sullivan, 2003). While 'distance travelled' can be used in various guises to discuss progression – either as the outcome or the measure itself – within this thesis the terms 'progression' or 'employability progression' will be used instead of 'distance travelled', with any deviations noted.

Policymakers have historically emphasised the creation of a skilled workforce as a solution to unemployment, and much of the 'distance travelled' evaluations surround skills development – from technical qualifications to soft skills (Blades et al., 2012). However, considering the holistic nature of employability, soft skills attainment (with indicators such as interpersonal and communication skills) and changes across perceived barriers linked to ill-health, social relationships and financial independence also demonstrate the trajectory towards employment and acts as a potential precursor to sustainable employment (e.g. Blades et al., 2012; Green et al., 2013). Examples of progression measures in the UK have included, for example, the change in perceived barriers over six months captured across the Working For Families Fund (McQuaid, Bond & Fuertes, 2009); a change in key work skills and personal attributes as demonstrated in the WORKSTEP project (Purvis, Lowrey & Dodds, 2006) and Neighbourhood Support Fund (Evison & Roe, 2009). Therefore, understanding

employability progression is important as a means of rewarding LMIs for jobseeker progression but also a view to understanding the unemployment trajectories jobseekers experience within the labour market, either towards or away from employment (Dewson et al., 2000; Danneris, 2018).

In sum, despite varying meanings, employability is concerned with an individual's ability to gain initial employment, retain that role or remain within that organisation, and also transition through roles and between organisations, but within the confines of other characteristics and barriers (skills and health impairments) as well as external factors (labour market) (Green et al., 2013; McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005). Thus, this thesis adopts the following definition of employability:

Employability is concerned with the management and interaction of internal and external factors impacting an individual's ability to seek, obtain and retain employment, as well as progress towards, or within, employment. (Butler, 2020).

This definition captures the dynamic employability journey jobseekers' traverse towards employment, enabled by the support of the employability programme they attend which help them 'manage' their barriers. The next part of this chapter will explore key employability variables and their role in a long-term unemployed jobseekers' trajectory towards employment.

2.2. EMPLOYABILITY FRAMEWORKS RELEVANT TO LONG-TERM UNEMPLOYED JOBSEEKERS

Employability frameworks over the past 20 years have emerged as a means to study or predict employment outcomes, proposing comparable themes surrounding the impact of knowledge, skills, attitudes, and socioeconomic factors on individual employability (Berthoud, 2003, 2009; Dacre-Pool & Sewell, 2007; de Grip et al., 2004; Fugate et al., 2004; Hillage & Pollard, 1998). Pertinent to the context of long-term unemployed jobseekers in the UK, two key frameworks are presented below. McQuaid and Lindsay (2005) addressed gaps in earlier supply-led frameworks by describing a more holistic set of employability variables within their framework, expanding previous frameworks to include labour market demand and government welfare-to-work policy as crucial factors in the development of individual employability. Then Green et al. (2013) further expanded the McQuaid and Lindsay (2005) framework, placing greater emphasis on the importance of government programmes and interventions to support jobseekers to obtain sustainable employment.

McQuaid and Lindsay (2005) progressed previous frameworks by examining employability in the context of labour market policy, identifying two views of employability. The ‘narrow’ view recognises individuals as responsible for their labour market success. In contrast, the ‘broad’ view considers the context within which individuals are seeking employment, acknowledging that employer demand and competition across labour supply can alter the employability skills and attributes an employer may seek from a candidate – thus making individuals with a particular skillset more employable than their competition within the labour market they seek work. Proposing a wide range of factors and barriers to employment which will determine an individual’s journey within the labour market, McQuaid and Lindsay’s

(2005) framework consists of three interrelated components which together contribute to the employability of an individual: individual factors; personal circumstances; and external factors. Thus, individual and circumstantial factors, as well as labour market demand, influence individual employability. First, individual factors capture, for example, (1) essential attributes (e.g. basic social skills and self-discipline); (2) personal competencies and attributes (e.g. initiative and confidence); and (3) key transferable skills (including literacy, adaptability, time management and interpersonal).

Next, personal circumstances incorporate the household and caring responsibilities and access to resources, be it financial, transport or social capital. Unlike previous supply-side frameworks, McQuaid and Lindsay (2005) emphasise the impact personal circumstances can have on the uptake of employment. Whereas a jobseeker may be employable in one context, specific circumstances could moderate their willingness and ability to accept an offer of employment: for example, constraints such as childcare or transport issues may inhibit the uptake of a specific role in a specific geography, despite an employment offer, highlighting that socioeconomic variables are powerful predictors of obtaining employment (Canduela, Lindsay, Raeside & Graham, 2015). Finally, external factors relate to local labour demand and recruitment factors. The authors suggest that when an individual is in employment, employers influence individual employability, by offering, or not, the opportunity for development through training and by providing a learning culture. At a macro-level, welfare regimes and labour market policies can impact employer recruitment processes and the delivery of government contracts in practice. As such, McQuaid and

Lindsay's (2005) framework considers the individual at the centre of a broader structure influencing their employability.

In a social inclusion report for the European Commission, Green et al. (2013) developed an employability framework which adhered to the McQuaid and Lindsay (2005) version, with the addition of external variables and making some crucial distinctions. At this point, it is worth highlighting the summary of all employability variables referred to within the existing employability framework set out in Table 2.1. Initially populated with content from Green et al. (2013), which is, thus far, the most comprehensive composition of employability variables across both supply- and demand-side variables, variables from earlier frameworks are also included, including McQuaid and Lindsay (2005). Individual factors and personal circumstances are similar across most frameworks. Individual factors include variables with Green et al. (2013) listing dimensions such as economic position or labour market attachment; employability skills and attributes (e.g. social skills, self-efficacy and basic transferable skills for example literacy and numeracy); disposition to enhancing employability (i.e. attitudes to education, networking and unpaid employment); and labour market and job-seeking knowledge skills (e.g. awareness of employer recruitment practices). These variables are comparable to the 'willing', 'able' and 'proactive' components of earlier frameworks that suggest person-centred factors and soft skills are critical components of "high levels of employability" (Fugate et al., 2004, p.17).

Similarly, personal circumstances include caring responsibilities, other

household circumstances and access to resources (e.g. transport, financial and social support). One distinction from the McQuaid and Lindsay (2015) framework was the emphasis on the central role of employers in individual employability highlighting the importance of both developing staff while in employment and also their recruitment and selection practices in order to attract and recruit jobseekers. A further distinction from the McQuaid and Lindsay (2005) framework is the separation of local contextual and broad macro-level factors, emphasising the importance of the local labour market for vulnerable jobseekers. Local contextual factors include features of local employment, such as the quality of jobs and numbers of vacancies in the labour market. Macro-level factors are those at Government level, for example, welfare regimes and active labour market policy (e.g. conditionality). Notably, Green et al. (2013) also place greater importance on enabling support factors, not just including it as a dimension under the heading external factors as McQuaid and Lindsay (2005) did but setting it out as an over-arching role set out to develop a jobseeker with strengths or barriers across individual factors, personal circumstances and external factors.

Enabling support factors, according to Green et al. (2013, p.103) include the “role of labour market intermediaries and support agencies in...providing support to individuals on the employability pathway”. Government employability programmes delivered by labour market intermediaries (LMI) are intended to support claimants into employment through the delivering of interventions designed to increase jobseekers’ chances of competing for jobs in the labour market and eradicate long-term unemployment, with activities on such pathways including pre-employment preparation, training provision, CV preparation and interview practice. However, with

an over-arching view, in essence, enabling support factors facilitate individual employability across all supply and demand factors associated with a jobseeker's search for employment. Yet, unlike de Grip et al.'s (2004) description of institutional 'facilitation', the institution in this context is not only the workplace but the LMI delivering employability programmes derived from active labour market policy (macro-level factors) and commissioned by the UK Government (Green et al., 2013).

As a vehicle for support, prominence is placed on the delivery of employability programmes by the LMI, delivered to address across all aspects of a jobseeker's life and environment which supports or inhibits their employability, for example, through one-to-one IAG, training, job-search support, signposting to specialist services or volunteering opportunities, as well as job matching with employers (Green et al., 2013; McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005). They also propose that the LMI is responsible for providing support for employers, enabling that match with jobseekers. Macro-economic factors, such as the welfare-to-work regime, can determine the support LMIs are offering jobseekers and thus influence the success of enabling support, thus part of the LMI's role is also to deliver welfare policy (e.g. conditionality) in practice. Specifically, LMIs are responsible for delivering personalised support to jobseekers (see Chapter 3) and the management of conditionality. However, before reviewing existing empirical evidence of the key employability variables aligned with employment outcomes, the factor considered to be critical to ensuring those outcomes are achieved will be discussed, enabling support factors.

Table 2.1. *Summary of employability variables captured across key employability frameworks*

Category	Variables	Examples	Framework Theorists				
			Hillage & Pollard (1998)	Fugate et al. (2004)	Berthoud (2003, 2009)	McQuaid & Lindsay (2005)	Green et al. (2013)
INDIVIDUAL FACTORS							
Demographic characteristics	age			x	x	x	x
	gender			x		x	x
	nationality						x
	ethnic group			x	x		x
	marital status				x		
Health and well-being	health	– physical; mental			x	x	x
	disability	– nature/ extent	x		x	x	x
Economic position or labour market attachment	(currently) in employment	– full-time; part-time; self-employed		x		x	x
	(currently) unemployed	– duration				x	x
	(currently) economically inactive	– reason and duration				x	x
	work history		x	x		x	x
Employability skills and attributes/ characteristics	essential attributes	social skills; honesty; personal presentation; reliability; willingness to work; positive attitude to work	x	x		x	x
	personal competencies	proactivity; (self-)motivation; judgment; initiative; assertiveness; confidence; self-esteem; self-efficacy; perceived employability		x		x	x
	basic transferable skills	literacy; writing; numeracy; verbal presentation; ICT skills	x		x	x	x
	key transferable skills	Interpersonal; communication; personal and time management; problem-solving; teamwork; e-skills; emotional intelligence; aesthetic	x		x	x	x

		customer service					
	high-level transferable skills	commercial awareness; vision; job-specific skills; enterprise skills; creativity	x			x	x
	qualifications	academic; vocational; job-specific	x		x	x	x
	self-awareness	diagnosing occupational interests and abilities	x				
	career identity	goals, hopes and fears; personality traits; values, beliefs and norms; role identity; occupational identity; organisational identity			x		
Disposition to enhancing employability	attitudes to education and training	commitment to lifelong learning; engage in CPD			x	x	x
	networking to extend human and social capital		x	x		x	x
	attitudes to paid employment, self-employment				x		x
	attitudes to unpaid/marginally paid work	volunteering and/or internships	x	x			x
Labour market and job seeking knowledge	employment/work knowledge base (including work experience and work skills)	work experience; commonly valued transferable skills (such as driving); occupation-specific skills	x	x		x	x
	awareness of labour market opportunities	knowledge of recruitment practices; use of information sources	x			x	x
	presentation and deployment of assets	ability to fill in a CV, perform effectively at interview	x	x		x	x
	a realistic approach to job targeting		x	x		x	x
Adaptability and mobility	career management and adaptability		x	x		x	x
	mobility	functional, occupational, and geographical mobility; wage flexibility				x	x

PERSONAL CIRCUMSTANCES								
Household circumstances	direct caring responsibilities	children and/or elderly relatives	x			x	x	x
	other family and caring responsibilities	financial, emotional and/or time commitments				x	x	x
	other household circumstances	safe, secure, affordable and appropriate housing					x	x
Household work culture	other household members are in employment							x
	culture in which work, and skills development is (not) encouraged						x	x
Access to resources	access to transport	own/readily available transport; ability to walk appropriate distances					x	x
	access to financial capital	household income; financial hardship; management of income/debt					x	x
	access to social capital (including for job search)	personal and family support networks; formal and informal community support networks; someone to provide references	x	x			x	x
	access to ICT							x
EMPLOYER/ ORGANISATIONAL PRACTICES								
Organisational culture	commitment to training/skills development and skills utilisation (and for whom)	training budget and training plan; support/fund training (including e-learning); offer work experience/ placements	x					x
	adopt high-performance work practices	provide opportunities for employee voice						x
	trade union recognition							x
Recruitment and selection practices	How/where jobs are advertised (i.e. methods)	formal, informal and/or internet/ e-based	x				x	x
	how successful applicants are selected	manual or e-screening/ e-selection						x
	(non)discriminatory practices							x

Working practices	adopt flexible working practices (and for whom)	part-time; term-time, compressed hours; job share; flexi-time; home-based						x
LOCAL CONTEXTUAL FACTORS								
Features of local employment	the number of jobs in the local labour market	labour demand; the number of people seeking employment	x		x		x	x
	quality of jobs and vacancy characteristics	occupation/ skill level; availability of 'entry-level' positions; full-time/ part-time; permanent/ temporary; pay; opportunities for progression					x	x
	location of jobs and local transport networks							x
Local work culture	whether a neighbourhood has high levels of employment/ nonemployment		x					x
	local norms/ aspirations regarding education/ training/ employment							x
Local labour market operation and norms	recruitment norms	how/where jobs are advertised locally; the role of employment agencies			x			x
	Role/strength of actors in local labour markets	key employers, local authorities, trades unions, etc						x
MACRO LEVEL FACTORS								
Regulatory regime (national/EU level)	rules determining labour market access	migration policy; equalities / antidiscrimination policy	x					x
Welfare regime and institutional factors	benefits system							x
	active labour market policy	e.g. conditionality and sanctions						x
	public employment service							x
	role of trade unions							x
Employment policy	work incentives (for individuals)							x
	access to training when on benefits							x

	incentives for employers to recruit/take on individuals for work experience and skills development							
Macroeconomic factors (at national scales)	aggregate demand for labour	unemployment levels; vacancy levels; employment profile			x	x	x	
	employer/ consumer confidence					x	x	
ENABLING SUPPORT FACTORS								
Role of LMIs and support agencies in providing support to individuals	pre-employment preparation and post-employment support	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – training /signpost to specialist – CV preparation; – interview practice – job search advice and support – access to ICT skills provision – job matching 				x	x	
	providing support to employers in facilitating aspects of employment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – pre-employment and in work training – recruitment and selection – helping ensure employee voice – legal advice (e.g. regulations) 				x	x	
	influencing local training/ skills policy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – address local labour market needs – adapt existing training programmes to meet local needs 						x
	Other enabling policy factors	Accessibility and affordability of public transport, childcare etc					x	

2.3. ENABLING SUPPORT FACTORS: THE ROLE OF LABOUR MARKET INTERMEDIARIES IN DEVELOPING JOBSEEKER EMPLOYABILITY

Although the below discussion only briefly touches on Green et al.'s (2013) prescribed macro-level factors, specifically, employment policy and welfare regime and institutional factors in the UK, the co-existence of rights and responsibilities, with a dominance of work-first approaches and conditionality, are important within the context of this thesis due to the inherent tension between policymakers' intention to deliver support for 'hard to help' claimants, and the implementation of work-first approaches by advisers (discussed further in Chapter 3).

2.3.1. Labour market policy: activation and the growth of conditionality

Combating unemployment is an important central paradigm of European labour market policies, with welfare-to-work programmes delivered to promote labour-market inclusion through enabling support (Dall, 2020). Government approaches to improving employability are driven by the motivation to ensure all individuals are able to participate in an ever-changing labour market. Dynamic labour markets, labour inequality, and an increased need for skilled workers and 'full employment', impact welfare regimes and their approach to labour market attachment, for example through activation and conditionality (Daguerre & Etherington, 2019; DWP, 2008; Freud, 2007; Johannson, 2007; Williams, 2015). To deliver employability policies in practice, the Government throughout the years have commissioned employability programmes delivered by labour market intermediaries, to meet policy

agendas designed to deliver employability services and manage conditionality. Government-commissioned employability programmes should support claimants into employment by delivering activities which would increase their likelihood of being able to compete for jobs in the labour market, and also provide high-quality employment and training to eradicate long-term unemployment.

The objective behind active labour market policies and the delivery of employability programmes (and other welfare-to-work initiatives) is intended to have a positive and developmental impact (Raffass, 2017). Yet, paradoxically, active labour market policies (and programmes) are comprised of both punitive and enabling mechanisms (Raffass, 2017). For example, a ‘work-first’ approach to improving labour market participation is a standard activation type. Work-first activation features mandatory welfare-to-work programmes delivering intensive job-search, while at the same time, emphasising the risk of sanctions (i.e. loss of benefits attached to seeking employment) if the jobseekers fail to comply with contracted activities or refuse any job they can do (Peck & Theodore, 2000; Finn, 2016) (See Box 1 for a summary of ‘work-first’ activation).

Work-First Activation

Since the 1990s, the UK’s welfare-to-work strategy has adopted a supply-side approach to employment supporting a work-first approach to employability programmes which places emphasis on supporting jobseekers into jobs quickly, quality and fit notwithstanding, with the view that essential employability skills will be

developed in the workplace (Sol & Hoogtanders, 2005). Often delivered at a low cost with minimal interventions and support, the work-first approach is a common activation type which emphasises interventions such as mandatory welfare programmes, intensive job search, and constant attention on conditionality and the potential loss of benefits if the jobseekers fails to comply with contracted activities or take any job they can do (Peck & Theodore, 2000). For those jobseekers not progressing quickly enough, they are provided with opportunities for further development and training (Sol & Hoogtanders, 2005).

The intention behind work-first is that jobseekers should quickly move into work as the best chance of succeeding in the labour market, as ‘any job is better than no job’ (Layard, 2004). The quality of the roles that jobseekers are encouraged to take are often short-term and poorly paid roles which, despite the ethos behind work-first approaches, do not allow room for progression or finding a better job (2003; Sol & Hoogtanders, 2005). As such, this approach has been open to critique (e.g. Daguerre & Etherington, 2009, 2019; Krebs & Scheffel, 2012; Lindsay, 2014).

Not only is a work-first approach detrimental to the development of some, but welfare-to-work programmes that adopt a work-first approach seek out vacancies towards the lower end of the labour market which have a high risk of exclusion consequentially propagating a perpetual cycle of claiming benefits, entering employment, and the inevitable turnover before another period of reclaiming benefits (Daguerre & Etherington, 2009, 2019; Ray, Hoggart, Vegeris & Taylor, 2010). As the needs of unemployed individuals can often be complex and multi-faceted, this

approach is not always the most effective in ensuring jobseekers enter the right employment for their needs, or that the appropriate support while in work is offered to ensure jobseekers sustain employment. Thus, overall labour market success is less likely for disadvantaged jobseekers as a result of a work-first, supply-side, approach and enforcement of conditionality as it fails to consider barriers which are not work-related, while also minimising the impact of the labour market on the likelihood of people going into work (Daguerre & Etherington, 2009, 2019; Theodore & Peck, 2001).

While conditionality has been a pervasive feature in previous government incarnations of welfare-to-work delivery, conditionality irrefutably heightened under the Conservative-led Coalition Government's welfare reform agenda (Finn, 2016; Patrick, 2011, 2017). To ensure claimants were living up to their 'contracts' and were accountable for their activity while on benefits, the introduction of a 'claimant commitment' – a firmer contract between a jobseeker and the Government – advised jobseekers to “think of job-seeking as a full-time job...be expected to look or prepare for work for 35 hours a week, depending on your circumstances” (DWP, 2019, Section 3). This activity was to occur while attending mandatory employability programmes, designed to support and guide long-term benefit claimants towards employment, such as the Work Programme. Failure to comply with their commitment presented the risk of a sanction. Benefit claimants previously exempt from such activation obligations, for example, 'hard to help' claimants with disabilities or health conditions, are now encompassed in the group of long-term unemployed jobseekers expected to engage with employability programmes (Lindsay & Houston, 2013). While additional support

from employability experts can have positive outcomes for a previously overlooked cohort of benefit claimants, the negative implications associated with increased conditionality of benefits and the threat of sanctions can have detrimental outcomes (Card, Kluve & Weber, 2018; Dall & Danneris, 2019; Rosholm, 2014; van Berkel et al., 2018).

While sanctions are a mainstay within welfare-to-work policy (Dwyer & Wright, 2014), there is mixed evidence regarding whether they incentivise claimants into work. On the one hand, sanctions encourage active job-seeking if applied appropriately and dependant on the work-readiness of the jobseeker (Peters & Joyce, 2006; Reeve, 2017), for example, conditionality increases the chances of claimants obtaining employment when attending personalised support programmes (Pickles et al., 2016). However, imposing financial penalties on benefit claimants can incentivise labour market re-entry (Oakley, 2014) or welfare exit (i.e. cease claiming benefit to avoid conditionality) (Arni, Lalive & Van Ours, 2013; Heap, 2016). The latter could be beneficial to the Government, with one less benefit claimant, or it could result in inactivity amongst the claimant and further disadvantage. On the other hand, evidence suggests that sanctions fall short of any positive intentions, not incentivising nor motivating individuals into employment (Baumberg 2014; House of Commons Work and Pensions Committee (HCWPC), 2014; Oakley 2014; Patrick 2011, 2017; Reeves & Loopstra, 2017).

The juxtaposition of finding a job, and doing so under duress, is perceived by Work Programme clients as adding no value to their employability: not only did they

not see the necessity of sanctions as a means of increasing their job-search behaviour or the likelihood of entering employment, but they instead produced hardship and anxiety (Meager et al., 2014; Raffass, 2017). Similarly, extending conditionality to claimants with health conditions has not been effective nor considered appropriate as a means of addressing barriers to work (Garthwaite, Bambra & Warren, 2013; Lindsay & Houston, 2013; Patrick, 2011, 2017; Weston, 2012). As such, conditionality is criticised as a “blunt instrument” (Patrick, 2011, p.275) and “unnecessary additional spur” (Patrick, 2017, p. 300). This critique is particularly relevant when applied to disadvantaged jobseekers already facing barriers precluding them from engaging in the workplace, whereby a work-first activation policy that relies on compulsion and punishment fails to address the true nature of the problems faced by benefit claimants (Lindsay & Houston, 2013). Moreover, Beatty and Fothergill (2013) conclude that the current punitive welfare reform agenda will not move people into sustainable employment but exacerbate the risk of poverty and long-term exclusion from the labour market for the most vulnerable in society.

Enabling Support: what works in welfare-to-work?

While welfare policy promotes employability as a critical means for economic development, it is difficult to determine which interventions work and which programmes are useful as a means of progression unemployed jobseekers to the front of the job queue and into employment (Raffass, 2017), with evaluations of employability programmes providing inconclusive insight into ‘what works’ (Bredgaard, 2015; Dall & Danneris, 2019). In part, this is because in practice, the

success of these interventions, ‘what works for whom’, is dependent on the individual and their circumstances and barriers to employment, which vary across context and time (Dall & Danneris, 2019; Dudley, McEnhill & Steadman, 2016; Hasluck & Green, 2007). Jobseekers are heterogeneous with a wide range of complex barriers preventing a jobseeker from progressing to work.

Moreover, while there is no ‘one size fits all’ magic bullet to supporting someone into work, the development of employability skills and the IAG provided is has elements of good practice. For example, Hasluck and Green's (2007) early meta-analysis of ‘what works for whom’ suggests jobseekers' motivation, work experience and tailored skills interventions are ingredients for successful welfare-to-work provision. Adam, Atfield & Green (2017) approach ‘what works’ from a demand-side perspective, demonstrating the importance of employer engagement, personalised support for jobseekers, and co-ordination of local support provision across UK labour markets. Moreover, they found that what does not work, is the marketisation of work-first supply-side employability services, driving competition and the overestimation of effective interventions, as well as a focus on gaining not sustaining employment. To successfully participate in the labour market, jobseekers must be able to search and successfully apply for work; adjust their behaviour for different work environments; develop new skills and choose qualifications to aid progression or career change.

Public and social policy often focuses their attention on the development of employability skills as the main routes into employment, with lifelong learning the vehicle for improving an individual’s employability skills and labour market

engagement throughout their working life (DfEE, 1998; Taylor, 2017). Unlike work-first approaches, Human Capital Development (HCD) models seek to improve employability through investment in human capital (often through education and training) (Lindsay, 2014). Where evidence exists, vocational training and LMI in-house training are considered vital to the development of human and social capital, particularly when aligned to the needs of employers and ‘employability-focused’ rather than learning-focused (Brown et al., 2010; Cheung & McKay, 2010; Daguerre & Etherington, 2009; Dench, Hillage & Coare, 2006; Devins et al., 2011; OECD, 2019; Smith, 2010). A recent meta-analysis of over 200 studies evaluating active labour market programmes found that HCD programmes demonstrate minimal short-term gains. However, they increase over time (with benefits emerging 2-3 years post-programme completion) and best suited for long-term unemployed jobseekers (Card et al., 2018). Nevertheless, overall, the benefits of job-search support are found to be more effective than training programmes (Card, Kluve & Weber, 2010; Petrongolo, 2014), with results across work-first programmes with job-search and conditionality are more consistent across time, reducing the time spent out of work and successful for disadvantaged jobseekers (Borland, 2014; Card et al., 2018; Daguerre & Etherington, 2009; Kluve, 2010). It is argued, however, that a blend, or hybrid, between work-first and HCD approaches delivered across employability programmes will provide the holistic support required by unemployed jobseekers (Lindsay, 2014; Theodore & Peck, 2001).

Government employability and skills policies often encourage benefit claimants to carry out volunteering as a means of enhancing employability and as a

route into paid employment (De Waele & Hustinx, 2019; Kamerade & Ellis Paine, 2014). Adopting the nomenclature “workfare volunteering”, Kampen, Elshout and Tonkems (2013) challenge the Government edict, suggesting volunteer work is often promoted through government interventions, turning a voluntary activity into mandatory activity as part of benefit conditionality (also De Waele & Hustinx, 2019). On that point, work-for-benefits (workfare) is consistently demonstrated to be the least effective means of supporting people into employment (Raffass, 2017). Nonetheless, under the right circumstances, experiential learning through volunteering can contribute to an improvement in social and human capital, knowledge and attitudes, confidence, self-esteem, health, and provide content for a CV (Blades et al., 2012; Kamerade & Ellis Paine, 2014; Smith, 2010). Yet, volunteering demonstrates a weak effect on employment outcomes with little evidence of positive gains, and multiple antecedents impacting the impact of volunteering (Ellis Paine, McKay & Moro, 2013; Lee, 2010).

In spite of the above summary, Kluve et al. (2019) report that, amongst other findings, the type of intervention in and of itself is not as important as the design and delivery of the intervention. While the delivery of interventions will be discussed in Chapter 3, in sum, labour market policy and governance determine the support a jobseeker receives from the employability programme they are attending. There is, however, a strong empirical evidence base, especially within the welfare-to-work literature, which suggests there are critical variables associated with employment outcomes amongst jobseekers that employability programmes delivered by LMIs are expected to address. Thus, what follows is by no means an exhaustive review of a large

body of research into employability components and their impact on employment outcomes (see Green et al., 2013; Williams et al., 2016).

2.3.2. Individual factors attributed to labour market success

To begin, research shows that individual factors are important in explaining why some people are at higher risk of finding themselves at the back of the “jobs queue” (Beatty et al., 2009, p. 961), with previous research and empirical evidence suggesting that individual factors hold the most importance when considering individual employability (Green et al., 2013). Individual factors encapsulate the knowledge, skills and attributes which support individuals to find sustainable employment. Alone, they are only part of the story, interacting with personal circumstances and external factors, which will be subsequently discussed. First, a discussion of demographic characteristics follows.

Demographic characteristics

Age and gender

When age is investigated as an antecedent to employment, the dichotomy of young and older jobseekers emerges as an important distinction. For example, an evaluation of 20 years of data (from 1993-2013) from the Quarterly Labour Force Survey (QLFS) found that labour market disadvantage is higher for older workers (aged 56-75) and young people aged 25 and under (George, Metcalf, Tufekci & Wilkinson, 2015). While not homogenous groups, older jobseekers have a diverse

range of support needs which act as a barrier to work, including poor health and skills gap, increased caring responsibilities (particularly for women) and limited flexibility around working arrangements, as well as facing discrimination (Cory, 2012; Foster, Colechin, Bivand & Foster, 2014; George et al., 2015).

Similarly, young people are reportedly at an increasing disadvantage in the labour market due to low-level, or lack of, qualifications (Berthoud, 2003; George et al., 2015; Green et al., 2013; Hughes, 2016; NAO, 2014; Scottish Government, 2017). Caught in a "catch 22", young people lack the experience that would enable them to find a job but are unable to find a job that would provide them with work experience (Tominey & Gregg, 2005). Conversely, older people with work experience are reportedly less vulnerable to job losses (Green et al., 2013; Jenkins & Leaker, 2010) and young benefit claimants are evidentially more likely to enter employment than their older counterparts (Meager et al., 2014); however, the results can vary based on research on current welfare-to-work policy. For example, welfare regimes and employment policy can impact the recruitment practices of employers, for example, the financial incentivise to recruit young people through the Youth Contract (Jordan & Thomas, 2016) affected the employability of both young and older cohorts: unfavourably for the latter.

Despite a record high female employment rate, the employment rate of women remains lower than that of men, a pattern consistent across the years (Albanesi & Sahin, 2018; Office for National Statistics (ONS), 2016a, 2019; Taylor, 2017). It could be argued that women are more likely to be responsible for children and dependents

(Green et al., 2013), with parental status a risk factor for unemployment (Berthoud, 2003), as well as a lack of flexibility and "fair work" within the labour market (Tinson, Aldridge & Whitham, 2016). Meager et al.'s (2014) Work Programme participant study found women to be more successful in entering employment than men; that said, their sample was not representative of the population with the majority (62%) of female clients completing the Work Programme without entering employment.

On the other hand, Work Programme statistics suggest that 31 per cent of women compared to 56 per cent for men qualified for a Job Outcome² (DWP, 2017). Nonetheless, the gender gap is significant in the UK, with men more likely to remain unemployed (Baussola & Mussida, 2017). A national comparative investigation found inactivity a more precise explanation of the gender unemployment gap: while women are generally at an advantage in the labour market, "is it more difficult for women than men to leave the state of inactivity" (Baussola, Mussida, Jenkins & Penfold, 2015, p.559). Yet, with contradictory findings depending on the source, age and gender effects have been labelled "inconclusive" in their prediction of (re)employment (e.g. Creed & Watson, 2003), instead contributing to outcomes in combination with psychological variables, education and social support (McArdle, Waters, Briscoe & Tim, 2007).

Health and well-being

² The Work Programme measure of 'sustainable' employment, that is, retained employment for a set number of weeks depending on the claimant's benefit type.

Evidence from DWP evaluations suggest that benefit claimants with health conditions or disabilities are less likely to enter work (Meager et al., 2014), and a substantial body of evidence emphasises the negative relationship between poor health and long-term unemployment (Beatty & Fothergill, 2013; Berthoud, 2003, 2009, 2011; Lindsay, Greve, Cabras, Ellison & Kellett, 2015; Williams et al., 2016). Of the UK working-age population, the employment rate for people with long-term health issues is consistently lower than for people without a health condition, returning a disability employability gap of approximately 30 per cent; with one of the lowest employment rates ascribed to a population with severe and enduring mental health conditions (Powell, 2019). This up-to-date statistic is unsurprising considering the prevalence of mental health conditions across the UK working-age population as a whole (van Stolk, Hofman, Hafner & Janta, 2014), and the 103 per cent increase over ten years (1995-2014) of claims for sickness and disability benefit attributed to mental health conditions, making up almost half (47%) of all claims (Viola & Moncrieff, 2016).

Mental health conditions are significant impediments to entering and retaining employment (Böckerman & Ilmakunnas, 2009; Halvorsen, 1998; Mitra & Jones, 2017; Paul & Moser 2009; Perkins, Farmer & Litchfield, 2009; Powell, 2019; Rinaldi, Montibeller & Perkins, 2011). Furthermore, Berthoud (2011) claims that the severity of health-related limitations are significant predictors of a claimant's chances of returning to work, with a health impairment or disability not dichotomous but existing on a continuum of being able to work to not being able to work, also related to their perceptions of their employability within the local labour market (e.g. Webster, Blomberg & Isaksson, 2013) with negative views of both mutually reinforcing

(Lindsay et al., 2015).

As with most antecedents to unemployment, health impairments are not isolated barriers to employment. A number of surveys conducted with UK disability benefit claimants confirm that they are more likely than most people of working-age to report multiple barriers including a low skills base, poor educational attainment, lengthy periods of unemployment, a lack of work experience and limited or no access to transport (Beatty, Fothergill, Houston, Powell & Sissons, 2010; Green & Shuttleworth, 2010). When seeking employment, jobseekers with health conditions face additional barriers to obtaining work: employer discrimination, fear, and a lack of knowledge as to what work looks like (Corrigan, Markowitz, Watson, Rowan & Kubiak, 2003; Danson & Gilmore, 2009). Additionally, the value of work-first activation programmes for a jobseeker with a health condition or other more complex barriers to employment is questionable (Barnes & Sissons, 2013; Ceolta-Smith, Salway & Tod, 2015, 2018; Finn, 2016; Lakey, Barnes & Parry, 2001; Millar, 2000; Miscampbell & Porter, 2014; Peck & Theodore, 2001). Furthermore, an analysis of national datasets finds that labour market influences have a limited effect on the employment of disabled people, even in a time of recession (Berthoud, 2009, 2011). While these barriers are significant predictors of being unemployed in the first instance, they are also strongly associated with the reduced likelihood of re-entering the labour market (Lindsay & Houston, 2011, 2013).

Labour market attachment

Labour market success and length of unemployment are correlated, which can be caused by a variety of factors, such as mental health condition and lack of human capital (Petrongolo, 2014); employer discrimination and low expectations of commitment and work-readiness (Devins & Hogarth, 2005; Newton, Hurstfield, Miller, Page & Akroyd, 2005). The long-term unemployed in the European Union "have about half the chance of finding employment compared to the short-term unemployed" (European Commission, 2015, p.13). On the other hand, individuals with recent work experience or a history of work are more likely to enter employment than those without it (Meager et al., 2014).

Education and qualifications

The relationship between skills and qualifications is dominant within employability literature, with educational attainment commonly reported as a measure of skills attainment (Leitch, 2006), in part, because employers using educational attainment, as measured through qualification levels, to make recruitment decisions (Kanfer, Wanberg & Kantrowitz, 2001). However, qualifications are declared an 'imperfect proxy for skills' (Devins et al., 2011; OECD, 2013, p.170, 2014, 2016), with a lack of vocational skills a more reliable predictor of unemployment (Berthoud, 2003). Formal qualifications are not sufficient to enter employment (Green et al., 2013); often considered less important than, for example, adaptability, honesty, experience, communication skills and job knowledge (Clarke, 2007) and soft skills generally (Nickson, Warhurst, Commander, Hurrell & Cullen, 2012). Nonetheless, there is a risk that those with low or no qualifications will be disadvantaged in their

attempts to (re)enter the labour market as the demand for skills increases (Luchinskaya & Dickinson, 2019). Educational attainment is a well-established and reliable predictor of labour market attachment and re-employment (Dench et al., 2006; Devins et al., 2011; Leitch, 2006; McArdle et al., 2007; Wanberg et al., 2002). Supported by an extensive body of national and international evidence, jobseekers with low levels of qualification, or none at all, are less likely to obtain or sustain employment and are at a greater risk of being unemployed than qualified individuals (George et al., 2015; Martin, 2018; OECD, 2014, 2015a, 2015b, 2016, 2019). There is a mixed picture for vocational qualifications, with benefits for some, but not all, depending on the highest level of qualification an individual obtains (Dench et al., 2006; Devins et al., 2011; Dickerson & Vignoles, 2007). Encouragingly, Williams (2015) found that possessing even a level 1 qualification reduced the likelihood of unemployment. For example, the likelihood of entering employment for school leavers without qualifications is bolstered by achieving at least a level 2 qualification yet add no value for school leavers who achieved qualifications (McIntosh & Garrett, 2009; Parsons & Bynner, 2007). Bynner (2002) noted, however, that the addition of a qualification does not negate the negative impact of poor basic skills.

Employability skills and attributes

Transferable skills

A multi-dimensional concept, the term ‘skills’ has evolved from a specific and precise conceptualisation of the competence and abilities required to carry out a task

or role, to a broader concept encompassing personal characteristics, attitudes, and traits which are increasingly in demand from employers (see Devins et al., 2011; Grugulis & Vincent, 2004, 2009; Hurrell, Scholarios & Thompson, 2012). Arguably, employer-defined characteristics give employers scope to narrow their recruitment field, putting the onus on the potential employee to possess these skills, rather than taking the responsibility to lead and develop their staff (Grugulis & Vincent, 2004). Furthermore, ‘employability skills’ runs the risk of acting as a proxy for “what employers want” (Lafer, 2004, pp.117-8). Nevertheless, while distinctions are often made between hard and soft skills, suggesting soft skills are complementary to requisite ‘hard’ technical skills and qualifications (Blades et al., 2012), there is value in analysing both elements together to provide a better understanding of work (Nickson, Price, Baxter-Reid & Hurrell, 2017). As such, employability skills is the umbrella term for all hard and soft skills needed to engage in the workplace successfully, including, but not limited to, core knowledge, interpersonal skills, literacy skills, and personal management (Bellis et al., 2011; Blades et al., 2012; Devins et al., 2011; Green et al., 2013; UK Commission for Employment and Skills (UKCES), 2009).

Basic skills are those foundation skills essential for daily engagement and to compete in the labour market, consisting predominantly of literacy and numeracy skills (European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (CEDEFOP), 2009). Ubiquitous through the job-search and employment process, literacy and numeracy issues are cited as significant barriers to employment, correlated with shorter periods of unemployment, but also progression and retention (Lahey et al., 2001; Parsons & Bynner, 2007; Martin, Villeneuve-Smith, Marshall & McKenzie,

2008; Windisch, 2015). Furthermore, due to the changing nature of work, and increased use of technology information technology (IT) and information and communications technology (ICT), the demand for skills had evolved to include digital literacy, comprising a set of ‘new’ basic skills (Green, 2017; Green et al., 2013; McQuaid, Lindsay & Greig, 2004). Digital skills enable people to navigate technology within the workplace, but also use it to apply for jobs and develop their skills and employability. Job-searching skills, for example, are grounded in literacy and numeracy, but also an individual’s ability to use technology to access the internet and carry out online job-searching, completing applications forms or upload a CV, obtain labour market knowledge, and directly contacting employers (Bellis et al., 2011; Green, 2017). While basic skills are the bedrock of employability, soft skills ‘enhance’ employability (Green et al., 2013).

Soft skills are defined as “non-technical and not reliant on abstract reasoning, involving interpersonal and intrapersonal abilities to facilitate mastered performance in particular contexts” (Hurrell et al., 2012, p.162), encompassing person-centred factors and social skills relevant to employment. Such skills include, but are not limited to (1) attributes, or personal competencies, such as confidence and self-efficacy, in addition to (2) self-management skills relating to time management and money management and (3) skills such as interpersonal and communication and relationship-building (Blades et al., 2012; Development Economics, 2015; Green et al., 2013; Harvey, Bauserman & Bollinger, 2012; UKCES, 2009). A shift from industrial occupations to a service-dominated economy has changed the nature of work and brought with it a shift in the demands for skills: interpersonal and customer relations

skills replace the need for physical skills, aesthetic labour within service sectors demanding, in part, the right attitude over basic skills (Belt & Richardson, 2005; Nickson et al., 2012; Nickson, Warhurst, Cullen & Watt, 2003; Nickson et al. 2017). Workplace dependent, soft skills are recognised as a more reliable predictor of workplace performance than academic skills, consistently reported as highly valued by employers and often preferred to technical skills that can be trained in-house (Devins et al., 2011; Weber, Crawford, Lee & Dennison, 2013). However, if it is correct that skills are more readily developed once in employment (Elias et al., 2002), long-term unemployed jobseekers face a perpetual challenge with gaps in soft skills (e.g. interpersonal and communication skills, self-presentation and ‘new’ basic skills), low levels of confidence and motivation, and lack of reliability and punctuality (self-management) (Belt & Richardson, 2005; Green et al., 2013).

Personal competencies and job-seeking behaviour

Personal competencies are those person-centred beliefs which affect cognitive processes and decision-making to inform individual employability. Defined by Kanfer et al. (2001) as ‘self-evaluations’ of employability, person-centred factors such as self-efficacy and perceived employability reflect whether a jobseeker believes they are likely to obtain employment and the consequential job-search behaviours (e.g. applying for work, attending job interviews) (Green et al., 2013; McGonagle, Fisher, Barnes-Farrell & Grosch, 2015; Nauta, van Vianen, van der Heijdenm van Dam & Willemsen, 2009; Wanberg, 2012; Wanberg et al., 2002). Positive self-evaluations are strong predictors of job-search behaviours; they drive an individual to increase their

appeal to employers (i.e. engage in continual professional development and embrace adaptability), while also demonstrating greater intensity and persistence in their job-seeking. In turn, employment outcomes ensue (De Grip et al., 2004; Kreemers, van Hooft & van Vianen, 2018; McArdle et al., 2007; Solberg, Good & Nord, 1994).

Ostensibly conceptually interchangeable (Green et al., 2013), self-efficacy is a self-judgment made about an individual's ability to accomplish a task and their confidence and commitment to the task (Bandura, 1977, 1997; Creed, Patton & Prideaux, 2006), while perceived employability demonstrates a greater level of objectivity, generally expressed as an individual's belief in the likelihood of obtaining a new job within the context of the labour market (Berntson & Marklund, 2007; Berntson, Näswall, & Sverke, 2008; Forrier et al., 2015; Vanhercke, De Cuyper, Peeters, & De Witte, 2014; Wittekind, Raeder & Grote, 2010). Jobseekers with higher levels of job search self-efficacy (JSSE) are likely to exert more time and effort into developing their employability and searching for work than those who do not (Berntson et al., 2008; Blades et al., 2012; Kanfer et al., 2001), which in turn has a positive effect on employment outcomes (Devins et al., 2011; Martin et al., 2008; Moynihan, Roehling, LePine & Boswell, 2003). Support for JSSE as a factor influencing motivation to job-search and job-search activities is evident in government-led employability programmes (Creed, Bloxsome & Johnston, 2001; James, 2007; Vinokur & Schul, 1997; Vinokur, Schul, Vuori, & Price, 2000).

On the other hand, the strength of perceived employability is that it reflects the value of individual human capital relative to labour market demand (Berntson et al.,

2008). While personal and external circumstances can impact employability, how an individual perceives these barriers will impact their belief in their ability to ever work again (James, 2007). For example, Berntson et al. (2006) found that human capital and the labour market predicted perceived employability in Sweden, with results suggesting perceived employability was higher during 'prosperity'. However, Wittekind et al. (2010) found that perceived job-related skills, health, and age, are important antecedents for perceived employability, rated more important than awareness of external opportunities. So, therefore, understanding the role of person-centred factors in achieving employment outcomes and the mediating impact of job-search behaviour is complex (Moynihan et al., 2003).

The relationship between personal competencies, job-search behaviours, and employment success is illustrated in a framework set out by Hillage and Pollard (1998) and psycho-social model by Fugate et al. (2004). An employability framework developed to support the implementation of employability skills in a welfare-to-work context, Hillage and Pollard (1998), for the Institute of Employment Studies, determined a conceptual framework which would help guide social policy. They suggest that employability is a tripartite conceptualisation made up of (1) employability assets; (2) deployment, and; (3) presentation. That is, an individual's ability to gain and sustain employment based on their ability to utilise their knowledge, skills and personal attributes effectively to seek employment and attract employers (e.g. through their curriculum vitae (CV) and recruitment interviews), while cognisant of the labour market within which they seek employment. An inter-relationship exists between assets and deployment. Employability assets are a pre-requisite for seeking

and applying for work. But whether they are effectively deployed is dependent on three linked abilities: career management skills; job-search skills; and a strategic approach to positioning oneself to stand out from labour market competition. Hillage and Pollard's (1998) framework is reflective of many welfare-to-work initiatives and the delivery of employability interventions to long-term unemployed jobseekers: identify their strengths and weaknesses; train them in job-search techniques; and prepare their CVs and coach them through the job interview process. Employer demands receive a cursory nod but focusing on the agency of the individual to navigate their own employability journey and “move self-sufficiently within the labour market” (Hillage & Pollard, 1998, p.12).

Fugate et al. (2004, p.19) adopt a similar tripartite model attributing the “conceptual and predictive power of employability” to the combination of three mutually dependent dimensions: (1) career identity; (2) personal adaptability; and (3) social and human capital. Fugate et al. (2004) conceptualise employability as an amalgam of three person-centred work-related attributes that predict “high levels of employability”, labour market success and the ability to facilitate movement between jobs (Fugate et al., 2004, p.17). An individual's career identity is a composite of previous work experience, job aspirations, and values, which all helps to make sense of their self-identity within an employment context, which in turn should drive their behaviours to achieve a future job goal (Meijers & Lengelle, 2012), for example, demonstrating their adaptability and willingness to update their knowledge and skills to meet the requirements of the labour market (Elias et al., 2002). Similarly, being adaptable means a jobseeker needs to make all attempts to remove potential restrictions

and be willing to consider alternative sectors and occupations, wages, hours, and geographical constraints (Hillage & Pollard, 1998; Layard, Nickell & Jackman, 1994, McQuaid & Lindsay, 2002, 2005; Tamkin & Hillage, 1999).

Furthermore, according to Fugate et al. (2004), defining career goals and being adaptable to employer demands is useful when a jobseeker is also able to successfully network and access opportunities that suit their own career identity (Brown et al., 2010; Smith, 2010). McArdle et al. (2007) empirically tested Fugate et al.'s (2004) model across a sample of unemployed Australians, focusing on outcomes such as self-esteem, job-search activity and re-employment; results broadly support the applicability of the three dimensions. As did a similar study in a more recent two-wave study of Belgian employees (Forrier et al., 2015), whereby job transitions, movement capital, and perceived adaptability were part of a cyclical chain.

Consistent across both frameworks is that employability is a multi-dimensional, and inter-related, construct consisting of person-centred dimensions and associated job-search behaviours; specifically, possessing assets is worthwhile only when deployed and well-presented in the context of competition and opportunities within the labour market. However, personal competencies are often found to be unilaterally significantly, and positively related to obtaining employment (e.g. Kanfer et al., 2001; Wanberg, 1997; Wanberg, Hough & Song, 2002). For example, meta-analytic evidence suggests there is a positive link between the time spent looking for work with the chance of entering employment (Kanfer et al., 2001) but with little control over the suitability of the job (Kreemers et al., 2018). Furthermore, while these frameworks can

predict labour market success, less attention was paid to external socioeconomic factors, except to highlight the role of social capital.

Many frameworks adopt a supply side focus, with a cursory nod to the influence of external factors, seen as something for an individual to navigate and manage, rather than a barrier in its own right. In sum, however, demographic characteristics influence employment success. 'Basic skills' are the bedrock of employability while soft skills develop and 'enhance' employability, recognised as a more reliable predictor of workplace performance than academic skills. Person-centred factors such as self-efficacy and perceived employability are strong predictors of job-seeking behaviours. How skills and attitudes are deployed (for example identifying job goals and searching for work) and presented (through CVs and interviews) is dependent on human and social capital. Job-seeking behaviours are associated with jobseekers' perception of their skills and abilities compared to their labour market competition, as well as their perception of opportunities within the labour market. Next, personal circumstance, the next category of variable across employability variables, will be discussed as influencers of employment success.

2.3.3. Personal circumstances affecting labour market success

Personal circumstances are related to the practical functions of seeking and retaining employment: distinct from individual factors they encapsulate the influence an individual's circumstances have on employability and employment outcomes. While personal circumstances can include variables related to the work environment

(such as work culture and working practices) (Green et al., 2013; McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005), this discussion will be omitted from this section due to the focus of this thesis on unemployed jobseekers, of whom the majority are not in employment. However, included will be caring responsibilities, household circumstances, as well as access to resources.

Childcare responsibilities

Lone parents with direct caring responsibilities face labour market disadvantage (Berthoud, 2003): they are more likely to enter unsustainable, poorly paid jobs that offer little opportunity for career development nor demonstrate financial gain (Johnsen, 2016). Childcare costs are often noted as lone parents' most significant barrier to work (Brewer, Cattan, Crawford & Rabe, 2016; Kimmel, 1998). However, above all, the need for childcare acts as a barrier to employment, with sole caring responsibilities limiting a jobseeker's capacity to access both work and development opportunities to prepare them for work (Crisp, Batty, Cole & Robinson, 2009; Johnsen, 2016; Millar & Crosse, 2016). This barrier is especially prevalent for parents without a social network available to offer informal support (Bashir, Crisp, Gore, Reeve & Robinson, 2011; Lakey et al., 2001) or constrained due to the geographical scope of vacancies and transport links (Bashir et al., 2011). While not exclusive to lone parents, these barriers are compounded by a fear of financial responsibility and securing viable employment (Graham & McQuaid, 2014; Johnsen, 2016). There is some evidence that job-search conditionality increases the transition of single parents from unemployment to employment or disability benefits dependant on their previous labour market

attachment (Avram, Bewer, & Salvatori, 2018) or inactivity (Avram et al., 2018; Petrongolo, 2009).

Housing conditions

Social housing residents are more disadvantaged than those living in other forms of accommodation. Social tenants have low employment rates (Fletcher, 2009; Scottish Government, 2018), and twice as likely to be unemployed or inactive as those living in other tenures, with an unemployment rate approximately three times that of private renters, and five times of owner-occupiers (Wilson, Bivand, Rahman & Hoya, 2015). The Hills Review (2007, in Fletcher, 2009) argues that social housing brings security for jobseekers, providing a solid grounding for finding work. Furthermore, Fletcher (2009) found that while there was limited evidence to support the notion that social housing provided incentives to work, it was not a disincentive to work and many other factors were considered more of a barrier to employment.

Furthermore, homelessness is both an outcome of unemployment and a barrier to employment. Individuals at risk of homelessness inevitably face additional disadvantages which act as barriers to employment: longer periods of unemployment; health problems; insecurity of housing tenure and high rents (particularly in supported housing); and financial concerns over change in benefits and housing costs (Blake, Fradd & Stringer, 2008; Quirouette, 2016). Employment is a route out of homelessness, yet barriers such as a lack of soft skills and self-esteem, a lack of financial resources and lack of permanent address, all prevent access to the labour market (Blake et al.,

2008). People who find themselves in temporary accommodation or homeless shelters are usually those who are faced with multiple disadvantages, such as health issues and disabilities, addiction and criminal histories (Blake et al., 2008; Piacentini, Weaver & Jardine, 2018; Quirouette, 2016). With mixed results over the success of labour market activation and employment support for homeless people (Bretherton & Pleace, 2019), Shaheen and Rio (2007) suggest that discussing work should be a priority when supporting homeless people, addressed at the earliest opportunity.

Access to resources: financial, transport and social

Across childcare and household circumstances, financial resources present a potential barrier to employment. The longer an individual is unemployed, the more financial concerns they tend to have (Kinicki, Prussia & McKee-Ryan, 2000). The potential for debt, housing costs, child support or travel to and from their job, may deter people from entering work. Financial need (i.e. the extent to which an individual is experiencing economic hardship) can drive job search effort and intensity and positive work-related behaviours due to the immediate need for employment (Kanfer et al., 2001; Leana & Feldman, 1995; Lee & Vinokur, 2007). But evidence captured through economic literature suggests that unemployment insurance, the American equivalent of JSA, is a disincentive for rapid re-entry into employment with job-seeking behaviours increasing as insurance benefits dwindle (Kanfer et al., 2001), which is, in part, the rationale behind increased conditionality within the latest government labour market policies. Access to resources, as categorised by Green et al. (2013) includes access to financial capital, but also transport and social capital.

It might be assumed that transport is an 'external' factor; however, access to transport can be identified as 'access to resources' (Green et al., 2013) and may influence the individuals' decision to apply for or accept work, their 'willingness' based on their context, and the ease of access to transport, childcare concerns and social network (Crisp et al., 2018; Fletcher, 2009; Quinn & Seaman, 2008). Transport is a key obstacle to wellbeing and social inclusion for many (Houston & Tilley, 2015; Tilley & Houston, 2016). Ninety-minute travel-to-work areas (TTWAs) - the 90-minute radius jobseekers are expected to job-search and commute to meet the conditions of receiving benefits (UK Parliament, 2013) - can be a significant predictor of re-employment (McQuaid, 2006). Crisp et al. (2018) found that people were 'willing' to travel over an hour for work, especially when they had experience of this commute duration, but were restricted by non-work commitments. For example, trip-chaining (i.e. combining travel for both work-related and non-work-related activities) limits an individual's ability to take on work which is too far away from non-work responsibilities, such as childcare (Crisp & Powell, 2017). Access to transport can exacerbate the barriers to employment that caring responsibilities may already put in place, preventing an individual from being able to move freely and access employment and financial security (Fransen, Boussauw, Deruyter & De Maeyer, 2019).

Fransen et al., (2019) predicted long-term unemployment outcomes of jobseekers in Flanders, Belgium, dependent on accessibility (i.e. private or public transport) to job vacancies that are aligned to their vocational goals and skills and socio-demographic variables (e.g. age, gender, education). Their findings suggest that long-term unemployment is negatively related to job accessibility, with higher levels

only beneficial to jobseekers who are less disadvantaged. Lack of regular, reliable and affordable transport at unsociable hours restricts jobseekers to local employers, with work likely sought within local communities (Crisp & Powell, 2017; Crisp et al., 2018). However, Crisp et al. (2017, 2018) suggest that travel barriers which prevent jobseekers from considering even accessible work outside of their local area are in fact ‘perceptual’, for example, unfamiliarity, lack of confidence and safety concerns and a preference for working close to their residence. Less skilled, often disadvantaged, individuals who are reluctant to travel or relocate are more likely to seek work in their local neighbourhoods (Green et al., 2013).

In 2006, the DWP produced a Green Paper stating that ‘the problem is not lack of jobs... many residents do not take up these jobs even though they live within easy travelling distance of thousands of vacancies’ (DWP, 2006, p.18, in Quinn & Seaman, 2008). While policymakers are reportedly ‘perplexed’ as to why residents in low income deprived areas choose to remain in their local community rather than move to unfamiliar areas with a more buoyant labour market, hesitancy comes from many areas (Fletcher, 2009p.783): social networks and familiarity; financial and social costs of moving; availability of social housing; physical infrastructure; and uncertainty (Crisp & Powell, 2017; Farrington & Farrington, 2005). The lack of affordable housing and long waiting lists for social housing and the removal of a support network is often considered a step too far. The intersection of barriers relating to access to resources highlight the cultural, social and psychological factors relating to ‘willingness’ or ‘spatial mobility’ rather than access to resources (Crisp & Powell, 2017). For example, Green and White (2007) found how far people are prepared to travel for work is

affected by their social networks.

The social network a person finds themselves in can affect their employability (e.g. Green et al., 2013; McQuaid & Lindsay 2005), and social support can be a “mixed blessing” (Graham & McQuaid, 2014, p.13). On the one hand, social networks comprising family and friends provide childcare and information on vacancies (Fletcher, 2009; Green & White, 2007; McArdle et al., 2007). And during periods of unemployment social support is a coping resource for individuals dealing with stress and potentially rejection, providing a sense of self-esteem and bonding due to a shared history and shared experiences (Gowan, Riordan & Gatewood, 1999; Kanfer et al., 2001; Kessler, Price, & Wortman, 1985; Vinokur & Caplan, 1987; Vinokur & Schul, 2002). Yet, social support is not a significant predictor of re-employment, but of job-search behaviour mediated by self-esteem and self-efficacy (Leana & Feldman, 1995; McArdle et al., 2007; Nota, Ferrari, Scott, Solberg & Soresi, 2007; Vinokur & Schul, 1997; 2002). Furthermore, perceived social support (Zimet, Dahlem, Zimet, & Farley, 1988) can nurture optimism and confidence in career decision-making and development (Jiang, 2017), producing increased levels of perceived employability (McArdle et al., 2007; Wittekind et al., 2010).

On the other hand, social networks of unemployed jobseekers are often insular and regulated by a member of the network (Smith, 2010), with the unanticipated outcome of constraining access to a range of labour market opportunities by focusing on a narrow geographical area (Quinn & Seaman, 2008). Informal recruitment through word of mouth or recommendations from family or friends is often targeted at low

skilled, flexible employment (Green & White, 2007) providing a ‘safe bet’ for jobseekers who have had negative experiences of formal selection and recruitment processes, or whose ‘face doesn’t fit’ (Quinn & Seaman, 2008). However, relying on help and support from equally deprived neighbours does not provide a link to “heterogeneous people and organisations” (Quinn & Seaman, 2008, p.5). Consequently, an over-reliance on local social networks to seek employment can inhibit the development of social capital required to find employment and move out of deprivation towards social inclusion (Fletcher, 2009; Kearns & Parkinson, 2001). Thus, family and friends can act as a barrier to employment, as much as they can provide a level of emotional support. Therefore, there are benefits from receiving support from someone outside of their social network to rely on to find work.

In sum, personal circumstances are related to the practical functions of seeking and retaining employment - such as childcare responsibilities, household circumstances, as well as access to transport – which prevent an individual from being able to move freely. 'Spatial mobility' is difficult to categorise as it fits within a myriad of other circumstantial and external factors, however, the intersection of barriers relating to access to resources highlight the cultural, social and psychological factors relating to 'willingness' to relocate and travel rather than access to resources. The social network a person finds themselves in can affect their employability with social support a ‘mixed blessing’, providing emotional support and access to vacancies, but also constraining access to a range of labour market opportunities by focusing on a narrow geographical area. Furthermore, in the categorisation of jobseekers as employable, broader frameworks incorporate demand-side variables such as labour market demand

and employer recruitment and selection processes as determinants of individual employability.

2.3.4 External factors influencing labour market success

Throughout this chapter, the discussion has included a broader view of employability, which suggests individual employability is contingent on the labour market within which a jobseeker searches for vacancies. External influences on individual employability include available resources in their geographical location, labour demand and employer recruitment practices. External influences on individual employability include available resources in their geographical location, labour demand and employer recruitment practices are presented within this section.

Neighbourhood impact

Employment barriers can be "localised" (Shuttleworth & Green, 2009) with individual employability contingent on the local labour market and the neighbourhood within which a jobseeker resides (Tunstall, Lupton, Green, Watmough & Bates, 2012). Andersson (2004) suggests that self-selection plays a factor in 'neighbourhood effects' – individuals often choose where they reside, making neighbourhoods to some degree, homogenous. Local labour markets are composed of individuals with similar characteristics, searching for similar jobs in the local region, managing their job search within the same recruitment context, and face the same transport issues (Green et al., 2013; Lindsay, 2005). As such, studying neighbour impact is difficult to measure as the cause could be attributed to the individual themselves or the context within which

they live. For example, disadvantage can be ascribed to a lack of social network or local recruitment and selection practices (Devins et al., 2011).

Employer practices: recruitment and selection

Jobseekers have no control over the recruitment and selection practice of employers, the primary vehicle that determines the skills required within a local community, categorising individuals as employable or not (Devins et al., 2011). The changing demand for skills has allowed employers to adjust their recruitment and selection processes. Therefore, understanding employers' recruitment practices is a crucial part of understanding access jobseekers have to vacancies; however, it is often a 'neglected topic' (Keep & James, 2010). In a slack labour market, when demand is low, informal recruitment methods are more common, with social networks adding value to the process. Conversely, in a tight labour market, when demand is high and when competing with other jobseekers for vacancies, individuals need to have an understanding of the recruitment process (Keep & James, 2010). Yet, the methods that jobseekers use to apply for work have changed over the years, moving from traditional print methods, newspapers, to the internet as a contemporary method of searching for and applying for vacancies (Green, 2017; Green, de Hoyos, Li & Owen, 2011).

On one hand, jobs are often advertised and closed when a sufficient number of applications have been made, rather than a pre-determined deadline (Green, 2017). The result is that individuals with access to the internet are at a greater advantage than jobseekers without access (Tunstall et al., 2012), with the onus on the individual, once

again, to take greater responsibility for their job search (Chertkovskaya, Watt, Tramer & Spoelstra, 2013). On the other hand, ICT has provided jobseekers with wider access to labour market information and vacancies across wider geographical reach (Green, 2017). Furthermore, the use of recruitment agencies becoming a mainstay in the labour market (Clayton & Brinkley, 2011) particularly across low-level positions in less-skilled occupations (Countouris, Deakin, Freedland, Koukiadaki & Prassl, 2016; Recruitment and Employment Confederation, 2015; Spermann, 2016). This change in the recruitment process precludes anyone who does not meet the essential criteria, for example, requisite qualifications and soft skills determined by HR policies.

Moreover, employers are not necessarily targeting long-term unemployed jobseekers in the recruitment process, perceiving long periods of unemployment unfavourably, with low expectations of commitment and work-readiness contributing to a high-turnover approach to recruitment of short-term lower-level positions (Devins & Hogarth, 2005; Newton et al., 2005). Albeit employers are sometimes incentivised to hire disadvantaged jobseekers (Campbell, 2000), high turnover positions do not always provide secure work and development opportunities, thus failing to provide that stepping-stone required to progress in the labour market (Berntson et al., 2006; Devins & Hogarth, 2005). While industry and job-specific skills are developed through employer-funded training, softer skills may go undeveloped if an employer believes them to be an individual's responsibility to develop despite arguments which suggest employers are responsible for developing the employability skills of their staff (de Grip et al., 2004; Hurrell, 2016). These practices ensure that those employees already disadvantaged in the labour market are unlikely to improve their employability,

especially jobseekers are precluded from entering the workplace, when the workplace is the only place to develop some of these requisite skills (Rosenbaum, 2002).

To illustrate, de Grip et al. (2004) rejected the notion that employability is simply a supply-side characteristic independent of context; instead approaching employability from a sector-specific context. To differentiate the employability of workers across sectors, they developed a theory-driven Industry Employability Index (IEI) that matched individual employability to the needs and opportunities in a particular sector. The IEI combined relevant determinants of employability alongside sector-specific conditions. First, supply-side variables were similar to those listed as Individual Factors: (1) willingness and desire to engage in development activities; (2) capacity; (3) willingness and capacity to be mobile across jobs and location; (4) willingness and capacity to engage in training; and (5) willingness and capacity to be functionally flexible. Second, demand factors included the sectoral need for specific employability characteristics based on societal developments (e.g. technological or economic). Finally, 'conditions of effectuation' or opportunities to develop individual employability included contextual conditions such as the labour market.

Local labour market

The role of the labour market as an employability factor signals a move away from a narrow supply-side focus of employability (Berthoud, 2003), suggesting employability is a function of the match between supply and demand for labour (Kleinman & West, 1998). As an alternative to supply-led frameworks, Berthoud's

(2003, 2009, 2011) quantitative empirical work considers the characteristics which prevent individuals from entering the labour market. While not proposing a formal framework, Berthoud (2003, 2009, 2011) produced comprehensive empirical evidence which identified a range of factors predicting employment outcomes so that a framework is extrapolated from his studies, the majority of which is comprised of individual factors. He calculated the additive and cumulative effects of specific disadvantaging characteristics on an individual's likelihood of unemployment and found that the risk of unemployment increased as the number of disadvantages increased. Those with the highest risk factor for unemployment fall into the following categories: (1) over 50 years of age; (2) lone parent or living alone; (3) low skilled or with low educational qualifications; (4) mentally or physically impaired; (5) live in an area with unemployment over 9.5 per cent; or (6) belonging to an ethnic or minority group. For those who had all six disadvantages, over 90 per cent were unemployed, compared to four per cent who did not belong to any category.

Berthoud (2003) found that the risk of unemployment has more of an additive than a cumulative effect, that is, employability variables are interrelated. For example, age was not a disadvantage on its own; only when combined with other disadvantages, e.g. low skills or health residing in an area with high levels of unemployment, was the risk of unemployment significant. The standout finding was the difference between the sizes of the risks: for a non-disadvantaged individual, the risk of unemployment was three per cent compared to 17 per cent across the general population; however, for those who were disadvantaged it ranged from 50 per cent to 90 per cent. These risk factors are not dissimilar to findings which suggest they do not need to be added to

other factors to present a barrier to employment. From Berthoud's work, it is apparent that demographic characteristics, personal circumstances and external factors influence employment outcomes. Hence, individuals are as employable as their local labour market allows them to be, with labour market success attributed, in part, to person-centred factors. As such, in a slack labour market, disadvantaged jobseekers can find themselves at the back of queue for jobs. Inversely, in a tight labour market, highly skilled individuals have more choice, thus making room for disadvantaged jobseekers to enter employment as employers have limited access to labour supply.

Nonetheless, with geographical variations in employment rates more evident for less skilled individuals (Green & Owen, 2006), living in a region with a high level of unemployment is more likely to disadvantage people, particularly in the absence of suitable jobs (Webster, 2000; 2005). Seminal works in the 1990s (i.e. Beatty & Fothergill, 1994; Green, 1994; Webster, 1997) identified the growth of disability benefit claims in post-industrial labour markets, suggesting that an increase in Incapacity Benefit claims were a mask for 'hidden unemployment'; thus reducing the number of unemployment benefit claimants, but increasing Incapacity Benefit (IB) claimants (Evans & Williams, 2009). Subsequent evidence (i.e. Beatty et al., 2000, 2009) demonstrated that 'hidden sicknesses' also explained the growth in disability claims (Lindsay et al., 2015). More recently, Beatty and Fothergill (2013) demonstrated that deficient demand for labour is at the root of the UK's high disability benefit numbers, not insufficient work incentives and a lack of activation measures. Thus, emphasising the importance of considering demand-side policies as a means to stimulate job opportunities for those caught in the benefits system (Beatty & Fothergill

2005).

Moreover, evidence suggests that activation policies are more successful in buoyant labour markets (Gore, 2005). However, a work-first focus supply-led approach minimises the impact the labour market has on the likelihood of people entering employment (Kleinman & West, 1998; Serrano Pascual & Magnusson, 2007). Sunley, Martin & Nativel (2001) pointed out the geographical variances in regard to the 'success' of New Labour's New Deal for Young People (NDYP) employability programme, as many inner urban areas had not found the programme to be effective due to a 'recycling' of jobseekers through the programme based on local labour market structures. Similarly, McVicar and Podivinsky (2009) found that the degree of positive or negative impacts from NDYP was attributed to the individual as well as the regional labour markets. In part, positive gains to employability are rarely sufficient when structural inequalities and lack of employment opportunities inhibit the likelihood of jobseekers entering paid employment (Kamerade & Ellis Paine, 2014). Hence, any supply-side policy directed at activation and labour market attachment without considering the local geography a jobseeker engages with fails to address the bigger picture (Lindsay & Houston, 2013). In sum, local labour market demand is an essential factor in determining employment success, specifically for disadvantaged jobseekers.

Summary of Employability Variables

Individual employability is comprised of person-centred factors, but crucially dependent on external factors and personal circumstances (such as childcare and

transport issues or the labour market and employer practices) which may restrict the ability to move into employment, despite an employment offer. An interplay of individual and situational factors influences employability increase the risk of unemployment, with socioeconomic variables powerful predictors of obtaining employment. Socially entrenched, jobseekers are influenced by their social network and the will of the employer. Their willingness to travel for work is influenced by their social network and the selection processes within which their face must fit. Berthoud (2003) moved beyond earlier frameworks, acknowledging the impact of being a lone parent or living in an area of deprivation on the risk of unemployment; placing a substantial level of importance on the impact of external labour market demands on individual employability.

The influence personal circumstances have on individual employability is compounded by external factors: the geography within which a person resides and seeks employment; the buoyancy of the labour market within that geographical region; and the resources available within that geography. Thus, with all of these challenges and potentially unknown barriers to employment, it is difficult to see how anyone on their own could navigate the environmental demands, never mind an individual who may be further at the back of the jobs queue. With this in mind, the debate over who is responsible for individual employability rumbles.

2.3.5 Enabling support to facilitate the employability journey

This discussion brings us back to the beginning. LMIs exist for the purpose of

implementing labour market policy in practice, delivering the employability and skills support required to ensure unemployed jobseekers are meeting the demands of employers and obtaining work. The focus for LMI is to determine what ‘high employability’ looks like, and to ensure they deliver a service which offers specialist employability advice supporting jobseekers into work. Pre-employment preparation and post-employment support include training and referrals to specialist provision, interview preparation, access to ICT skills provision, work experience and volunteering as part of active labour market policies (Dench et al., 2006; Green et al., 2013). Many LMIs consider a ‘toolkit’ of tangible assets to be an essential aspect of deployment and presentation, consisting of items including a birth certificate, bank account, CV, employment references, interview clothing, and also a driving licence (Tamkin & Hillage, 1999; UK Government, 2017). Job-searching skills include the establishment and setting of realistic job goals, and the ability to utilise various application methods such as online job-searching, completing applications forms or submitting a CV, labour market knowledge, and how to present themselves to an employer (Bellis et al., 2011; Fugate et al., 2004; Hillage & Pollard, 1998).

While the above is specific to job-search behaviour, LMIs will need to address a more comprehensive set of barriers, for example, condition management for health conditions, childcare needs, and the support from internal employer engagement teams which source hidden vacancies within the labour market for the LMI. For more complex partners through the LMI’s supply chain are brought in to offer the jobseeker expert advice and guidance. The Scottish Government emphasises their role in ensuring claimants progress towards employability through the removal or

management of barriers (Hepburn, 2018), for example, addiction, convictions, homelessness and health. Furthermore, the drive and commitment individuals direct towards their job-search behaviour are influenced by their motives for obtaining employment, for example, financial need and employment commitment, but also the job search support provided within their environment (Leana & Feldman, 1995; McArdle et al., 2007). As such, LMIs engage jobseekers, break down their barriers, and coach them towards participation in the labour market. Crucially, this latter point is targeted at the level of the LMI; however, the organisation does not coach, nor train, nor offer advice and guidance, the adviser employed by the LMI does. Previous employability frameworks could have explored the role of enabling support in more depth and as such leaves a substantial gap in the latest holistic employability frameworks.

2.4. GAPS IN EXISTING EMPLOYABILITY FRAMEWORKS

There are two gaps which emerge from the review of employability frameworks and existing empirical evidence. First, employability outcomes are generally associated with employment (Koen, Klehe, & Van Vianen, 2013; McArdle et al., 2007); however, employability can be an antecedent or an outcome (Dries, Forrier, de Vos & Pepermans, 2014). Understanding the distinction between employability as an antecedent to employment or as an outcome itself gives credit to jobseekers faced with barriers to employment. Within welfare-to-work, the success of employability programmes is predominantly measured by quantifiable 'hard outcomes': performance criteria and governance measures based on the presentation

of quantifiable data about job starts, qualification attainment, engagement numbers and those exiting the programmes. However, for some jobseekers, their journey towards employment can be dynamic and gradual, and employment is not likely to be achieved within the timescale of the contract they are on. Specifically, jobseekers with severe health, personal or social issues may require more personalised support over a more extended period (Lakey et al., 2001). The second gap is the omission of the adviser as an 'enabler' of employability and labour market success. Green et al. (2013) considered the role of LMIs and agencies as 'enabling support', but the adviser who delivers interventions which can either succeed or fail. While employability is, indeed, a collective endeavour, it is not the LMI themselves, but the adviser employed to deliver the welfare-to-work policy in practice which supports a jobseeker (e.g. Dall & Danneris, 2019).

2.5. CHAPTER CONCLUSIONS

Employability is a dynamic and multi-dimensional construct, and frameworks act as the foundation for operationalising and measuring factors which predict and shape individuals' employability outcomes. All frameworks suggest person-centred factors are required to carry out job-search behaviours and gain employment while acknowledging the importance of personal circumstances and external factors on individual employability. There are varying opinions on where the responsibility for individual employability lies: with the jobseeker, employers or enabling support through LMIs, or all three. The most recent framework (Green et al., 2013) emphasised the important role of enabling support from LMIs in enhancing the employability of

jobseekers and then supporting them in their subsequent employment. Through this exploration of empirical evidence and frameworks, individual, personal and external variables provide the content for the delivery of government-commissioned employability programmes and interventions delivered by LMIs.

However, two gaps have been identified. First, while skills development is vital in the transition from unemployment to paid employment, there is a more comprehensive range of factors which influence individual employability, such as health, caring responsibilities, social networks, and transport - all potential enablers or barriers to employment, thus employability progression for those jobseekers with complex barriers entering employment should be a measure of success. Second, the role of the adviser in enabling jobseekers' employment outcomes has yet to be included in any frameworks. While McQuaid and Lindsay (2005) and Green et al. (2013) have come closest to creating a framework which is relevant within the context of long-term unemployed jobseekers, considering the role of LMIs as 'enabling' support, policies are enacted at the frontline by advisers. Hence, as Chapter 3 will argue, there is a clear need to understand the role of the adviser as the 'enabler' of employment success, guiding jobseekers through all internal and external barriers to employment.

CHAPTER THREE

JOBSEEKER-ADVISER SOCIAL EXCHANGE: IMPLICATIONS FOR EMPLOYABILITY

This chapter identifies the role of the adviser as a critical determinant of the successful delivery of employability programmes. Building on the Green et al. (2013) employability framework which emphasises the importance of LMIs delivering ‘enabling support factors’ to aid a jobseeker towards employment, this thesis maintains that the adviser, not the LMI, is the key enabler of jobseekers’ success. The quality of the interaction between an adviser and their jobseeker, as co-producers of personalised support, is critical to producing employability outcomes. However, constrained by street-level barriers, ‘true’ personalisation is rarely delivered in practice. Furthermore, evidence suggests that jobseekers are more concerned about their relationship with their adviser, and specifically what they do or do not receive by way of expected support and effective IAG activities. Hence, employability may be an individual outcome, but it is often the result of a collaborative effort. Therefore, the effectiveness of employability programmes can be understood through the jobseeker-adviser social exchange, which can be operationalised through the psychological contract.

This chapter begins by examining social exchange theory as a useful conceptual fit for explaining jobseeker-adviser relationships in a welfare-to-work context. Next, three arguments related to the delivery of employability programmes in

practice are discussed: the role of a dedicated adviser in providing personalised support; the context which shapes the delivered of such support at street-level; and the social exchange between the jobseeker and adviser as a factor influencing employability outcomes. Finally, the psychological contract will be introduced, examining the assumptions within the concept which align with both the workplace and employability programmes.

3.1 SOCIAL EXCHANGE THEORY: THE CONCEPTUAL FOUNDATION FOR EVALUATING THE JOBSEEKER-ADVISER RELATIONSHIP

Adopting social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) as the conceptual foundation for examining the jobseeker-adviser relationship can aid in understanding how each exchange partner can maximise the rewards they receive through their interactions with the other party. In this thesis, both the adviser and jobseeker benefit from the latter's entry into employment. A central tenet of social exchange theory is the norm of reciprocity, which posits that "when one party benefits another, an obligation is generated" (Gouldner, 1960, p.174). General unspecified obligations and undefined favours leave each party compelled to return the favour, but at their discretion. If reciprocated, a series of exchanges between parties ensue over time (Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007). In sum, exchange behaviours are strategic, formed and perpetuated on the generation of obligations that produce reciprocal action which will result in benefits that could not be achieved in isolation (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Forrier et al., 2018; Wikhamn & Hall, 2012). As such, individuals are motivated to engage with others if they believe they will receive something positive in return.

The employment relationship is a prime example of social exchange, consisting of an effort-bargain between two parties continuously renewed on either side (Behrend, 1957; Rubery, Earnshaw, Marchington, Cooke & Vincent, 2002; Tekleab & Taylor, 2003). However, social exchange is also apparent in the welfare-to-work context. Investigations of personalisation in practice demonstrate the quid pro quo which occurs when advisers are expected to deliver tailored support to jobseekers, despite the negligible impact it may have on their performance targets and the compliance constraints they may face. Ultimately an inherent tension exists in advisers between whether to use their discretion to do what is required for the jobseeker or do what is right for the adviser (discussed in 3.2.3).

Characteristics of welfare-to-work are also reflected in workplace research that suggests employers initiate the exchange relationship (Wikhamn & Hall, 2012), but the employee is responsible for what they receive by responding to inducements with reciprocal behaviours (Forrier et al., 2018). In a review of employability literature, Forrier et al., (2018, p.5) propose that in the workplace:

Employability investments on the part of the employer are currency for employees' engagement in the relationship, typically assessed by commitment...or turnover intention...This view on social exchange is highly agentic: Control over the employment relationship rests with the individual and is based on an expected gain in employability.

This definition draws out two main points that require attention. First, employability

is a valuable commodity to some; traded only in response to commitment and engagement. Thus, reciprocity ensues. Second, and reminiscent of employability literature, the responsibility for obtaining ‘investment’ lies with the employee; the employee is responsible for behaving in a way that produces the outcomes they seek. Advisers, too, set out the conditions for any social exchange between themselves and the jobseeker, for example, holding them to their Claimant Commitment and rewarding them for their engagement by offering the support they seek and require, of discretionary effort. While employability is seen as a commodity, or currency to be traded, Sok et al. (2013, p.275) also suggest that “employability is the outcome of the exchange process between employer and employee”.

Therefore, studying the jobseeker-adviser relationship under social exchange theory can aid in understanding how individuals exchange inducements and rewards to achieve a fair balance of reciprocal effort, to achieve a positive outcome for both parties while led by the person in a position of power (i.e. employer or employee). But first, before discussing how social exchange within a welfare-to-work context can be measured through the psychological contract, it is important to set the backdrop against which advisers deliver employability programmes.

3.2. SOCIAL EXCHANGE: THE IMPORTANCE OF THE ADVISER

3.2.1. The Importance of personalisation

Activation and contemporary welfare policy propose that personalised support from a dedicated named personal adviser is key to the successful delivery of

employability programmes (van Berkel & Valkenburg, 2007; Daguerre & Etherington, 2009) (See Box 3.1 for a description of the adviser role). Without a suitable ‘one-size-fits-all’ programme to meet the needs of a heterogeneous group of long-term unemployed jobseekers, jobseekers as “experts on their own lives” (Needham, 2011, p.59) can benefit from tailored co-produced support (Daguerre & Etherington, 2009, 2019; Fuertes & Lindsay, 2015; Houston & Lindsay, 2010; Lindsay, Pearson, Cullen & Eadson, 2018; McNeil, 2009; UKCES, 2010; van Berkel & Valkenburg, 2007). Consequently, LMIs are advised to adapt their services to suit the needs and wants of the jobseeker through personalised and flexible support (Carr, 2010; DWP, 2008; Gregg, 2008; OECD, 2005), acknowledging that “what works is what makes sense to the individual jobseeker in a specific situation” (Danneris, 2018, p.370). The value of personalisation, therefore, is in placing the jobseeker at the forefront of their employability journey, making decisions regarding the service they receive in collaboration with their adviser (Johansson, 2007).

Box 3.1

The Adviser Role

Advisers facilitate labour market inclusion through the delivery of personalised information, advice and guidance, in tandem with managing jobseekers’ conditionality, in the context of target-driven welfare organisations (Borghini & Van Berkel, 2007; Dall, 2020). An adviser is expected to identify a jobseeker’s employability needs and subsequent activities in collaboration with the jobseeker – action planning each task as a means of accountability, but also to evidence progress (Gregg, 2008). One-to-one consistent support

includes services such as CV preparation, interview skills training, benefits advice, job search techniques, and assistance with financial planning and health issues (Kellard, Francis & Mitchell, 2007; Griffiths & Durkin, 2007). Advisers ultimately aim to ‘build’ individual employability through ‘construction work’, promoting, for example, the consumption of labour market and job-search information and training (Rosenthal & Peccei, 2006b, p.668).

Bellis et al. (2011, p.35) set out specific “drivers of adviser behaviour” observed during interviews with jobseekers. They noted that while adviser style varied, good practice emerged as effective questioning techniques; identification of transferable skills; displaying empathy; referrals to specialist support; ensuring compliance with a co-produced action plan; and displaying knowledge of the local labour market, as well as clearly explaining obligations and responsibilities. The latter suggests that the responsibility for setting out the conditions for social exchange is within the remit of the adviser, the initiator of the exchange (e.g. Forrier et al., 2018; Wikhamn & Hall, 2012).

Investigations of the advisers’ influence on jobseekers’ employability are primarily concentrated on the delivery of personalisation, whereby advisers and jobseekers co-produce how policy is implemented in practice (Dall & Danneris, 2019; Fuertes & Lindsay, 2015; Toerien et al., 2013). However, while personalisation is promoted as a cost-effective person-centred approach to the delivery of employability services, the success and delivery of ‘true’ personalisation remains the subject of much debate and discussion (Considine, Lewis, O’Sullivan & Sol, 2015; Dall & Danneris,

2019; Rice et al., 2018; Valkenburg, 2007; van Berkel & Valkenburg, 2007).

3.2.2. How interactions are formed and perpetuated: a personalisation perspective

Most government and LMI policies focus on what the adviser *does* (substantive dimension of personalisation) (Toerien et al., 2013), that is, the substance of what is offered to address the jobseeker's employability needs. For example, one-to-one interviews aimed at helping jobseekers with CV preparation, interview skills training, financial support, job search techniques, and benefits advice (Griffiths & Durkin, 2007; Kellard et al., 2007; Scottish Executive, 2006; Scottish Government, 2005). The exploration into *how* (procedural dimension of personalisation) jobseeker-adviser interactions form and perpetuate has been conducted (Rosenthal & Peccei, 2006a, 2006b; Toerien et al., 2013), and what emerged is a picture of advisers limited in their ability to offer a genuinely personalised service due to organisational constraints and policy governance. Rosenthal and Peccei (2006b) found that advisers, in either the JobCentre Plus (JCP) offices or LMIs providing employability programmes, will categorise their jobseekers to determine their journey (Box 3.2): some organisations set out the structure and process as part of their delivery model whereas some advisers decide to prioritise their caseload based on a triage process (Rosenthal & Peccei, 2006a, 2006b). With their own caseload of jobseekers, and their own targets, how advisers worked with different jobseekers, and how they defined job-readiness (e.g. experience, qualifications, agency, self-knowledge, effort and motivation), was used to determine the service the jobseeker was offered (Rosenthal & Peccei, 2006a, 2006b).

Box 3.2

Categorisation of jobseekers

Categorisation practices are referred to as ‘creaming and parking’, a strategy adopted by advisers in order to cope with caseload sizes and the pressure of targets (O’Sullivan, McGann & Considine, 2019; Rosenthal and Peccei, 2006a, 2006b). Advisers go through a "rational decision-making" process (Considine, Nguyen & O’Sullivan, 2018b, p.1186), which can involve prioritising jobseekers based on their proximity to the labour market, and consequently providing differential treatment (Hudson, Philips, Ray, Vegeris & Davidson, 2010; Rees, Whitworth & Carter, 2014). As a result, they are potentially ‘parking’ jobseekers further from the labour market while working to achieve targets by working with the ‘creamed’ job-ready participants (Rees, Taylor & Damm, 2013; Sol & Hoogtanders, 2005). Advisers offer services to jobseekers not only based on whether they are entitled to it, or need it, but also whether the adviser perceives them as 'deserving' and 'worthy' as a result of their attitudes and behaviours (Hirst et al., 2006; Rosenthal & Peccei, 2006a; Wright, 2003). Greer, Schulte & Symon (2018) observed creaming and parking across all Work Programme ‘prime contractors’, and to a lesser degree, the non-profit subcontractors.

One dimension is not preferred over the other, as both are required to support the development of an individual's employability (Meager et al., 2014; Millar, 2000; Newton et al., 2012). However, *what* an adviser does, and *how* they do it, do not always ‘converge’ to offer up a truly personalised service; instead, personalisation is on a

continuum with full personalisation rarely achieved (Toerien et al., 2013). Where adviser support lies on that continuum can be influenced by available resources, for example, despite the best of intentions an adviser may be constrained by the delivery model they are governed by which prescribes time-bound tasks and set activities the jobseeker has to undertake. For example, the funding received by LMIs, the delivery model and duration of the contract, will determine the "frequency and intensity of service" received by jobseekers, with those not progressing quickly enough "prioritised out" (Duckworth & Sotiropoulos, 2012, p.14). Moreover, some advisers will manoeuvre their way around the checklist and ensure they ascertain jobseeker needs and deliver what is required (Toerien et al., 2013), supporting the notion that advisers adopt "professional pragmatism" (van Berkel & Valkenburg, 2007, p.250) when in their jobseekers, or their own, best interest.

3.2.3. The problem with personalisation in practice

Ambiguous and subjective, personalisation within employability services is often described in a policy context, without explanation of the mechanisms driving personalised support as an output. In part, this is because "there are no easy measures of it" (Meager et al., 2014, p.161). However, the main contention with the delivery of personalised support is that while public policy may decree what is required in theory, it is at street level that policies are enacted and demonstrable through frontline service behaviours (Lipsky, 1980, 2010; Wright, 2003). Moreover, personalisation makes presumptions about the delivery of employability programmes.

Adviser Discretion

First, underlying the assumption that advisers have the discretion to deliver flexible and on-going services is an inherent tension (Lipsky, 2010; Nothdurfter, 2016). Advisers have a considerable level of discretion (Van Berkel et al., 2010), which signals a shift in their role beyond one that is predominantly administrative (i.e. managing conditionality and distributing benefits) (Fletcher, 2011; van Berkel & van der Aa, 2012). On one hand, the greater the flexibility and discretion to make decisions the better an adviser can address jobseeker barriers based on their specific needs, instead of adopting a standardised approach (Hasluck & Green, 2007; Haughton et al., 2000; Hirst et al., 2006). On the other hand, discretion is often ungoverned and influenced by adviser knowledge, ability and motivation (Lipsky, 1980; 2010; Nothdurfter, 2016; Rosenthal & Peccei, 2006a; van Berkel & Valkenburg, 2007; Wright, 2003).

The intention behind adviser behaviour is brilliantly captured in the language used to describe discretion in action. Discretion affords advisers the opportunity to “play a key role in providing or denying access to welfare state provisions, in treating clients in a harsh or more lenient way, in distributing sticks and carrots” (van Berkel, van der Aa & van Gestel, 2010, p. 449). Advisers evaluate their jobseekers’ compliance and effort to decide whether to go the 'extra mile', overlook sanctionable activities, or park jobseekers altogether (Maynard-Moody & Musheno, 2003; Rosenthal & Peccei, 2006a). Moreover, Dickens, Mowlam and Woodfield (2004) found that while some advisers provided solutions for their ‘challenging’ jobseekers, others withheld effort.

Similar results emerged from a study by Fletcher (2011), adopting more forceful language, suggested that advisers attempt to build a positive relationship with jobseekers but will use “extreme forms of coercion” for less “resistant” jobseekers and adopt “an adversarial approach to working with ‘hardcore’ clients” (Fletcher, 2011, p.450).

Advisers are identified as “both caregivers and knowledgeable counsellor[s] who must discipline the clients for their own good” (Seale, Buck & Parrotta, 2012, p. 514). Despite the rhetoric of personalised support, however, it is those disciplinarian or less cooperative advisers are successful in supporting jobseekers into employment, driven by “caseworker [adviser] rigor” and with success attributed to the enforcement of conditionality, rather than the quality of the employability programme itself (Huber, Lecher & Mellace, 2018, p.182). In practice, high caseloads and personal targets can inhibit discretion or drive discretionary behaviours which have the potential to disadvantage jobseekers, as advisers focus on essential tasks (often mandatory and administrative) rather than taking time to understand the jobseeker’s challenges and aspirations (McNeil, 2009; Newton et al., 2012; Rice et al., 2018; UKCES, 2010; Wright, 2013). This leads to the second challenge with personalisation, economic and operational barriers preclude personalisation.

Operational Constraints

Predominantly, employability programmes are delivered according to the ethos of New Public Management (NPM) (Lindsay et al., 2014), with a performance-driven

agenda deemed an efficient way for public organisations to ‘work better and cost less’ (Hood & Dixon, 2015). At an organisational level, the delivery of employability programmes is shaped by payment-by-results (PbR) funding models and performance management systems which curtail access to resources and drive the need for pre-programmed standardised activities (Rees et al., 2014). A lack of access to any tailored specialist provision is evident in research which purports that LMIs are unable to, or chose not to, deliver personalised services in practice (Rees et al., 2014; Wright, 2013). What happens is the opposite of any policy intent, LMIs deliver a standardised service even to jobseekers who require just the opposite in order to improve their employability and manage their barriers (Ceolta-Smith et al., 2015; Lindsay et al., 2018; O’Sullivan et al., 2019; Rice et al., 2018; UKCES, 2010). However, the way in which personalisation is delivered can be understood by looking at what happens at street level (Brady, 2018; Jordan, 2018; O’Sullivan et al., 2019).

Advisers act in ‘functional ways’ to achieve their targets when constrained by a lack of resources, driven by organisational outcomes instead of ‘professional judgement’ (Fuertes & Lindsay, 2015). A perverse incentive considering adviser targets are inadequate measures of the quality of support provided (Burgess, Propper, Ratto & Tominey, 2017; Fryer, Antony & Ogden, 2009; Moullin, 2017). By way of illustration, a Work Programme evaluation demonstrated that jobseekers were asked to complete an online self-assessment of their employability which generated an automated action plan with standardised recommendations based on their responses; a practice fundamentally contrary to the principles of personalisation (Newton et al., 2012). A subsequent Work Programme review also discovered that jobseekers were

subject to standardized, and repetitive, activities relating to CV writing and job-search knowledge and behaviours (Fuertes & Lindsay, 2015), activities which could be useful for some but not all, with their value often unclear to both adviser and jobseeker (Newton et al., 2012). The same review did, however, uncover personalisation within jobseeker-adviser exchanges; advisers sought to understand their jobseekers' specific barriers to work whether they were work-related or not (Fuertes & Lindsay, 2015). Nevertheless, the content of the meetings (e.g. IAG relating to health and well-being and addiction) has been raised as a potential risk: advisers are reported to be delivering "amateurish counselling and advice" in the face of limited resources (Jordan, 2018, p. 598). Fewer resources mean that unqualified advisers are expected to address barriers that are beyond their capability and should be addressed by specialist advisers (UCKES, 2010). This question of capability leads to the next concern relating to personalisation.

Adviser skills, knowledge and motivation

Third, personalisation presupposes that advisers have the specialised knowledge to deliver truly personalised services to jobseekers who may face specific disadvantages or health conditions. As the nomenclature suggests, it can be challenging to support 'hard to help' jobseekers into employment when they have barriers that have precluded them from finding work of their own volition (Berthoud, 2003; Nothdurfter, 2016). However, the adviser role has changed over the years (and with each iteration of government-commissioned employability programmes) (McNeil, 2009). Once a more bureaucratic role, increasingly advisers are expected to

offer tailored IAG addressing a multitude of complex needs and barriers, such as mental health conditions, homelessness and addictions (Haughton et al., 2000; McNeil, 2009). However, advisers are not necessarily skilled, trained or qualified to work with such jobseekers (Bredgaard & Larsen, 2008; Ceolta-Smith et al., 2018; McNeil, 2009; Rosenthal & Peccei, 2006a). Curiously, even when advisers know better, they may not do better.

Bolhaar, Ketel and van der Klaauw (2020) investigated the relationship between Dutch caseworkers' (i.e. advisers) knowledge of effective welfare-to-work programmes and their subsequent implementation. In an experiment (randomised control trial) conducted in the Netherlands, advisers were asked to deliver one of five programmes (e.g. job matching, counselling, activation) and jobseekers were randomly assigned to advisers. After delivering the programme and experiencing its intricacies, post-experiment advisers were made aware of which programmes were more effective (i.e. job matching). Despite being aware of the 'best' programme, post-experiment advisers continued to use methods they knew had adverse outcomes (i.e. job-search activation programmes) even though they had the discretion to change their approach and behaviours, suggesting old habits die hard (Behncke, Frolich & Lechner, 2010; Bolhaar et al., 2020). Consequently, Bolhaar et al. (2020) propose that the solution to effective welfare-to-worker delivery is a government-led mandate to reduce adviser discretion by, for example, enforcing mandatory participation on programmes evidenced to work. However, they also acknowledge that benefit claimants are not homogenous, and some discretion is required to deliver truly personalised services. Nevertheless, even when advisers are aware of 'what works', this knowledge is not a

sufficient incentive for effective delivery of programmes.

Tension between choice and compulsion

Finally, and fundamentally, employability programmes are often mandatory. Jobseekers' choice of LMI and adviser is not theirs to make, and their engagement on employability programmes is a forgone conclusion once a set duration of unemployment has been reached. They are not 'customers' despite the language of the Work Programme (DWP, 2012): there is conditionality attached to their attendance and the activities they carry out. Theoretically, personalisation is grounded in consumerism and choice whereby jobseekers have the right and responsibility to identify their barriers and associated solutions, what is more, they also free to exit any service which is not satisfactory (Considine et al., 2018a; van Berkel & Valkenburg, 2007). However, in reality, personalised services are not indicative of co-production but mandatory requirements and conditionality or evaluations of client worthiness (Rosenthal & Peccei, 2006a, 2006b; Stafford & Kellard, 2011; UKCES, 2010). Therefore, a substantial constraint to delivering effective services lies within the inevitable tensions between compulsion and personalisation, driven by concepts of activation and conditionality (Needham, 2011; Sol & Westerveld, 2007).

In sum, the delivery of personalised support is problematic. The interventions and support an adviser provide is based on their discretion, and driven by operational constraints, with effective services undelivered even when advisers are aware of their benefits. Thus, an advisers' discretion and decision to deliver personalised support (or

not) can help or hinder the chances of the jobseeker progressing into employment, especially if not derived from co-production with the jobseeker (Fletcher, 2011; Hudson et al., 2010; NAO, 2006; Wright, 2003). Consequently, personalised support is only as good as the advice and guidance the adviser is able and willing to provide the jobseeker (Hasluck & Green, 2007; OECD, 2005). Nevertheless, while the above are constraints to delivering effective services, they are not deal-breakers. When advisers are challenged to meet both organisational targets and individual needs (Nothdurfter, 2016), they adopt “professional pragmatism” which allows for applied discretion, building relationships with jobseekers to achieve aid their entrance into the workforce, sometimes in spite of governance (van Berkel & Valkenburg, 2007, p.250). A social exchange occurs within that interaction, thus, to understand activation as a ‘social’ or ‘relational’ process which occurs daily between advisers and jobseekers, there is a need to better understand both parties’ participation in building that relationship (Dall & Danneris, 2019; Wright, 2013).

3.2.4. How interactions are formed and perpetuated: the importance of the jobseeker-adviser relationship

Missing in the research above is the emphasis on understanding the social process involved facilitating a personalised approach, for example, the extent to which each party is treated with respect (Toerien et al., 2013) or delivering on their promises and obligations (Newton et al., 2012). A jobseeker will, for example, view the service they receive as personalised or not based on how they perceive the quality of the relationship with their adviser (McNeil, 2009; Newton et al., 2012). Thus, more than

just the knowledge and skill of the adviser, and the willingness of the jobseeker, nor the IAG provided that supports the jobseeker's employability journey, but the interaction between both parties' guides activities (Rosenthal & Peccei, 2006, 2006b; Rosholm, 2014; Toerien et al., 2013).

In an exploration of activation regimes across Europe, Penz, Sauer, Gaitsch, Hofbauer and Glinsner (2017) found that advisers attempt to develop trustworthy relationships, treating jobseekers as co-producers of the policies they administer; but were hindered by governance. Advisers worried that enacting conditionality, such as triggering the sanction process, could jeopardise the relationship they worked to build (Dickens, Mowlam & Woodfield, 2004); a fear that is justified as jobseekers find trusting their adviser difficult due to their “power to cut their benefits as well as the responsibility for providing them with labour market support” (Lakey et al., 2001, p.vi). Attempts to build relationships were not entirely altruistic. As an illustration, Employment Zone advisers worked to develop rapport and trust with jobseekers, predominantly to gain their buy-in and collaboration, from which they could effectively challenge unproductive and negative attitudes, motivate the jobseeker, and increase their confidence (Griffiths & Durkin, 2007). However, jobseekers consequently felt involved in their journey, despite the compulsion to attend appointments and comply with mandatory activities. As a result, the jobseeker-adviser relationship provided a space for negotiation and choice, which in turn resulted in jobseekers considering activities and employment they may not have previously considered (Griffiths & Durkin, 2007).

Adviser behaviours and qualities that are attributed to the success of any given employability programme include traits such as friendly, helpful, approachable, caring and understanding, fair, and sympathetic (DPW, 2013b; Lakey et al., 2001; Millar, 2000). In an evaluation of participant experience on the Work Programme, the concept and language of 'personalisation' went unacknowledged by jobseekers, with a great deal of emphasis placed on their 'relationship' with their adviser instead, mainly what they did or did not receive by way of support (Meager et al., 2014; Newton et al., 2012). Haughton et al. (2000) use the language of social exchange to suggest a 'commitment', or even a psychological contract, is created between clients and advisers at the beginning of their relationship; this process can help convey a clear message of the purpose of the programme but also manage client choice and expectations. Notably, problems arose where there was a gap between expectations and reality. "Relationships with advisers had broken down" when, for example, jobseekers felt pressure to apply for unsuitable jobs, feared sanctions, and felt angry when advisers did not offer the support the jobseeker expected or requested (Meager et al., 2014, p.89). This tension between expectations and reality is often difficult to manage and can inhibit the delivery of effective services to jobseekers in need, particularly the most vulnerable (Rice et al., 2018).

Nevertheless, jobseekers were aware of the tension advisers face between delivering a personalised service and achieving targets. They appreciated being respected, listened to, and positively rated advisers when they were "... 'trying their best' and 'wanting to help' even when they were still waiting for tangible outcomes...", irrespective of whether they were close to obtaining work or not (Meager et al., 2014

p.162; Newton et al., 2012, p.103). Similar results arose across earlier employability programmes (for example, New Deal): jobseekers who were most positive about the programme felt there was a “match between expectations and outcomes” (Arthur et al., 1999, p.188) or “their needs were being identified and met, and that they were improving their employability” (Millar, 2000, p.25). These reports are understandable, as to achieve any form of employability progression a trajectory to employment has to be meaningful and consist of clear goals (Danneris, 2018).

What emerges is that, as expected within social exchange theory, jobseekers make decisions relating to their investment in the jobseeker-adviser exchange relationship based on their positive and negative experiences, with those dissatisfied with adviser support at higher risk of disengagement from the programme, and thus less likely to enter employment (Newton et al., 2012, p.6, emphasis added):

*... the **quality** of the initial contact with the Work Programme provider was a critical influence on attitudes and motivation and subsequent engagement with the programme. This **quality** was enhanced by the personal manner, perceived reliability and pro-activity of the participant's main adviser. The findings suggest that regular, positive engagement with advisers can increase the engagement and motivation of participants over time. Conversely, **quality** was adversely affected in cases where the participant perceived they were being asked to engage in inappropriate or irrelevant activities, or to enter unsuitable employment.*

Likewise, evaluations of employability programmes delivered over the past 20 years emphasise the importance of the quality of jobseeker-adviser relationship in overcoming jobseeker barriers (Haughton et al., 2000; Millar, 2000). These results suggest that crucial to the success of employability programmes is the adviser, with their attempts to engage and support jobseekers to develop their employability either accepted or rejected by jobseekers. However, despite the aim to deliver person-focused employability programmes, jobseekers do not always engage in the interventions on offer to them; demonstrated through non-compliant behaviours such as failing to attend appointments with their adviser and refusing job offers (Considine et al., 2018b). Instead, jobseekers make decisions on whether they want to engage in the activities set out for them by advisers, assessing the value of the potential outcomes against the investment of their effort and time. Refusing a job or choosing to be non-compliant suggests the reward is not worth the costs, be that financial (such as childcare or travel) or psychosocial (such as time away from family and friends) (Considine et al., 2018b, p.1199):

...if the amount to be lost is not large enough to exceed jobseekers' cost of doing so, then it is no surprise that jobseekers will not always meet their mutual obligations...

The language of 'obligations' set out within social exchange theory and the psychological contract is also present in the language used for jobseekers engaging with advisers (e.g. Haughton et al., 2000; Considine et al., 2018b). What emerges from an evaluation of jobseekers' perceptions of exchange is their engagement with

employability programmes is influenced by expectations of, and interactions with, their advisers – either positive or negative. There is a seemingly clear alignment to social exchange, but specifically the psychological contract.

Contrary to the narrative driving the Government mandate for LMIs to ensure each Work Programme client has a dedicated named adviser is not necessarily a practice adhered to in reality (DWP, 2012; Meager et al., 2014). A Work Programme review (Newton et al., 2012) observed frequent rotations between clients and advisers depending on the stage of the jobseekers' journey or operational requirements. The report, however, noted benefits to rotation; such as a “fresh pair of eyes” and maintaining engagement when jobseekers became “too comfortable” with their adviser (Newton et al., 2012, p.51). Moreover, van Berkel (2013) suggests that variance in adviser effectiveness can explain why, on occasion, some jobseekers work better with different advisers. The LMIs were, therefore, cognisant of not ruining effective relationships by moving clients, fearing that some jobseekers would enter employment as an alternative to changing advisers (Newton et al., 2012). This finding highlights the importance of social exchange as a factor influencing whether someone chooses to enter work as an alternative to remaining on an employability programme. The worry may be whether LMIs attempt to ruin relationships to drive work-first activation and drive jobseekers into employment before they are ready and able to sustain. Nevertheless, the quality of interaction between an adviser and their jobseeker is seen as crucial to the individual's employment outcomes, and therefore vital to the success and effectiveness of employability programmes (Haughton et al., 2000; Rosenthal & Peccei, 2006a; van Berkel, 2013) and worthy of further investigation.

Evidence is inconclusive in regard to ‘what works’ to move unemployed jobseekers closer to the labour market (Dall & Danneris, 2019). However, when the research is focused less on the delivery of welfare-to-work programmes overall, and greater attention is paid to what happens at ‘street-level’, the effectiveness of employability programmes can be understood through the personal interactions and social exchange between advisers and jobseekers (Wright, 2013; Dall & Danneris, 2019). Activation is not spontaneous: it occurs only through the implementation of policy in practice by frontline staff (Nothdurfter, 2016; van Berkel & van der Aa, 2012). Indeed, the literature surrounding personalisation in employability services has specifically highlighted the importance of the interaction between the adviser and the jobseeker in producing employability outcomes (Rosenthal & Peccei, 2006a; van Berkel, 2013). More precisely, the research focuses on advisers’ delivery of personalised support via their discretion, influenced by the constraints of the mandatory nature of activation services, performance expectations, as well as their knowledge and skills. Driven by the organizational and contractual constraints advisers face, their interaction with jobseekers can be affected.

Adviser support is irrefutably crucial in the delivery of frontline employability services (Dickens, Mowlem & Woodfield, 2004; Hasluck & Green, 2007; NAO, 2006; van Stolk, Rubin & Grant, 2006), and the jobseeker-adviser relationship is an essential factor in producing employability outcomes (Rosenthal & Peccei, 2006a; van Berkel, 2013). Specifically, advisers can influence jobseekers’ employability through the IAG they provide based on their relationship (Rosenthal & Peccei, 2006b). As the initiators of social exchange, the onus is on jobseekers to demonstrate behaviours which

motivate their adviser to reciprocate. On one side of the desk, jobseekers should respond favourably to adviser support should they wish to receive IAG that will help them achieve gains in employability. On the other side, advisers should respond favourably to positive jobseeker attitudes and behaviours. The behaviours which both parties demonstrate are determined by much more than policy dictates. Therefore, a jobseeker's journey can, in part, be explained by looking at the jobseeker-adviser relationship, and not just the adviser's ability to perform their required tasks and duties.

Yet, where research is emerging, the focus is predominantly qualitative, and often investigated from a social policy and social work standpoint in Scandinavian and Nordic countries (Bolhaar et al., 2020; Dall, 2020; Rosholm, 2014; Huber et al., 2017; Nothdurfter, 2016). An understanding of the interaction between advisers and jobseekers is "underexposed", heavily driven by the focus placed on the role of frontline staff in delivering personalisation (Nothdurfter, 2016, p.453; Dall, 2020). Moreover, the jobseeker-adviser relationship has not been operationalised to predict or explain how the exchange produces employability outcomes. Therefore, by addressing the social exchange between jobseeker and adviser, and not just the employability skills and 'willingness' of the jobseeker, there may be a valuable insight into how this interaction between two parties, each with their objectives, may influence the jobseeker journey. More specifically, the psychological contract, a component of social exchange theory, is a useful framework for examining the quality of the jobseeker-adviser relationship.

3.3. MEASURING SOCIAL EXCHANGE THROUGH THE PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT

The psychological contract between employees and their employer is a critical component of the employment relationship (Rousseau, 1995). Propounded in the 1960s (Argyris, 1960; Levinson, Price, Munden, Mandl & Solley, 1962; Schein, 1965), the concept of the psychological contract has its roots in social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity, and proposes that individuals develop, maintain, and exit relationships based on the belief that the cost of the relationship is offset by the benefits (Blau, 1964). Rousseau (1989) carried out a seminal re-conceptualisation of concept, expounding it as dynamic and perceptual. Individual beliefs regarding the future exchange of reciprocal and mutual obligations between an employee and their organisation are based on perceived promises³ and judged on mutual contributions (Anderson & Schalk, 1998; Dabos & Rousseau, 2004; Rousseau & Tijoriwala 1998). In sum, psychological contracts occur when employees believe their organisation (or organisational ‘agent’) has agreed to reward them for their contribution.

Whether an obligation is conveyed implicitly (unwritten and implied through the other party’s behaviour) or explicitly (written, verbal or organisational policy), they are subjective and open to interpretation (Eckerd, Hill, Boyer, Donohue & Ward, 2013;

³ Debates ensue over the language of *expectancy*, *obligations* and *promises* (See Guest, 1998b; McGrath et al., 2015; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau & Tijoriwala 1998). In sum, expectations do not always involve promises, yet promises always involve expectations. Expectations are ‘contractual’ only when based on a *perceived* promise of reciprocal exchange (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1989).

Rousseau, 1989, 1998, 2001). For example, while the terms of an employment contract state that specific behaviours elicit specific rewards, the interpretation of the terms may be mediated by, for example, fairness, timeframe for exchange, tenure within the organisation and performance outcomes (Guest, 1998a; Herriot, Manning & Kidd, 1997; Rousseau, 1995; Tekleab, Takeuchi, & Taylor, 2005; Turnley, Bolino, Lester, & Bloodgood, 2003). Ultimately, perceived obligations make up the unspecified terms, or content, of the contract (Guest, 2004). However, the dynamic and subjective nature of the construct suggests that as one obligation is fulfilled, new ones are developed and renegotiated (Conway & Briner, 2005). Hence, subjective content can be limitless and contain “literally thousands of items” (Kotter, 1973, p.92), thereby making psychological contract fulfilment unlikely and instead psychological contract breach becomes the norm (Conway, Guest, & Trenberth, 2011; Guest, 1998a, 2004).

While psychological contract breach and fulfilment are both grounded in social exchange theory and norms of reciprocity (Rousseau, 1995), debates exist over whether breach and fulfilment are two sides of the same coin, both measuring the extent to which both parties think the terms of the psychological contract have been met (Alcover, Rico, Turnley & Bolino, 2017; Chaudhry & Song, 2014; Conway & Briner, 2005). ‘Fulfilment’ refers to a balance between promises and delivered obligations, that is, an individual perceives the other party to live up to their side of the bargain (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; Dabos & Rousseau, 2004; Rousseau, 1995). On the other hand, psychological contract breach occurs when an employee believes an employer has not fulfilled one or more of its obligations in a manner proportionate to their contribution (Anderson & Schalk, 1998; Morrison & Robinson,

1997), resulting in an inequitable social exchange relationship (Suazo, 2009). Both are associated with organisational outcomes; however, the vast majority of psychological contract research has focused on breach (Conway & Briner, 2009; Conway et al., 2011) as a breach can have a stronger effect on outcomes than fulfilment (De Jong, Clinton, Rigotti & Bernhard-Oettel, 2015). As such, the psychological contract has ‘some explanatory power’ with the potential to be used as a predictive analytic framework for investigating the social exchange between two parties on work-related outcomes (Guest, 1998a, p.661; Shore & Tetrick, 1994).

Perceived breach entails the cognitive evaluation that another person has failed to fulfil one or more of their promises. Violation is the negative emotional or affective state that can result from the experience of contract breach (e.g. emotional distress, feelings of betrayal, anger, or disappointment) (Morrison & Robinson, 1997, Shore & Tetrick, 1994). Violation is not an automatic response: not all cases of breach result in feelings of violation (Robinson & Morrison, 2000; Turnley & Feldman, 1999). However, empirical evidence indicates that violation plays a strong mediating role between perceptions of breach and organisational outcomes (Bordia, Restubog & Tang, 2008; Dulac, Coyle-Shapiro, Henderson & Wayne, 2008; Suazo, 2009; Zhao et al., 2007).

3.3.1. Contexts for psychological contract research: not a workplace monopoly

Research into the psychological contract within an employability context is limited (Isaksson et al., 2003). Predominantly investigated in a work environment,

exchange relationships have been explored in other service-based settings where there are both written and unwritten rules and expectations involving promissory-based obligations of rewards for effort. Menninger (1958) was one of the first to consider 'the contract' between a psychotherapist and their patient, identifying the importance of a satisfactory relationship and fair exchange between two parties to the continuation of the relationship. Subsequently, the psychological contract has been investigated between renter and landlord (Radford & Larwood, 1982), client and management consultant (Boss, 1985), customer and salesperson (Blancero & Johnson, 1997; Bordia et al., 2010b), academic staff and universities (Krivokapic-Skoko, O'Neill & Rupert, 2007), and within the context of mentoring (Haggard & Turban, 2012), volunteering (Nichols, 2013), the military (Pohl, Bertrand & Ergen, 2016), and marketing (Hannah, Treen, Pitt & Berthon, 2016).

A useful construct to investigate in a workplace or customer service environment, the psychological contract also provides valuable insight into other environments where there is a potential power imbalance between dyads (i.e. two individuals maintaining a social exchange relationship). Educational contexts and the student experience provide a more frequent source of data regarding interactions outwith the employee-employer dyad (Appleton-Knapp & Krentler 2006; Baethge & Rigotti, 2016; Blackmore 2009; Bordia, Hobman, Restubog, & Bordia 2010a; Bordi et al., 2010b; Bordia et al., 2015; Koskina, 2013; O'Toole & Prince, 2015; Willcoxson, Cotter & Joy, 2011). For example, Bordia et al. (2010a) investigated the student-supervisor relationship within the psychological contract framework and found that any broken promises or unmet expectations while engaging in a collaborative research

project would reduce student satisfaction and psychological well-being. More specifically, when obligations and respective roles were clear, and students felt these roles were upheld, satisfaction and well-being were positively affected. They suggest that the value in understanding the student-supervisor relationship lies in “the pedagogical function of collaborative projects is to prepare students for workplace collaboration and project management” (Bordia et al., 2010a, p.2378). It can also be reasoned, therefore, that it is also important to investigate the impact of the jobseeker-adviser relationship on employability outcomes as employability programmes aim to replicate the conditions of work (Newton et al., 2012).

Furthermore, Nichols (2013, p.987) suggested that “volunteers are a particularly interesting group to study as, without the formal contracts that employees are bound by, implicit contracts drive volunteer-manager relationships to a greater degree than the employee-employer relationship. Alternatively, it has been suggested that there is little difference between employees and volunteers, apart from monetary gain (Liao-Troth, 2001). Nevertheless, volunteers’ expectations were not always met by management, and unsupportive management resulted in unmet obligations and perceived psychological contract breach (O'Donohue & Nelson, 2009). Jobseekers receiving benefit receive monetary gain from the benefits they receive, but they are also required to adhere to formal contracts – possible more like employees than volunteers. Therefore, the psychological could be an essential part of the effectiveness of any mentoring, coaching, or IAG carried out in any voluntary or welfare-to-work provision, whereby failure to carry out expected activities may result in the perception of psychological contract breach.

In summary, psychological contract research is not the monopoly of a paid employment context. Customers, students, volunteers all experience psychological contract breach without satisfying the traditional psychological contract research inclusion criteria of receiving monetary gain. Power imbalances exist within these relationships, with unspecified implicit contract terms evolving over time and renegotiated through a variety of interactions. Therefore, it is not only useful to investigate the psychological contract in a work environment, but within any relationship involving promissory elements of rewards for effort. That being said, the jobseeker-adviser relationships mirrors, to some degree, the employment relationship whereby employees undertake work in return for pay (Bach & Edwards, 2013) with the caveat that the Government is responsible for 'paying' the benefit claimant, not the LMI or adviser. It is not too far a leap, then, to see the possibility of investigating the jobseeker-adviser psychological in a welfare-to-work context. To carry out this research in a new context, a better understanding of the nuances of psychological contract research must be considered.

3.3.2. Considerations to be made in the investigation of the psychological contract in a welfare-to-work setting

Psychological contracts are subject to design limitations: debates over language, the nature of the psychological contract content, and the oscillation over who the legitimate parties to a contract are will be briefly discussed below. As such, there are some central points about psychological contracts to address before considering the relevance of the psychological contract in the context of a welfare-to-work setting,

starting the content of the psychological contract.

Content: An assessment of expectations, promises or obligations

Research predominantly examines psychological contracts by the evaluation of the *state of the contract* (such as the degree of breach or fulfilment) or *content* (that is, specific obligations such as ‘loyalty’ or ‘development opportunities’). A content-based research focus can elucidate employee and employer expectations of the deal made between two parties, clarifying the unique obligations within each employee-employer (or jobseeker-adviser) psychological contract. Content items fall into *types*, generally across a relational-transactional continuum (Rousseau, 1990), with each type resulting in different employee attitudes and workplace behaviours. Relational contracts are open-ended long-term mutually interdependent relationships grounded in the expectation of job security in return for loyalty, with work shaped by trust and fairness: socio-emotional factors such as loyalty and commitment present barriers to exit within these contracts (Nichols, 2013; Rousseau, 1995; O’Donohue & Nelson, 2007). Alternatively, transactional contracts set out expectations of clear and well-specified performance tasks linked to contribution-based pay, traditionally, ‘a fair day’s work for a fair day’s pay’ (Hiltrop, 1995, 1996; McGrath et al., 2015; Rousseau, 1995, p.91).

Rousseau (1995) expanded the continuum into a 2x2 matrix which splits the contracts based on the duration of the employment relationship and the specified performance tasks and objectives and sets out a framework of four potential

psychological contracts, including not only transaction and relational contracts, but balanced and transitional. Methodologically, the evaluation of typologies is problematic, lacking reliability and validity across factors (Bunderson, 2001; Conway & Briner, 2005; Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000; Isaksson et al., 2003; McGrath, Millward-Purvis & Banks, 2015). However, an understanding of individual obligations can identify which contributions are related to specific inducements (Conway & Briner, 2005). These basic obligations ultimately make up the content, or terms, of the psychological contract, and while measured frequently within occupational settings, are not dissimilar from the obligations of jobseekers and advisers engaged in employability programmes.

When an organisation hires an employee, a written formal contract is created to prescribe the terms and conditions of employment regarding such aspects as remuneration, hours of work and task requirements. Likewise, when a jobseeker claims benefit, they too sign a contract (e.g. Claimant Commitment or JSA agreement) with the DWP which sets out their level of activity and the conditions for their receipt of benefit. Then, when a jobseeker is referred to a welfare-to-work LMI from JCP, this contract extends to include tasks an adviser deemed suitable for their jobseeker to complete to support their trajectory into employment. Unlike jobseeker and adviser obligations, a range of employee contributions (such as flexibility, loyalty, effort, and skills) and organisational inducements (such as job security, training, pay, promotion) have been identified, listed, and measured in the psychological contract literature, with regular references to job content, loyalty, and the provision of opportunities (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD), 2018; De Vos, Buyens & Schalk,

2003; Guest & Conway, 2002; Krivokapic-Skoko, Ivers & O'Neill, 2006; Robinson, Kraatz & Rousseau, 1994). A European Union project, Psychological Contracts across Employment Situations (PSYCONES) (2005, 2006; Isaksson et al. 2003) evaluated the relationship between well-being and employment contracts by creating a comprehensive list of validated evidence-based employer and employee obligations which they measured through Rousseau's (2000) validated psychological contract Inventory (Table 3.1). Employer obligations included, for example, ensuring fair treatment, provide employees with opportunities to advance and grow, and provide possibilities to work together 'pleasantly'. In return employee obligations included punctuality, meeting performance expectations, and developing their competencies to be able to perform efficiently.

The complication in measuring the content of the psychological contract in the workplace is that the terms of the contract lack specificity. Similarly, the complication in measuring the content of the jobseeker-adviser psychological contract is that 'personalised service' is subjective, with that the importance each exchange member places on each element differently weighted based on the needs and perspective of the jobseeker and adviser. Personalised conditionality varies between different jobseeker groups, and the Claimant Commitment varies from jobseeker to jobseeker (DWP, 2010, 2019). For example, a jobseeker claiming JSA would be expected to apply for jobs (with certain hours determined based on the individual jobseeker) (UK Parliament, 2013), whereas a jobseeker claiming ESA would not. However, just the DWP (Meager et al., 2014; Newton et al., 2012) conducted evaluations of the Work Programme and a participation survey which addressed the obligations of support a jobseeker should

Table 3.1. *Psychological contract content: employer and employee obligations relative to the obligations of Work Programme clients and advisers*

Employee Obligations	Employer Obligations	Jobseeker Obligations	Adviser Obligations
Respect the norms and regulations of the company	Provide employees with a safe working environment	Adhere to DWP conditionality and jobseeker's contract based on individual requirements	Help with writing a CV, job applications or interview skills
Be punctual (prompt)	Provide employees with a good / pleasant working atmosphere	Attend all appointments and courses booked for them	Drawing up an action plan
Be a good team player	Ensure fair treatment by managers and supervisors	Complete tasks as required on action plan	An assessment of your skills
Meet the performance expectations for the job	Help in dealing with problems encountered outside work	Make adviser aware of any changes to circumstances	Financial support to help cover the costs associated with looking for work (e.g. travel expenses or childcare costs)
Assist others with their work	Provide an environment free from violence and harassment	Respect for adviser and other members of staff and jobseekers	A place on a training course or session on motivation or confidence
Work overtime / extra hours required	Provide employees with a reasonably secure job	Disclose barriers	Financial advice of some sort
Show loyalty to the organization	Provide employees with opportunities to advance and grow	Honesty	A work experience placement or voluntary work
Work enthusiastically on jobs they would prefer not to do	Allow employees to participate in decision-making	Build employability skills	Support or training in numeracy or literacy
Volunteer to do tasks outside their job description	Provide employees with a job that is challenging	Seek out development opportunities	Advice or support relating to your health or a disability
Develop new skills and improve current skills	Be flexible in matching demands of non-work roles with work	Apply for jobs	Help with housing issues
Develop their competencies to be able to perform efficiently	Provide employees with a career	Commit to working	Help or advice related to having a criminal record
Take the responsibility for their career	Improve future employment prospects of the employees		Help or advice in relation to looking after children or adults

Note: Employee and employer obligations adapted from PSYCONES (2005); obligations adapted from Work Programme evaluations (Meager et al., 2014; Newton et al., 2012)

expect to receive from their adviser (Table 3.1). This complexity is why when operationalising the psychological contract, it is often investigated based on any perceived breach, or as Guest (2004) positions it, the ‘delivery of the deal’, often measured as an overall score, not looking at individual items (Freese & Schalk, 2008).

The influence of psychological contract breach on employability outcomes

Within welfare-to-work, the quality of the jobseeker-adviser relationship, and therefore, how they proceed in terms of the jobseeker journey, can be explored through psychological contract breach. Exchange agreements are based on the perception of reciprocal obligations, with continual evaluations and judgements made regarding the extent to which these obligations are met. To redress any perceived imbalance, employees will withdraw various forms of positive work behaviours (Conway & Briner, 2009). The result of psychological contract breach is often negative attitudes and behaviours and subsequent negative organisational outcomes. To sum up an extensive amount of theoretical and empirical literature relating to outcomes of breach, a breached contract can negatively impact organisational commitment, job satisfaction, trust, organisational citizenship behaviours, in-role performance and intentions to leave (Bal, De Lange, Jansen, & Van der Velde, 2008; Conway & Briner, 2005; 2009; Coyle- Shapiro & Kessler, 2002; Lapointe, Vandenberghe & Boudrias, 2013; Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1995; Taylor & Tekleab, 2004; Turnley et al., 2003; Zhao et al., 2007) and also deviance behaviours (Mai, Christian, Ellis & Porter, 2016). Therefore, examining psychological contract breach is useful in explaining and predicting organisational outcomes that emerge from

employee-perceived unmet obligations (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000, 2002a, 2002b, 2003). Consequently, the psychological contract provides an intuitive analytical framework for predicting employee outputs for employer rewards (Guest & Conway, 2002).

Modelled on HRM literature, Hirschman (1970) developed the EVLN (exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect) framework with four main actions an individual may take in response to a perceived psychological contract breach (Rousseau, 1995; Turnley & Feldman, 1998, 1999, 2000): (1) exit (voluntary termination of the working relationship); (2) voice (effort to negotiate and resolve potential problems); (3) silence (hopeful for change; usually remains the same); or (4) neglect (counterproductive behaviour) (Turnley & Feldman, 1999). Where the relationship is constructive, an active employee can voice their concerns as they most likely have a positive and trusting relationship, where an employee is passive with no way of complaining, or no alternative opportunities elsewhere, they are likely to stay silent. Destruction or neglect will occur where there is a history of conflict and mistrust: employees could reduce effort, and managers could ignore staff and limit their opportunities for development. The response can differ depending on the individuals' perception of the cause of the psychological contract breach (e.g. deliberately or unintentionally renegeing, or incongruence) (De Ruiter, Schalk & Blomme, 2016; Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Rousseau, 1995). Also, the duration between turnover intention and actual exit can require a period of contemplation and can demonstrate a decrease in OCB and increase in deviance behaviours (Mai et al., 2016); in part, because the employment relationship becomes transactional rather than relational, exacerbated when the organisation is

blamed for the exit.

With limited research into the psychological contract in the welfare sector, Patmore (2008) reflected on the relationship between the psychological contract and non-engagement (or 'fail to attend rates') within JCP, subsequently proposing that a perceived psychological contract breach from the jobseeker's perspective could result in lowered commitment and lack of adviser trust which would consequently impact their intention to engage, for example, through 'neglect' or an 'exit'. For example, should an adviser fail to carry out activities despite promising or implying their commitment, for example, training or work placement (adviser breach) the jobseeker may then lose motivation to engage in the Work Programme and potentially fail to attend an appointment with their adviser (exit). Had they previously failed to attend appointments without penalty (i.e. a sanction) their expectation that nothing punitive would come from this activity forms part of their psychological contract with the other party. Furthermore, if the jobseeker fails to attend appointments after a series of non-compliance (jobseeker breach), an adviser might decide to reduce support (exit) or even raise a sanction (neglect). Patmore (2008) did not test or evaluate the concept of the psychological contract as a factor of the jobseeker-adviser relationship, but theorised that broken contracts potentially could contribute the effectiveness of the interaction between jobseeker and advisers, and the impact this has on the jobseeker journey towards employment. Much of Patmore's (2008) supposition is grounded in the application of *discretion*. In the face of breach, advisers may not offer jobseekers' training, CVs might not be created promptly, and valuable labour market information withheld. If a psychological contract is assessed as fulfilled or intact, advisers may

have positive attitudes toward customers (e.g. showing concern, apologising for inconveniences). Conversely, if psychological contract breach occurs, advisers may have negative attitudes toward jobseekers (e.g. using policies and processes to limit customer service, showing no concern for customer satisfaction).

Just as personalisation was criticised for not exploring the process by which decisions were made, the same could be said of psychological contract breach. While psychological contract breach steals the limelight in empirical studies, the “the interplay between the two parties’ obligations has been neglected” despite fundamentally embodying the concepts’ grounding in social exchange theory (Farnese et al., 2018, p.3). Furthermore, there is evidence to suggest that outcomes of a two-party exchange in employability programmes can be identified from the initial interaction (Bellis et al., 2011; Haughton et al., 2000; Newton et al., 2012).

The starting point: the formation of the psychological contract

Debates occur over the starting point for the development of a psychological contract, whether shaped by a schema and set of values individuals hold before entering employment (Rousseau, 2001) or formed only as soon as new employees engage with the new organisation (Maia, Bal & Bastos, 2019; Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Irrespective, new employees will form, renegotiate and evaluate the fulfilment of mutual obligations during their early socialisation within an organisation, often altering their commitment as a direct result of whether they perceive their organisation to be fulfilling their obligations or whether discrepancies appear between their

expectations and reality (Alcover et al., 2017; Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007; Chaudhry & Song, 2014; De Vos & Buyens, 2001; De Vos et al., 2003; Maia et al., 2019; Rousseau, 2001). ‘Reality’ appears within the first six months (De Vos & Buyens, 2001), with evidence of psychological contract breach acting as a trigger for adjustment to the psychological contract within the first year (Payne, Culbertson, Lopez, Boswell & Barger, 2015).

However, Haughton et al. (2000), for example, suggest that from the first day on an employability programme, there is a commitment or psychological contract, created between the jobseekers and advisers which should help convey a clear message of the purpose of the programme, activity levels, and support on offer. Moreover, Turner and McKinlay’s (2000) evaluation of NDYP found that jobseekers’ expectations before engaging were low. They were sceptical and disillusioned, with negative perceptions of the Government’s approach to training programmes. As a result, their commitment to the programme and future orientation to work was negatively impacted. Furthermore, as emerged from a recent Work Programme evaluation, it is the “quality of the *initial contact*” that drives future attitudes and behaviours of both jobseekers and advisers, which can be “enhanced” or “adversely affected” through future interactions (Newton et al., 2012, p.6, emphasis added). A ‘good’ adviser should clearly explain obligations and responsibilities to their jobseekers from the offset (Bellis et al., 2011). Therefore, such “initial contact” can be measured from the first interaction between two exchange partners.

Exchange agreement: mutuality and reciprocity of obligations

Perceived obligations at the beginning of a relationship give rise to mutuality and reciprocity. The agreement between two parties regarding one party's specific obligations (mutuality) and the reciprocal contributions these terms oblige (reciprocity) influence the effective functioning of an employment relationship (Rousseau, 1989, 1990, 1995, 2001a). Mutuality exists when both parties to the exchange share the same expectations of one party's specific obligations (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). For example, mutuality exists where an adviser and jobseeker both share the belief that the jobseeker has committed to applying for job vacancies. This agreement is the foundation for achieving future interdependent goals as mutuality drives both parties to engage in behaviours which may result in the fulfilment of expected obligations (Rousseau, 1995). Understandably, when both parties believe there is a mutual awareness of the obligations that comprise their exchange, they are more likely to be able to meet those expectations in the future (Rousseau, 1995). Although expectations are subjective implicit perceptions (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000; Porter, Pearce, Tripoli, & Lewis, 1998), therefore, discrepancies or gaps in each party's perception of the other party's obligations can result in breach (Coyle-Shapiro, 2001; Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Nichols & Ojala, 2009; Welandar, Blomberg & Isaksson, 2020). Krivokapic-Skoko et al. (2007, p.38) suggest that a mismatch between the most important features of an anticipated employee-employer exchange cause "unstable psychological contracts and employment relationships". However, Dabos and Rousseau (2004) suggest mutuality is not just perceptual, but is, to some degree, objective (*actual* mutuality), occurring concurrently across both parties allowing for an instantaneous assessment of the

disparity between expectations. Mutuality is therefore referred to as the “gold standard” within exchange relationships (Rousseau, 2004, p.123), with psychological contracts most likely to be met when there is agreement on the terms (Hannah et al., 2016; Ye, Cardon & Rivera, 2012).

Reciprocity is more complicated than mutuality, a temporal phenomenon, based on the assessment of exchanges over time reciprocity allows for the evaluation of any return on investment before carrying out any future actions. Reciprocity, as set out by Dabos & Rousseau (2004, p.53) “refers to the degree of agreement about the reciprocal exchange, given that commitments or contributions made by one party obligate the other to provide an appropriate return”. Individuals generally seek a fair balance between reciprocal inducements and contribution (Rousseau, 2004; Taylor & Tekleab, 2004; Tekleab & Taylor, 2003). Consequently, two cognitive processes occur when trying to maintain the psychological contract, with either positive or negative results: 1) ‘If you fulfil your side of the deal, I’ll fulfil mine’; 2) ‘if you fail to fulfil your side of the deal, I won’t fulfil mine’ (Alcover et al., 2017). For example, should an adviser provide a jobseeker with a job vacancy, they may expect jobseekers to return the favour in the future or behave in a way that is advantageous to the adviser, maybe applying for that job or seeking development opportunities to improve their employability. Where that jobseeker fails to reciprocate the earlier actions of their adviser, the quality of the exchange relationship weakens (Morrison & Robinson, 1997).

Studies of employee-employer social exchange have demonstrated that gaps in

mutuality (i.e. agreed obligations) at the start of a relationship provide explanatory power for future attitudes and behaviours (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000; Herriot et al., 1997; Porter et al., 1998). The gap in some of these earlier studies, however, was the lack of paired employee-employer data instead focusing on individual perspectives. Dyadic analysis has gained popularity in recent years (e.g. De Ruiter et al., 2016; Klaussner, 2014), but one of the first to investigate the role mutuality and reciprocity plays in employment relationships, Dabos and Rousseau (2004) assessed the common perceptions of both parties across 80 employee-employer dyads. Investigated in a university research centre where research staff had autonomy and control over their activities, they analysed the variance in mutuality and reciprocity across subjective measures of fulfilment and intentions to remain, as well as objective measures of productivity and career advancement. An assessment of agreement between both parties suggested that mutuality and reciprocity were both positively associated with productivity and career advancement, as well as fulfilment and intentions to remain. They concluded that “convergence in the psychological contracts of employees and employers...can serve the interests of both parties to an employment relationship” (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004, p.69). This research setting resembles the jobseeker-adviser exchange which is also built around contractual requirements and autonomous working, with measures of improved employability analogous to career advancement.

Additionally, Vandendaele et al., (2016) investigated mutuality and reciprocity in the student-practitioner relationship (specifically, student researchers and an organisation who commissioned the research) and found that both components enabled better quality relationships and improved performance and outcomes. Moreover,

recently, Farnese et al. (2018) investigated the contribution of mutual obligations to attitudinal outcomes (e.g. turnover intentions) across 500 police officers and their organisations; tellingly, they entitled their paper “you can see how things will end by the way they begin”, with perceived obligations at the beginning of employment influencing outcomes and contract fulfilment three months later. Specifically, mutual high obligations led to the highest level of outcome (i.e. commitment), while unbalanced psychological contracts produced the opposite result (i.e. turnover intent). Results were aligned with the norm of reciprocity, whereby efforts are made to restore balance. The study’s specific focus on newcomers demonstrated a “positive spiral of increasing promissory beliefs about both employee and employer obligations” (Farnese et al., 2018, p.9), whereby mutual high obligations triggered a higher level of newcomers’ obligations in subsequent months, leading to a more ‘empowered’ socialization process. Thus, where mutuality and reciprocity exist, employee and organisational benefits ensue.

In sum, Dabos and Rousseau (2004, p.69) suggest that mutuality and reciprocity are fundamental to the concept of the psychological contract:

The bedrock of functional employment relationships are exchanges between workers and employers characterized by mutuality or shared understanding of all parties’ obligations and reliance on their reciprocal commitments.

Therefore, it is vital to psychological contract research to investigate the perceptions

of both parties' perceptions of their social exchange at the beginning of their relationship and for comparisons to be made to garner a full understanding into the exchange relationship.

Social exchange is a two-party relationship

Psychological contract research frequently adopts a unilateral approach, measuring the views of the employee alone (Rousseau, 1989; 1990; 1998) rather than a bilateral approach capturing both employee and manager perceptions (Cullinane & Dundon, 2006; Nichols, 2013). The popularity of this approach is, in part, to minimise the practical methodological challenge of capturing the many and divergent expectations of multiple agents an employee may exchange with (Alcover et al., 2017; Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Freese & Schalk, 2008; Rousseau, 1989). Early definitions of the psychological contract imply the exchange relationship is between employee and organisation (e.g. Kotter, 1973). However, an 'organisation' is an abstract entity that "cannot perceive" (Rousseau, 1989, p.126), and consists of several feasible exchange partners, therefore raising the issue as to who represents the organisation (Guest, 1998a). Most commonly, managers are designated the organisational 'agent' in the employment relationship (Rousseau, 1989, 1998; Hallier & James, 1997) and exploring the management viewpoint provides the opportunity to understand where collaboration and conflict exist (Herriot et al., 1997).

Guest (1998a; 1998b; 2004) fundamentally argues against Rousseau's (1989) view that an employee is the sole holder of a psychological contract, as it negates the

central theme of the psychological contract's reliance on reciprocity and ignores the contradictory nature of discretionary reciprocity and power relations between managers and staff. Not all parties enter into contracts from a level playing field or navigate their work environment with the same interests and values as their organisation, with power relations arguably underplayed in the investigation into psychological contracts (Cullinane & Dundon, 2006; Dick & Nadin, 2011). However, Rousseau (1995), as Nichols (2013, p.995) suggests, recognises the balance between “free engagement and coercion”, suggesting that contracts are a product of choice (i.e. you can *choose* to reciprocate perceived obligations) yet acknowledges the influential nature of organisations as they seek to convince employees to accept their terms. Coyle-Shapiro and Shore (2007) suggest that organisational agents will act in the best interest of the organisation; however, self-interest may supersede the interests of the organisation, making decisions (e.g. personnel concerns such as pay increases) based on the power and political interests they have in regard to their exchange partner (Hallier & James, 1997). For example, in a longitudinal study of reciprocity managers were found to be the dominant force in the employment relationship, initiating and influencing relationships, and altering their behaviours in response to their interpretation of their employees’ psychological contract fulfilment (Coyle-Shapiro, 2001). Managers have also been evidenced to rate their own contract fulfilment higher than employees rated them (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000). At the beginning of the relationship, however, employees are perceived to have greater responsibility for living up to their obligations to their employers, than an employer to the employee (Patrick, 2008).

Overall, only by understanding the perceptions of both parties to the exchange, can the exchange be fully understood (Conway & Briner, 2005; Freese & Schalk, 2008; Herriot & Pemberton, 1997; Robinson & Morrison, 2000; Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998). Moreover, a one-sided view of a two-party exchange fails to explore the unique and distinct set of perceived mutual obligations that drive a relationship. Jobseeker-adviser exchange in the context of welfare-to-work is built around contractual requirements between two parties, discretion and power imbalances. As such, a useful one-sided view of a two-party exchange cannot exist.

3.4. CHAPTER CONCLUSIONS

Literature reviews and government evaluations describe tailored support, yet there is limited research into the impact of the jobseeker-adviser relationship on employability outcomes (van Berkel & Valkenburg, 2007). Furthermore, the ‘relationship’ has not been operationalised to predict or explain how it may impact the jobseeker’s journey. However, social exchange encapsulates jobseeker-adviser relationship challenges: a power imbalance exists between the instigator of the exchange relationship and the recipient of discretionary behaviour, and the distribution of effort an adviser can expend is constrained and impacted by the enforcement of policies and governance. With the potential to be used as a predictive analytic framework assessing the impact of perceived obligations between two parties on frontline outcomes, the psychological contract can provide a useful measure for understanding the exchange relationship in the context of welfare-to-work or any exchange relationships where there are both written and unwritten rules and

expectations, power imbalance, and promissory elements of rewards for effort (Guest, 1998a; Rousseau, 1998). If this social exchange is examined through the concept of the psychological contract, it may provide greater insight into why some jobseekers are more likely to improve their employability or enter employment, and why some advisers are more successful at working effectively with their jobseekers to help them (both) achieve their goals.

CHAPTER FOUR

CONCEPTUAL AND RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

Chapters 2 and 3 identified the importance of the jobseeker-adviser relationship for the employability outcomes of long-term unemployed jobseekers. The discussion proposed that there is value in understanding the effects of the psychological contract on employability outcomes within a welfare-to-work context. The current chapter sets out a conceptual framework to achieve the objectives of this research, specifically, (1) identify factors that significantly influence the employment outcomes of jobseekers attending the Work Programme; (2) add to an emerging body of research investigating employability progression as an outcome of welfare-to-work programme delivery; and (3) examine whether employment outcomes are impacted by the jobseeker-adviser relationship. Based on this framework a series of hypotheses are developed. From here on in, the language of “jobseekers” will be used interchangeably with that of “clients”: “jobseekers” will refer to a generalised population of unemployed individuals receiving benefits or seeking employment; while “clients” will refer to the sample of Work Programme participants in this study more specifically.

4.1. DEVELOPMENT OF A REVISED EMPLOYABILITY FRAMEWORK

Employability frameworks present varying emphasis and conceptualisations: some adopt a narrow view considering the fundamental supply-side aspects of employability, and others will consider contextual factors and labour market influence

in a broader framework. From these frameworks key elements effect jobseekers' ability to obtain and retain employment: skills, assets, social and human capital; individual factors (such as health and impairments); personal circumstances managed, and barriers addressed; awareness of employer practices and labour market demand; and government policy in practice. However, considering the importance the Government and welfare-to-work LMIs place on the role of the adviser to enable individual employability at the frontline, these frameworks neglect to consider the impact of the adviser in delivering IAG at street level.

Green et al. (2013) has provided a comprehensive framework across individual skills, circumstances, external labour market and contextual factors as an influence of employability, signalling a greater emphasis on the welfare-to-work industry and government programmes as both part of the problem and the solution to employability. In doing so, they bridged the gap between theory and practice and introduced the impact of 'enabling support' from government and LMIs as a factor influencing individual employability. Figure 4.1 depicts a summary of the high-level measures that encapsulate the employability variables in Table 2.1.

Van Berkel (2013) has highlighted that those who work at the frontline of welfare-to-work are often neglected as a factor influencing the effectiveness of the programmes they are delivering, which is a substantial empirical gap considering the adviser, and their relationship with a jobseeker, can impact a jobseeker's journey towards an employability outcome: a gap this thesis seeks to address through revised employability framework which introduces the adviser as the overarching 'enabling

support' factors but more specifically the jobseeker-adviser relationship as an important employability variable (Figure 4.2).

Figure 4.1. Summary structure of existing employability frameworks

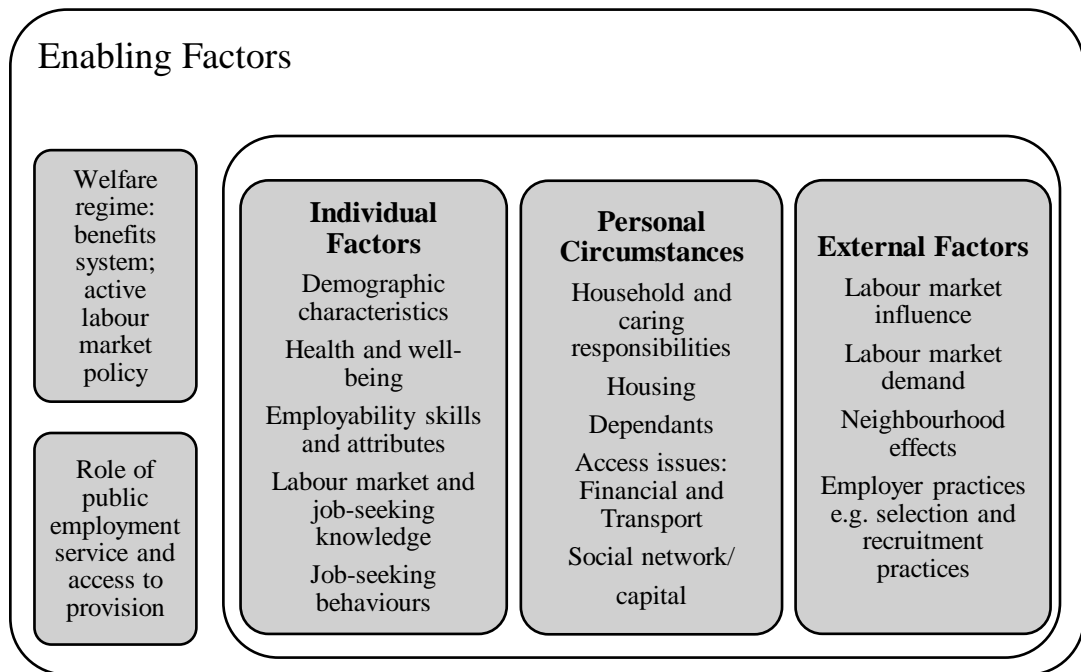
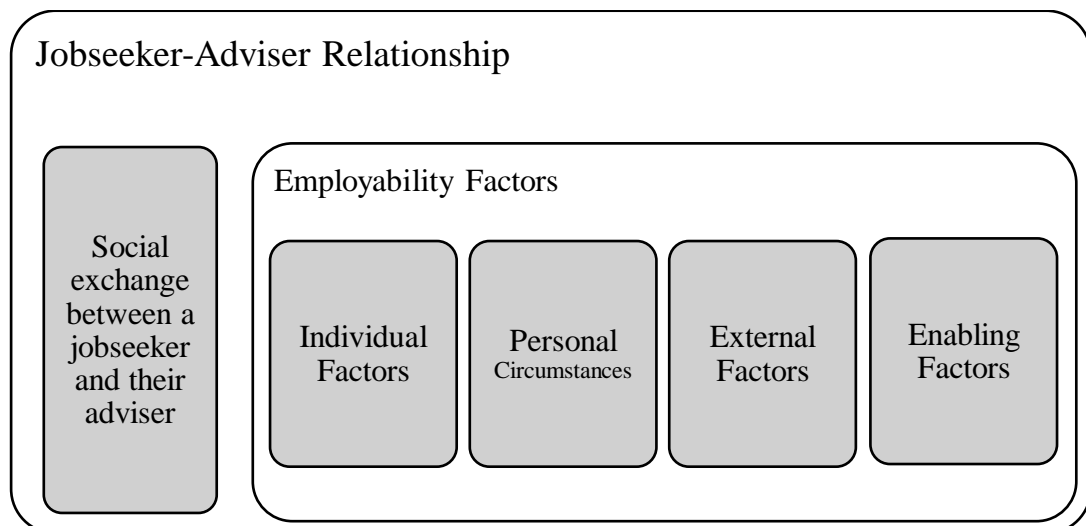


Figure 4.2. Revised Employability Framework (Butler, 2020)

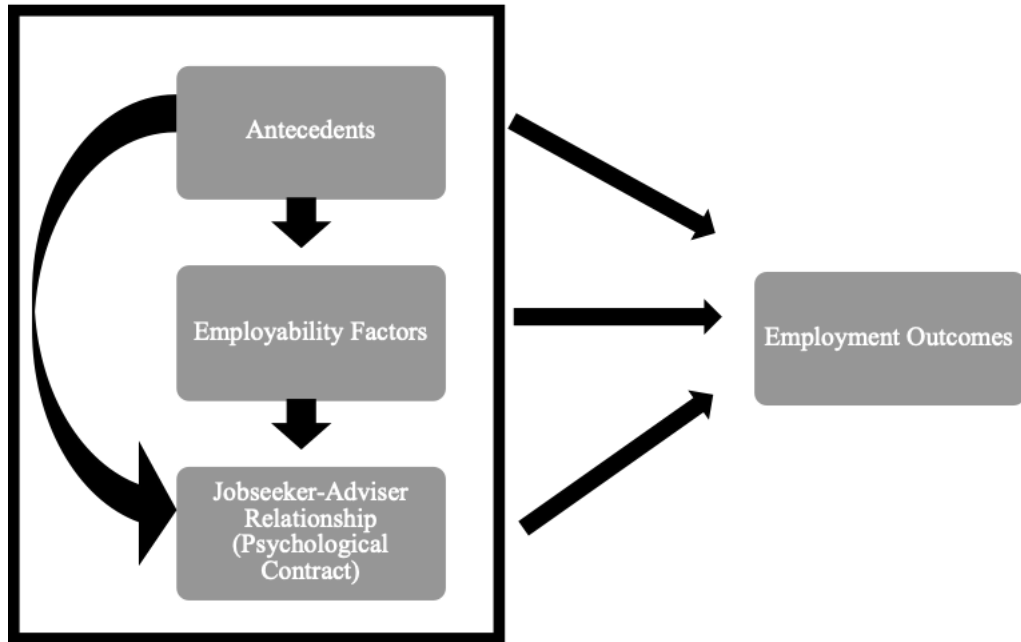


The impact of jobseeker-adviser relationships on employment outcomes has been described in terms of personalisation and discretion but has not operationalised to determine its impact on employability outcomes. This thesis is adopting the concept of the psychological contract to investigate how the relationship between adviser and jobseeker contributes to a jobseeker's journey towards employment. The psychological contract has the potential to be used as a predictive analytic framework (Guest & Conway, 2002) within an employability context in a welfare-to-work setting (Patmore, 2008; Sok et al., 2013). In this study, the focus will be on investigating the obligations of advisers and jobseekers (the content of the contract captured through Mutuality and Reciprocity) and Psychological Contract Breach (delivery of the deal) as determinants of jobseeker employment outcomes.

Capturing multi-source data, this study is seeking to obtain valuable insight into how this interaction between the jobseeker and their adviser, each with their objectives, may influence the jobseekers' employability journey. More specifically, and central to this thesis, is the argument that the jobseeker-adviser relationship can contribute to employability outcomes, alongside antecedents (e.g. demographic variables) as well as employability factors (such as individual factors, personal circumstances, external and enabling factors) (Figure 4.3). While demographic antecedents can also be construed as 'employability' factors (Chapter 2), in this thesis they are distinct measures to account for their permanent nature which, unlike 'employability factors' cannot be altered by their attendance on the Work Programme. Hence, this thesis proposes that the jobseeker-adviser relationship is an important determinant of employability outcomes, amongst other well-evidence employability

variables.

Figure 4.3. *Conceptual framework of a jobseeker's employability journey*



In sum, the framework depicts the determinants of employment across (a) antecedents (b) employability and (c) the jobseeker-adviser relationship; while also acknowledging (at the periphery) that (d) demographics and employability influence the jobseeker-adviser relationship. The conceptual framework will next be discussed as the foundation for formulating hypotheses and a subsequent research framework.

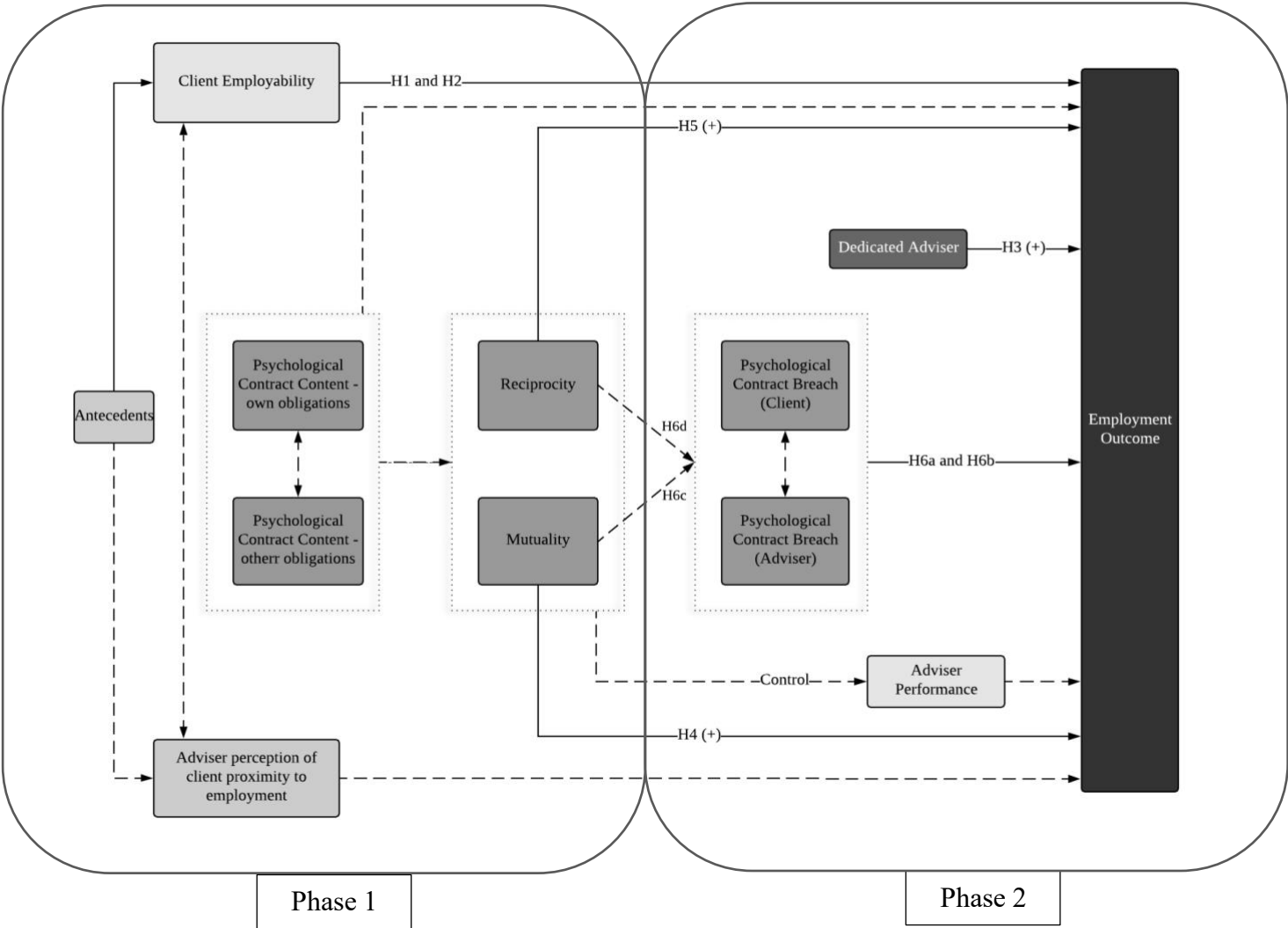
4.2. RESEARCH FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

The research framework (Figure 4.4.) aims to understand how psychological contracts, alongside other determinants of employment, influence employment

outcomes, and therefore informs how advisers support clients into employment. Based on previous research and hypotheses to be discussed, this framework was developed to determine the influences and expected outcomes for the thesis, highlighting the multi-level approach to the empirical research (Figure 4.4). Each of the concepts is measured across two phases to address the hypotheses set out, which will be discussed further in the methodology chapter. In sum, Phase 1 presents the introduction of clients to their advisers, identifying employability variables and initial client and adviser perception of obligations. Capturing obligations at this stage is vital to assess perceived mutuality and reciprocity. Phase 2 captures data relating to client outcomes, adviser performance and perceived breach of psychological contracts.

To achieve the objectives of this research, an assessment of employability frameworks and the role of the adviser, combined with theoretical understandings of the psychological contract, allows for the development of multiple hypotheses. Green et al.'s (2013) framework provides a starting point for exploring employability variables. The role of the adviser could be measured through personalisation, which research suggests is essential; however, this thesis proposes that personalisation is not as crucial to employability and employment outcomes as the jobseeker-adviser relationship; effectively, personalisation is the result of the relationship. Therefore, the jobseeker-adviser relationship is measured through the psychological contract. For unemployed jobseekers, *entering employment* is the most commonly measured employment outcome captured at the end of a prescribed period. This thesis also considers *employability progression* an outcome measure.

Figure 4.4. Conceptual framework and research hypotheses for exploring employment outcomes of unemployed jobseekers attending the Work Programme



To being, existing employability frameworks integrate a variety of internal and external factors to understand the antecedents and determinants of individual employability. With a historically agentic emphasis on managing employability, individual factors are cited regularly as important factors influencing employability outcomes; however, an ever-increasing emphasis on demand-side external factors has widened the scope for employability research (e.g. Green et al., 2013; McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005). As previously discussed (Chapter 2) the variables measured within this thesis are important determinants of employability outcomes, almost all of which have unequivocally demonstrated an association with employment outcomes. Demographic data such as age, gender, education, health and length of unemployment (e.g. Beatty et al., 2010; Berthoud, 2003; Dench et al., 2006; George et al., 2015) are likely to be significant antecedents to employability outcomes. Furthermore, while theoretically espousing a balance between supply and demand factors driving outcomes, an agentic focus within employability literature has emphasised the importance of person-centred attributes and characteristics in the development of employability. As such, it can be proposed that individual factors will play a substantial part in whether a jobseeker obtains employment or not, with significant variables likely to include job-search self-efficacy and skills (e.g. Devins et al., 2011; James, 2007; Kanfer et al., 2001; Martin et al., 2008) and job search behaviours (e.g. Kanfer et al., 2001; Wanberg, 1997; Wanberg et al., 2002).

Nevertheless, the range of employability factors will be parsimoniously captured into one measure of employability, an *Employability Index*, to be discussed in Chapter 5 (Methodology). Thus, recognising the literature which suggests that

clients with 'high' employability (Fugate et al., 2004) are more likely to obtain work, while those with multiple barriers are at the back of the jobs queue (Beatty et al., 2000), it is expected that jobseekers who have fewer barriers to work (and thus a 'higher' level of employability) will have more positive employability outcomes. In this regard, the following hypothesis was formulated:

Hypothesis 1 (H1): *Clients with higher Employability Index (EI) scores at Phase 1 are more likely than clients with lower EI scores to enter employment by Phase 2.*

The progression a jobseeker can make towards employment can be dynamic, gradual, and multi-dimensional. Individuals with complex needs require different support, and often end up at the back of the jobs queue (Beatty et al., 2000), while those with 'high' employability enter employment. As such, it is difficult to measure progress with customers who have multiple complex barriers through hard outcomes such as job starts alone as they are not often suitable in identifying what it takes to get to the front of the 'queue'. Therefore, understanding employability progression is not only important as a means of measuring progression but also to understand the route people take to employment. Few hypotheses can be proposed for progression, and instead, this study will explore the change in employability, that is *employability progression*, from Phase 1 to Phase 2 six months later. Therefore, the following can be hypothesised:

Hypothesis 2 (H2): *Clients with lower Employability Index (EI) scores*

at Phase 1 are more likely than clients with higher EI scores to demonstrate employability progression at Phase 2.

Moving forward, and as highlighted thus far, the problem this thesis seeks to address is the oversight in existing employability frameworks to include the jobseeker-adviser relationship as an enabling factor within established employability frameworks and to add to the literature around the impact of the adviser on jobseeker outcomes. Before addressing the relationship, there are particular influences on employability outcomes which are worthy of inclusion as a hypothesis. Namely, the personalised support jobseekers receive from a dedicated adviser is considered crucial to the success of employability contracts (Haughton et al., 2000; Millar, 2000; McNeil, 2009; van Berkel & Valkenburg, 2007). Hence, while this thesis is not investigating personalisation per se, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 3 (H3): *Clients who work with the same adviser across the six-month research duration are more likely than clients who do not have a dedicated adviser to (a) enter employment and (b) demonstrate employability progression.*

A dyad-level analysis allows investigation of the agreement between the jobseeker and adviser regarding specific obligations (Mutuality) and the reciprocal contributions these terms oblige (Reciprocity) to identify the role of misaligned expectations on shaping objective outcomes. Moreover, Dabos and Rousseau (2004) suggest mutuality is not just perceptual, but is, to some degree, objective, occurring

concurrently across both parties, essential to achieving future interdependent goals, thus the “gold standard” within exchange relationships (Rousseau, 2004, p.123). Evidence suggests where mutuality and reciprocity exist, employee and organisational benefits ensue (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004; Farnese et al., 2018; Vandendaele et al., 2016), therefore, the following hypotheses were formulated:

***Hypothesis 4 (H4):** Mutuality at Phase 1 will be associated with whether a client enters employment or not by Phase 2. Specifically, the greater the Mutuality, the more likely a client is to enter employment; and the lower the Mutuality, the less likely a client is to enter employment.*

***Hypothesis 5 (H5):** Reciprocity at Phase 1 will be associated with whether a client enters employment or not by Phase 2. Specifically, the greater the Reciprocity, the more likely a client is to enter employment; and the lower the Reciprocity, the less likely a client is to enter employment.*

When faced with a psychological contract breach, individual redress any perceived imbalance by reducing their inputs or withdrawing from the relationship (Rousseau, 1995). The relationship between psychological contract breach and a wide range of adverse organisational outcomes is well established, for example, absenteeism, turnover and deviance behaviours (Bal et al., 2008; Zhao et al., 2007). Within welfare-to-work, broken psychological contracts could impact how either party

proceeds in terms of the services offered and accepted, which guide the jobseekers' journey towards employment. Therefore, examining contract breach is useful in explaining, and predicting, jobseeker and adviser behaviours (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2002a; 2002b; Tekleab & Taylor, 2003).

Clients who perceive adviser psychological contract breach might *exit* their relationship by disengaging from the Work Programme (i.e. negative outcome) or entering employment (i.e. positive outcome). Moreover, when advisers perceive jobseeker psychological contract breach, they may withhold valuable support which will either prevent a client from entering employment (i.e. negative outcome) or drive them to exit the relationship by entering employment (i.e. positive outcome). As such, perceived psychological contract breach from either party could result in a positive (job start) or negative (disengagement) outcome. However, due to the contractual nature of the Work Programme, formal disengagement (i.e. failing to comply with the terms of their benefit) comes with financial penalties (i.e. sanctions), therefore it is assumed that clients, if possible, will be more likely to enter employment as an exit from a broken relationship than face the loss of benefits. Yet, this is dependent on labour market opportunities and their employability, thus, the direction cannot be hypothesised with any certainty.

On the other hand, where clients or advisers perceive psychological contract breach, this is either the trigger for, or outcome of, a perceived lack of effort or discretion from the other party (Bal et al., 2008; Rosenthal & Peccei, 2006a, 2006b; Rousseau, 1995), and therefore without the right support in place, it is unlikely that

employability progression will occur. Therefore, it is hypothesised that perceived psychological contract breach from either party is likely to impact clients' employability outcomes, without identifying a direction.

Finally, due to the nature of social exchange, it was important to consider mutuality and reciprocity of obligations as factors influencing the quality of the client-adviser relationship (i.e. perceived psychological contract breach), specifically, a mismatch at Phase 1 can lead to a psychological contract breach at Phase 2 (e.g. Coyle-Shapiro, 2001; Dabos & Rousseau, 2004; Farnese et al., 2018; Krivokapic-Skoko et al., 2007). Therefore, the final hypothesis

Hypothesis 6 (H6): *Perceived psychological contract breach will be associated (a) with a client entering employment; (b) clients' employability progression; and negatively associated with (c) Mutuality and (d) Reciprocity.*

A summary of these hypotheses is set out in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1. *List of all research hypotheses*

H1	Clients with higher Employability Index (EI) scores at Phase 1 are more likely than clients with lower EI scores to enter employment by Phase 2.
H2	Clients with lower Employability Index (EI) scores at Phase 1 are more likely than clients with higher EI scores to demonstrate employability progression at Phase 2.

H3	Clients who work with the same adviser across the six-month research duration are more likely than clients who do not have a dedicated adviser to (a) enter employment and (b) demonstrate employability progression.
H4	Mutuality at Phase 1 will be associated with whether a client enters employment or not by Phase 2. Specifically, the greater the Mutuality, the more likely a client is to enter employment; and the lower the Mutuality, the less likely a client is to enter employment.
H5	Reciprocity at Phase 1 will be associated with whether a client enters employment or not by Phase 2. Specifically, the greater the Reciprocity, the more likely a client is to enter employment; and the lower the Reciprocity, the less likely a client is to enter employment.
H6	Perceived psychological contract breach will be associated (a) with a client entering employment; (b) clients' employability progression; and negatively associated with (c) Mutuality and (d) Reciprocity.

4.3. CHAPTER CONCLUSIONS

In summary, this thesis seeks to assess the influence of employability factors, including the role of the jobseeker-adviser relationship operationalised through the concept of the psychological contract, on outcomes, measured as *entering employment* or *employability progression*. This chapter presented the formulated hypotheses positioned within a conceptual framework that integrated two independent theoretical and conceptual frameworks – specifically employability and social exchange– in a new context. An overarching research framework was produced to address the six hypotheses in this study, and the next chapter will explain the methodology set out to address these aims.

CHAPTER FIVE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter sets the path by which the thesis aims to empirically test the conceptual framework set out in Chapter 4 across a sample of Work Programme clients in Scotland. Specifically, this study explores the relationship between employability and the psychological contract (independent variables) and client employment outcomes (dependent variable). Social exchange and the development of employability occurs over time; therefore, a longitudinal repeated measures research design was implemented across two phases over six months. Moreover, to investigate the impact of the relationship between a client and their adviser on resultant outcomes meant that data was collected from multiple sources; the client, the adviser and the organisation. The epistemological approach is hypothetico-deductive (Bendassolli, 2013) and thus adopts quantitative methods to operationalise the key variables. Thus, surveys were designed for the client and adviser to complete and analysis of the client-adviser dyad conducted. Secondary and primary data were collected at Phases 1 and 2 with six months between each phase. Questionnaires were distributed to clients and advisers (primary data) at Phase 1 and Phase 2. Objective employment outcome data was captured at Phase 2 from provider organisations (secondary data).

Therefore, this chapter will first situate the decision to use quantitative research methods within a Positivist philosophical paradigm, followed by the research design,

sampling strategy and sample description of both clients and advisers. This discussion precedes a description of the measures and survey instruments designed to address the aims of this thesis before setting out data analysis methods. The chapter concludes with a brief, but necessary, summary of the ethical considerations presented by research carried out in a welfare-to-work setting, and limitations and challenges faced in the application of the research methodology.

5.1. RESEARCH APPROACH

In exploring the philosophical foundations of this thesis, pertinent research falls under the distinct paradigms of either Positivist or Interpretivist philosophies. Under an Interpretivist paradigm, previous studies describe how employability and the client-adviser relationship are socially constructed and propagated (e.g. Cole, 2008; Rosenthal et al., 2006). The Interpretivist ontological assumption is that reality is subjective; constructed based on the context of individuals' experience, actions, and interactions with others (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). The Interpretivist aim is not to explain human behaviour but understand it (or 'verstehen'), deriving the meaning that people attribute to concepts within the context of that society, often through qualitative methods (Parsons, 1978). Nonetheless, this is where much of the critique around existing research into personalisation and the role of the adviser has been placed. With a lack of empirical work and ability to generalise findings across contexts, and lack of application to a 'real-world' setting (Millward, 2005), the insight is descriptive, not modelled or operationalised (van Berkel & Valkenburg, 2007).

Positivism emerges as the dominant paradigm to fit the research questions and hypotheses set out in this thesis, with extant studies of employability and social exchange often aligned with a Positivist paradigm. Positivists assume the social world can be studied and observed in the same manner as the ‘natural’ world (Comte, 1853), and adopt an ontological view that reality can be known but is only ‘real’ if objectively measured. Unlike Interpretivism, the epistemology of Positivism emphasises that knowledge acquisition comes from empirical verification of an observable experience through objective ‘scientific’ methods. As such, Positivist research often adopts a hypothetico-deductive approach through experimental methods or surveys which produce quantifiable and objective data (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Lincoln & Guba, 2000). Moreover, Positivism approaches research from an explanatory and predictive standpoint (Millward, 2005), aiming to discover patterns and generalisations which can lead to the formulation of rules and universal laws, often demonstrated through conceptual frameworks (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012). Apropos, employability research adopts quantitative methods and models to predict unemployment figures (e.g. Beatty & Fothergill, 2018), statistical approaches to assess the impact of multiple disadvantages on unemployment (e.g. Berthoud, 2009), and surveys to measure employability and psychological contract breach (e.g. Berntson et al., 2006, 2008; De Cuyper, Mauno, Kinnunen & Mäkikangas, 2011; Farnese et al., 2018; McArdle et al. 2007). Furthermore, the dominant ontological assumption within psychological contract literature is that it is an objective reality, with an epistemological assumption that quantitative data can be measured using a deductive approach and provide generalisations (Lester, Kickul & Bergmann, 2007; Nichols, 2013; Robinson &

Morrison, 2000; Sels et al., 2004).

Positivism is criticised for failing to paint a full picture of the issue under investigation (Breen & Darlaston-Jones, 2010); heavily reliant on rational and causal explanations of behaviour, while neglecting the complex psychological and social influences critical to the understanding of causal relationships and generalisable findings (Brown, 2014; Maxwell, 2012). Nevertheless, existing research relating to the client-adviser relationship is based on the description of their interactions but lacks the additional insight that might be provided from quantifiable and objective survey data, such as the psychological contract research, which is grounded in a Positivist research paradigm. Therefore, for the purposes of this study, this thesis fits within a Positivist research philosophy. Ultimately, this thesis will aim to complement policy research which has mainly been descriptive by testing theory-derived hypotheses within a specific social context, not only as a means of explanation but of prediction and allowing for a robust analysis of the impact of employability variables and the client-adviser relationship on verifiable outcomes. As such, this thesis considers quantitative methods most useful is this approach, contributing to employability and psychological contract research which provide measurable, quantifiable data.

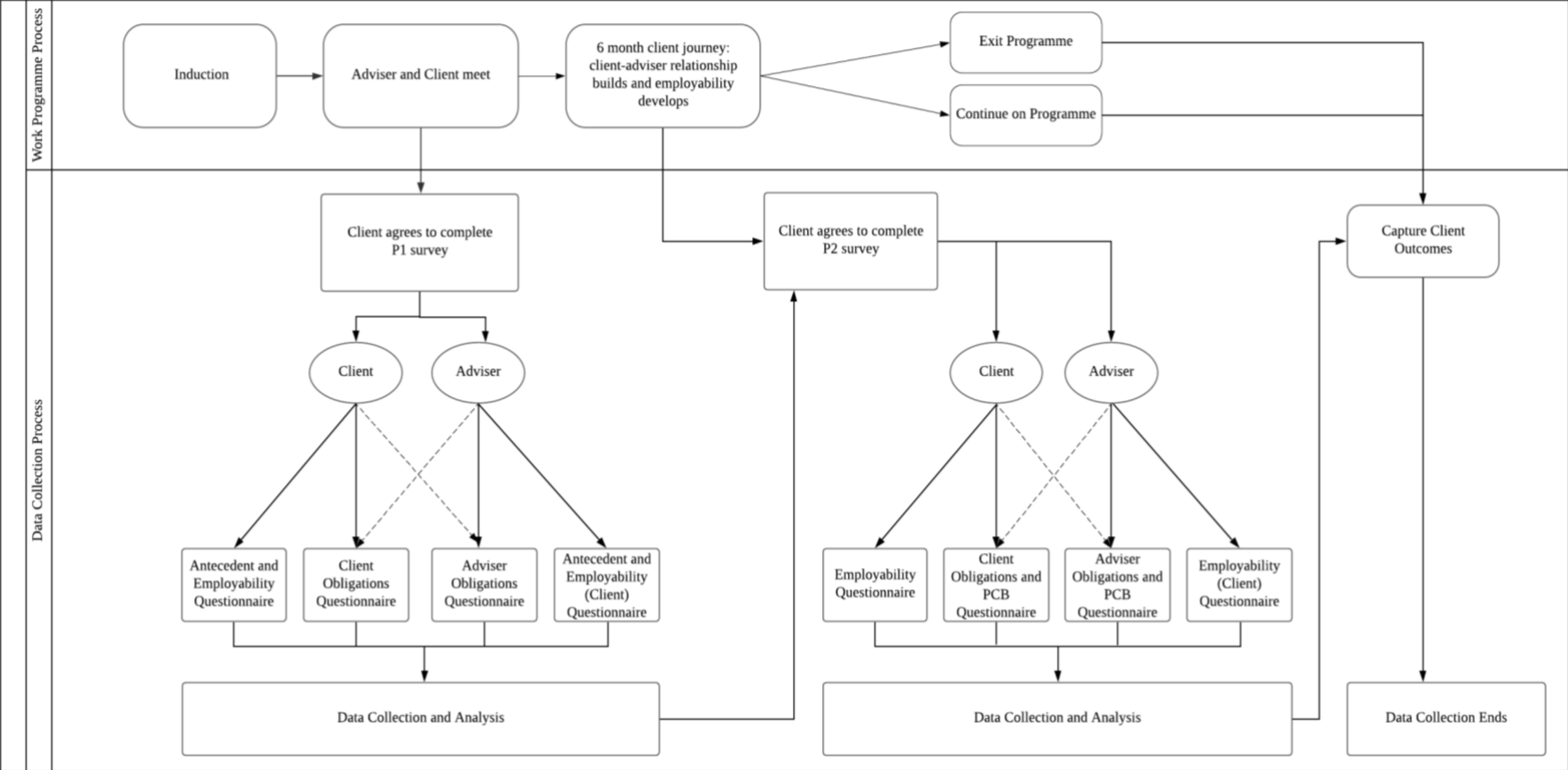
5.2. RESEARCH DESIGN

Situated within a Positivist philosophical paradigm, the purpose of this study is to identify whether the client-adviser relationship, along with the client's employability, influences the client's employment outcomes. Thus, clients would need

to provide data relating to their own employability. To analyse client-adviser dyads across psychological contract measures, specifically Mutuality and Reciprocity, both the client and adviser are sources of dyadic data; thus, data collection instruments had to be designed and distributed to both parties. Furthermore, to capture employment outcome data and adviser performance data, Organisations X and Y were a source of objective data.

Due to the temporal nature of the variables under investigation, specifically the anticipated change across phases, this study adopted a longitudinal (repeated measures) quantitative research design (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010; Wang et al., 2017). Empirical data were captured at two phases over six months to measure changes to both employability and psychological contract variables over time, and also to allow sufficient time for clients to enter employment (Figure 5.1). While clients access the Work Programme support for two years, previous research suggests a six-month time lag following the first survey was sufficient time to afford the development of a relationship between a client and their adviser, and allow an opportunity for a client's employability to develop (e.g. Ashforth et al., 2007; De Vos & Buyens, 2001; Lapointe et al., 2013). Moreover, many organisational psychology and employability studies use a six-month time lag between data collection (e.g. Harvey, 2001; Lester et al., 2007; Philippaers, De Cuyper, Forrier, Vander Elst & De Witte, 2016; Rahim et al., 2012; Robinson, 1996; Rodríguez-Muño, Baillien, De Witte, Moreno-Jimenez & Pastor, 2009) and significant changes in work attitudes and behaviours can be evidenced in panel studies of less than a year (Dormann & Griffin, 2015; Farnese et al., 2018).

Figure 5.1. Research design aligned to Work Programme processes across Phase 1 and Phase 2



Note: researchers own design. Dotted line represents a questionnaire about the other party

To meet the needs of the study, data collection instruments had to serve two purposes: 1) allow for comparability of data from baseline to follow-up; and (2) permit the collection of multi-source data. Thus, a survey was selected as the appropriate research method. Five main factors drove this choice of methodology. First, with an a priori set of hypotheses this study adopts a hypothetico-deductive approach, which begets the requirement for empirical evidence (Bendassolli, 2013). Second, the study seeks to understand changes in employability over time as well as the development of a client-adviser relationship. Highly replicable, surveys allow comparability of data from baseline to follow-up (e.g. Dewson et al., 2000; Farnese et al., 2018; Lloyd & O’Sullivan, 2003; McArdle et al., 2007; Vogt, 2011), providing an objective and replicable tool by which to analyse changes in employability and psychological contract measures across the six-month research duration. Third, when investigating social exchange at the dyadic level (i.e. the client-adviser relationship), multisource data is required (e.g. Dabos & Rosseau, 2004; Krasikova & LeBreton, 2012; Tekleab & Taylor, 2003). Fourth, as previously noted, research investigating the client-adviser relationship through qualitative methods have yielded explanation; whereas this study seeks to operationalise the relationship or provided empirical data by which to populate frameworks or make predictions. By administering questionnaires with standardised questions and numerically rated items at different points in time, the results should be generalisable to the population of Work Programme clients and their advisers (Heiman, 1999). Finally, empirical employability research (e.g. Berntson et al., 2006; 2008; Brown et al., 2010; Green & White, 2007; McArdle et al., 2007) and psychological contract research is predominantly derived from survey data (Conway

& Briner, 2005; Freese & Schalk, 2008). Moreover, the psychological assessment of employability is, rightly or wrongly, the most commonly adopted vehicle for understanding how employability is enhanced by both internal and external factors (Lo Presti, Ingusci, Magrin, Manuti & Scrima, 2019; Van der Heijden et al., 2018; Vanhercke, De Cuyper, Peeters, & De Witte, 2014).

Overall, Phase 1 consisted of administering one questionnaire to clients and one to their advisers, but also collecting secondary data relating to client employability from the organisations providing access. The Phase 1 client questionnaire captured data as a means to measure the following independent variables: 1) employability and 2) Mutuality and Reciprocity of the Psychological Contract. The Phase 2 survey was used to measure: 1) employability progression and 2) psychological contract breach. The same questionnaires were administered at Phase 2 (with minimal rewording to acknowledge the duration which had passed) and objective employment outcome data and adviser performance was collected from the organisations.

5.3. SAMPLING STRATEGY AND SAMPLE DESCRIPTION

5.3.1. Sampling Strategy

This thesis adopted a non-probability purposive, or judgmental, sampling strategy, whereby members of the population with specific characteristics were identified and invited to participate (Bryman & Bell, 2011). In this instance, the study population is clients and advisers attending government-commissioned employability programmes. The sample frame consisted of Work Programme clients and advisers in

Scotland, with access was granted from two providers. To become a client of the Work Programme, the JCP randomly refers eligible claimants to one of two prime Work Programme providers operating in the client's geographical region. Referrals are further divided into internal prime delivery or external delivery through subcontractors. The provider is expected to deliver two years (104 weeks) of continuous support to clients regardless of whether the participant 'exits' the programme (e.g. entering employment, further education, ill-health or a prison sentence).

Nationally commissioned and delivered locally through specialist supply chains comprised of private, voluntary and public sector providers, there are 40 Work Programme contracts across the UK managed by HM Government but delivered by 18 'prime' providers across several Contract Package Areas (CPA) (DWP, 2012) (See Appendix 2). Organisations will differ in size and composition (i.e. private, not for profit, voluntary), with some prime organisations subcontracting service delivery to smaller, local providers. Overall, prime providers tend to be larger (i.e. over 250 employees) than subcontractors (DWP, 2014), as was the case in this study.

Set up in 2000, Organisation X is one of two prime providers delivering the Work Programme in Scotland: it is a privately-owned company delivering public and voluntary services across employability, skills and justice sectors in the UK and internationally. Organisation X received nine per cent of the market share of Work Programme referrals across the UK (DWP, 2014), which is third highest of all 18 prime providers. Half of Organisation X's service delivery is managed by public, private and third-sector partners, with Organisation Y one of their public-sector

subcontractors. Organisation Y is a smaller charitable organisation that also delivers additional contracts supporting young people into employment. Both organisations provide end-to-end programme delivery and work with the same delivery model consisting of the same compliance processes, outcome targets and minimum service levels (MSLs).

Adviser Sample Frame

Adviser participation was essential as, without their data, there was little value in approaching their clients and analysing data on client-adviser dyads. Once the organisations had provided the researcher access to their offices, advisers were asked to participate in the research if they were (1) referred new clients, (2) had not resigned and (3) were not leaving their role or organisation within six months. Adviser performance was not factored into the selection criterion. Twenty-seven advisers at Phase 1 matched the criteria.

Client Sample Frame

The sample frame for this thesis required that clients were ‘new’ to the Work Programme, and their adviser, to accurately baseline employability and psychological contract measures before the development of a relationship. Exclusion criteria were set to identify clients as ‘new’: (1) they must have had one appointment with an adviser, (2) but no more than three appointments. These criteria were set to mitigate any potential risks to accurate recording of employability and psychological contract data. Three appointments were deemed a suitable number of meetings to ensure some form

of social exchange and contracting, be it CV building, distribution of travel costs or booking the client onto an intervention. One appointment would likely consist of an induction not conducted by the adviser. The client sample frame was approximately 330 participants from Organisation X, increasing to just under 500 with the inclusion of Organisation Y. While there was access to potentially 500 clients, realistically the organisations expected approximately 50 to 60 per cent to attend their induction and meet their adviser, thus the sample frame was more likely to be between 250 to 300 clients.

Sample Size

Overall, data were collected from 102 clients across 27 advisers, thus producing 102 client-adviser dyads at Phase 1. All of the 27 advisers in the sample frame agreed to participate in the research; that is, there was a 100 per cent response rate. The response rate for clients is more difficult to determine, but is estimated to be between 34 to 41 per cent (i.e. 102 from potentially 250 to 300 clients). This has less to do with clients declining to participate (i.e. less than 10 refused) and more to do with non-attendance at their Work Programme office. The response rate at Phase 2 was 43.1 per cent. The Phase 2 client sample consisted of 44 of the 102 clients who initially participated in Phase 1, with 21 advisers (completing questionnaires for 64 clients), resulting in 42 client-adviser dyads⁴.

⁴ Due to the limited sample size at Phase 2, the variables discussed in this thesis are focused on those which are relevant to the sample and provide useful information by which to reliably analyse the impact of employability and the client-adviser relationship on employment outcomes.

5.3.2. Sample Description: Advisers at Phase 1 and Phase 2

ERSA (2019) highlights the diversity of the welfare-to-work industry across private and public organisations and suggests there are approximately 20,000 employees in the sector – split across different job roles and levels, and across different specialisms. Yet, there is a limited insight into the demographics of advisers in the welfare-to-work sector. An extensive search into ‘what advisers look like’ has been ultimately fruitless; with ample insight into what they do, but little detail into their demographics and experience. Within this thesis, some of the information gathered around adviser outcomes will hopefully be useful when conducting further research.

Without existing research which describes adviser demographics, this sample cannot be compared to a wider population. However, the compilation of the adviser sample across both phases shows that the majority are full-time employees, aged 35-44, without a disability, White British, and consider English their first language (Table 5.1). The majority of advisers are female: this is comparable to Wright's (2003) study with JCP staff, whereby she also found that two-thirds of the staff were female. All advisers have qualifications, with the majority educated to degree or professional qualification level. Phase 2 sees a larger proportion of female advisers, and a reduction in advisers over 55 years of age.

At Phase 1, adviser tenure within the provider organisations ranged from two months to eight years, with an average of over three and a half years ($M = 3.74$, $SD = 2.19$) (Table 5.2). Duration within the employability sector ranged from two months

to 30 years, with an average of just over five years ($M = 5.44$, $SD = 5.49$). The average increases slightly, but not significantly, for Phase 2.

Table 5.1. *Sample description for the adviser: demographic characteristics (%)*

Category	Characteristic	Phase 1 (N = 27)	Phase 2 (N = 21)
Age range	Aged 18-24	7.4	4.8
	Aged 25-34	33.3	28.6
	Aged 35-44	37	42.9
	Aged 45-54	14.8	23.8
	Aged 55-64	7.4	0
Gender	Male	33.3	28.6
	Female	66.7	71.4
Disability status	No	92.6	90.5
	Yes	3.7	4.8
	Prefer not to say	3.7	4.8
Nationality	White British	92.6	95.2
	Mixed Race	3.7	0
	African	3.7	4.8
English 1st language	No	3.7	4.8
	Yes	96.3	95.2
Education	level 1: Standard Grade/equivalent	11.1	19
	level 2: Higher, A level /equivalent	18.5	14.3
	level 3: HNC/HND or equivalent	22.2	19
	level 4: Degree, Professional qual	48.1	47.6
	No Qualifications	0	0
	Other Qualifications	0	0
Work pattern	Part-time	14.8	19
	Full time	85.2	81

Table 5.2. *Sample description for the adviser: experience in the welfare-to-work sector (years)*

	Phase 1 (N = 27)		Phase 2 (N = 21)	
	Provider Tenure	Sector Duration	Provider Tenure	Sector Duration
Mean	3.74	5.44	5.01	6.67
Std. Deviation	2.2	5.49	3.3	5.89
Minimum	.17	.17	.75	.75
Maximum	8	30	15	30

Overall, 102 client-adviser dyads existed at Phase 1. Each adviser had an average of four clients participating in the study, and this ranged from one to 10. Most advisers were from the Glasgow office ($n = 5$). When asked about their current performance, the majority respond positively at Phase 1 and Phase 2, while Organisations X and Y provided objective performance data at Phase 2 suggesting that 70.6 per cent ($n=72$) of client-adviser dyads were made up of advisers who hit their performance target over the six month research duration (Table 5.3).

Table 5.3. *Sample description for the adviser: self-reported performance across key indicators and objective performance outcome data (%)*

Item	Rating	Phase 1 (N = 27)	Phase 2 (N = 21)
I always achieve my job target	strongly disagree	3.7	0
	disagree	29.6	16.7
	agree	51.9	66.7
	strongly agree	14.8	16.7
I always achieve my compliance target	strongly disagree	3.7	5.6
	disagree	11.1	11.1
	agree	59.3	55.6
	strongly agree	25.9	27.8
I always score satisfactory or above in observations	strongly disagree	3.8	4.8
	disagree	3.8	4.8
	agree	65.4	52.4
	strongly agree	26.9	19
I have never received a complaint	strongly disagree	11.1	11.1
	disagree	70.4	61.1
	agree	3.7	5.6
	strongly agree	14.8	22.2
Adviser performance (hit target) (CEO response)	Yes	-	70.6
	No	-	29.4

At Phase 1, advisers were asked if they considered themselves to work for a private or public organisation, 13 advisers stated private; 11 public and three were

unsure. There were also asked if they considered the provider, they work for to be similar to the JCP or government, and 12 advisers did not agree they were similar; 11 thought they were similar and four were unsure (Table 5.4).

Table 5.4. *Sample description for the adviser: Perceptions of their organisation (%) (N = 27)*

Item	Response	Phase 1
Organisation type	Public	40.7 (11)
	Private	48 (13)
	Unsure	11.1 (3)
Organisation is similar to JCP or government	No	44.4 (12)
	Yes	40.7 (11)
	Unsure	14.8 (4)

An independent sample t-test was used to identify whether the two sample was comparable from Phase 1 to Phase 2. The age range of advisers was the only significant demographic over the two phases, with fewer advisers under 35 years of age, $t(96.222) = 2.852, p = .005$.

5.3.3. Sample Description: Clients at Phase 1 and Phase 2

Sample description for all clients are presented in Table 5.5.

Phase 1

The Phase 1 sample consists of 102 mandatory Work Programme clients. Generally, the sample population was comparable to Work Programme participants at the time of the study (e.g. Aldridge & Hughes, 2016; DWP, 2016a; 2016b; 2018; ERSA,

2017; Meager et al., 2014; ONS, 2017). For example, the majority of clients were between 25-49 (49%) with a mean age of 35 years ($SD = 13.46$, range 18-63 years). Two-thirds of national Work Programme clients are men (DWP, 2017; Meager et al., 2014), and in this study the figure is marginally lower at 60.8 per cent. As demonstrated by national Work Programme samples (Meager et al., 2014), the majority of clients were single: Over two-thirds of participants were single at the point of the first survey (67.6%).

The majority of participants claim JSA (72.5%) followed by ESA (17.6%); figures comparable to the Employment Related Services Association (ERSA) (2016) report that 18 per cent of Work Programme referrals were new ESA claimants in 2015. Other examples of whether the data closely matched than of a national sample, 10 per cent of clients had caring responsibilities, 22.4 per cent had children under 16, the majority rented or lived with friends with fewer than one in ten homeowners, with under 20 per cent having never work but the majority having been unemployed at least one year but less than two (Meager et al., 2014).

A quarter (25.5%) of clients accessed provider offices in Glasgow, followed by Irvine (16.7%) and Paisley (13.7%). Glasgow is the largest delivery area in Scotland, and so this geographical split is as expected (ONS, 2016b). Also, almost three-quarters of all clients (74.5%) live in the top three most deprived deciles in Scotland, with the majority in Scottish Index of Multiple Deprivation (SIMD) 1 (36.3%).

There is an over-representation of clients without qualifications (33.3%) –

which differs from the national average at approximately a quarter (25.3%) of benefit claimants (Meager et al., 2014). Furthermore, with just under two-thirds (60.8%) reporting 'no health condition', this figure is lower than DWP data, which suggests the figure is as high as 87.4 per cent (DWP, 2016b) and an evaluation of Work Programme clients whereby 72.2 per cent did not report health conditions (Meager et al., 2014). However, when noting reports of specific health conditions, the majority of participants in this sample had mental health conditions (17.6%), with mental health the most frequently reported condition in a DWP (2016b) evaluation of Work Programme clients.

Phase 2

The Phase 2 sample consists of 44 of the mandatory Work Programme clients from Phase 1. Respondents at Phase 2 were more likely to be clients who were actively job-seeking (36.4%) or currently in work (34.1%) but also consisted of disengaged clients (18.2%), those in the process of changing their benefits (2.3%), clients who are pregnant or dealing with childcare responsibilities (6.8%) and also attending college (2.3%). There was only one significant difference found between the sample at Phases 1 and 2, suggesting client characteristics were not dissimilar across phases; significantly fewer ESA claimants participated in the study at Phase 2 than there were at Phase 1, $t(98.751) = 2.100, p = .038$. As with Phase 1, the majority of participants were male, the average age of approximately 35 years, White British and single. Still, the majority of clients reported no health conditions; however, mental health was no longer the most reported condition, with longstanding illnesses the highest proportion

Table 5.5. Sample description of the client at Phase 1 and Phase 2 (%)

	Characteristics	Phase 1 (N = 102)	Phase 2 (N = 44)
Age	<i>Mean (SD)</i>	34.85 (13.46)	35.68 (13.62)
	18-24	31.4	29.5
	25-49	49	50
	50+	19.6	20.5
Gender	Male	60.8	56.8
	Female	39.2	43.2
Nationality	White British	90.2	84.1
	White Other	2.9	6.8
	Australian	1	0
	Asian/Asian British	2	4.5
	European	4	4.5
Marital Status	Single	67.6	70.5
	Married/Civil Partnership	6.9	4.5
	Living with partner	11.8	13.6
	Separated	5.9	4.5
	Divorced	5.9	4.5
	Widowed	2	2.3
Dependents / Household	Children	30.4	13.6
	Lone parents	13.7	9
	Caring responsibilities	10	6.8
	Members of household in employment	29.4	31.8
Benefit Type	Jobseekers Allowance (JSA)	72.5	81.8
	Employment Support Allowance (ESA)	17.6	9.1
	Universal Credit	8.8	6.8
	Income Support	1	2.3
Health	Physical Condition	4.9	4.5
	Sensory condition	2.9	2.3
	Mental health	17.6	13.6
	Learning Disability	10.8	13.6
	Long-standing condition	15.7	18.2
	No health condition	60.8	56.8
Length of Unemployment	Less than 3 months	3.9	4.5
	3-6 months	2.9	2.3
	6-12 months	10.8	11.4
	12-18 months	20.6	20.5
	18-24 months	2.9	2.3
	24-36 months	11.8	15.9
	3 – 4 years	5.9	6.8
	4-5 years	2	2.3
	5-6 years	3.9	4.5
	> 6 years	16.7	11.4
	Never Worked	18.6	18.2
Highest Level of Qualification	No Qualifications	33.3	25
	level 1: SQA1/2 Equivalent	26.5	29.5
	level 2: SQA3 Equivalent	9.8	11.4
	level 3: SQA4 Equivalent	11.8	11.4
	level 4: Degree	6.9	9.1
	Unknown	11.8	13.6

Table 5.5 continued.

	Characteristics	Phase 1 (N = 102)	Phase 2 (N = 44)
Housing Situation	Shared Rental	5.9	4.5
	Rent on Own	36.3	43.2
	Homeowner	5.9	11.4
	Live with Friends/Relatives	30.4	27.3
	Supported Housing	3.9	6.8
	Temporary	2.9	0
	At risk of losing home	1	0
	Homeless	2	0
	Other	10.8	6.8
Housing Type	Private	27.5	22.7
	Social	55.9	61.4
	Other / Live with Parents	8.8	9.1
	Unknown	7.8	6.8
Office location	Paisley	13.7	9.1
	Ayr	7.8	6.8
	Kilmarnock	2	0
	Irvine	16.7	22.7
	Airdrie	5.9	9.1
	Kirkcaldy	1	0
	Dunfermline	3.9	2.3
	Glasgow	25.5	27.3
	Motherwell	10.8	13.6
	Edinburgh	6.9	6.8
	Craigneuk	1	0
	Hamilton	4.9	2.3
SIMD	1	36.3	38.6
	2	20.6	27.3
	3	16.7	13.6
	4	7.8	2.3
	5	5.9	6.8
	6	4.9	6.8
	7	1	0
	8	2.9	0
	9	2	0
	10	2	4.5
Labour Demand / Jobs Density Ratio	.58	16.7	22.7
	.65	9.8	4.5
	.66	2	0
	.67	17.6	22.7
	.79	7.8	6.8
	.81	13.7	9.1
	1.02	6.9	6.8
	1.06	25.5	27.3

Note: Data Source: Provider data and client survey.

of self-reported health conditions. Length of unemployment did not vary across phases, with the majority unemployed for 12-18 months or reported having 'never worked'. Whereas Phase 1 had a higher proportion of clients with no qualifications, the majority of clients at Phase 2 achieved a level 1 qualification. Glasgow and Irvine remain the offices with the highest proportion of clients within this study. Once again, the majority of clients lived in the top three deprived areas.

5.3.4. Sample Description: Organisations

From both providers, 12 operational offices participated in the study, with the majority of advisers from Organisation X ($n = 23$, 85.2%) compared to Organisation Y ($n = 4$, 14.8%). Thus, the majority of clients came from Organisation X ($n = 84$, 82.4%) and the remainder from Organisation Y ($n = 18$, 17.6%). The sample is representative of the overall referral split between Organisation X as the prime provider and Organisation Y as the subcontractor. Furthermore, both organisations are end-to-end providers. A series of chi-squares were carried out to compare associations between the provider organisation and the adviser population. Yet no significant differences emerge across the adviser characteristics (Appendix 8).

Furthermore, there are few differences between organisations in regard the client sample (Appendix 9). Employability (as measured by the Employability Index), gender, age, health, length of unemployment and highest level of education are not significantly different between provider organisations. However, benefit type is significantly different ($\chi^2(3, N = 102) = 10.905, p = .012$), with more clients claiming

JSA in Organisation X ($\chi^2(1, N = 102) = 5.580, p = .018$) but more clients claiming UC in Organisation Y ($\chi^2(1, N = 102) = 9.761, p = .002$). Also, all of Organisation Y's clients reside in a region with a jobs density ratio of .67, whereas clients working with Organisation X live in Local Authorities with a wider range of jobs density ratios ($\chi^2(7, N = 102) = 10.200, p = .001$). Finally, almost twice as many of Organisation Y's clients (61.1%) reside in SIMD1 compared to 31 per cent of clients who are supported by Organisation X ($\chi^2(1, N = 102) = 5.833, p = .016$).

5.3.5. Characteristics of employment entered

Organisations X and Y report that 54 (52.9%) of the 102 clients entered employment within the six months between Phase 1 and 2. Over three-quarters of these clients (77.8%, $n = 42$) were still in employment at the point of the follow-up survey, with an average of 93 days retained employment ($SD = 59.52$). The median number of jobs a client entered was 1 (range 1 to 5), taking an average of 116 days ($SD = 58.75$) from the date the client started the Work Programme to find their first job (Table 5.6).

Table 5.6. *Description of jobs obtained: number of jobs, time taken to enter employment, duration employed (N = 54)*

	Min	Max	Mean	Median	SD
Number of jobs in 6 months	1	5	1.23	1	.69
Time taken to enter employment	20	225 ⁵	116.31	103	58.75
Time spent in job	1	193	93.11	85	59.53

⁵ This figure exceeds the days within the six-month time frame, as one client had repeatedly failed to attend their induction and was 'on programme' before meeting their adviser for the first time and engaging with the programme.

The majority of clients entered permanent contracts (64.2%), followed by temporary (18.9%) and zero-hour contracts (7.5%). Four (7.5%) clients became self-employed, and one entered an apprenticeship (1.9%). Over half (58.5%) were in full-time and 41.5 per cent in part-time employment: this figure is not representative of the overall unemployed population, with ONS figures from 2016 suggesting a 75/25 per cent split. The figures do, however, reflect Work Programme participants' experience of employment whereby 44 per cent of the workforce were in part-time employment (Meager et al., 2014).

The provider organisations captured employment outcomes by sector at Phase 2 (Table 5.7). Clients predominantly entered employment in the transport/ warehouse/ distribution sector (18.5%), hospitality/food services (13%) and call centre environments (13%). Few clients entered positions in the IT, arts, management and business, or agriculture sectors.

Table 5.7. *Client Employment Outcome by Sector (%) (N = 102)*

Job sector	%
Transport, warehouse, distribution	18.5
Hospitality, food services	13.0
Call centre	13.0
Retail, service	9.3
Facilities, cleaning	9.3
Security, armed force	7.4
Construction	5.6
Administration	5.6
Health, care, medical	5.6
IT	1.9
Arts, creative and culture	1.9
Management, business professional	1.9
Agriculture, hunting and forestry	1.9

These destinations are comparable to the participant survey carried out by Meager et al. (2014), whereby the majority of clients entered employment in the ‘wholesale and retail trade’, with few entering ‘agriculture, forestry and fishing’.

Overall, while the work patterns and sectors clients have entered are comparable with a national sample, it is difficult to determine whether the proportion of reported job start entries (i.e. 52.9%) is representative of the wider cohort of Work Programme clients. The DWP does not collect data on the number of clients who enter employment, instead publishing data relating to how many people retain employment after six months. Statistics suggest that 42.5 per cent entered some form of employment (Dar, 2016), while earlier reports suggest that at the beginning of the Work Programme the figure was as low as 22 per cent (Meager et al., 2014). Trade body figures suggest 48 per cent overall, with approximately one third achieving a job start after three months (ERSA, 2015). Nevertheless, the data provided by providers to ERSA is not necessarily accurate, and indeed disclosure is voluntary. Furthermore, while clients can inform advisers that they have started employment, and advisers can record this on the client’s record, until the employer verifies the accuracy of that claim, the data goes unreported to DWP. Thus, job start figures appear higher than is generally reported, but this cannot be confirmed as figures may be higher than publicly reported.

5.3.6. Sample Representativeness

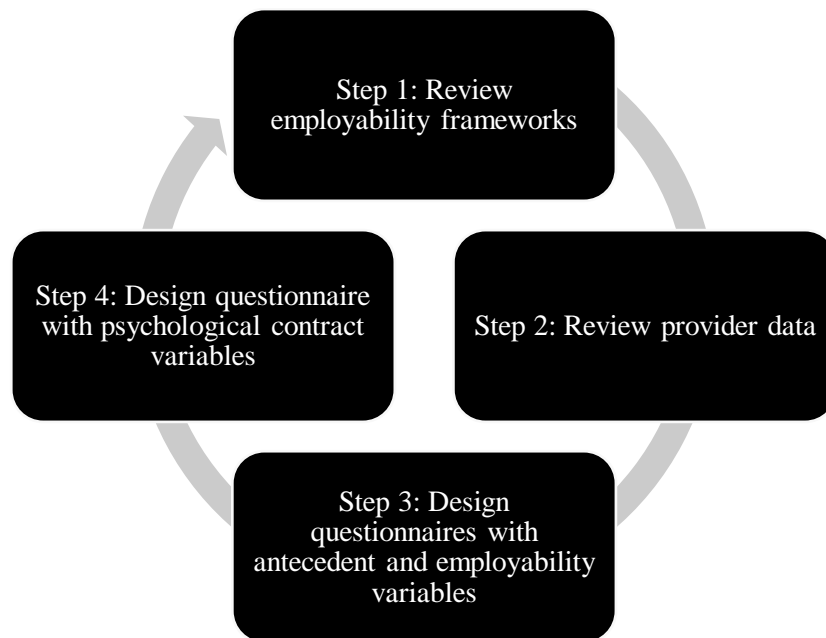
Organisations X and Y were selected as exemplars of end-to-end providers, with Organisation X a prime provider, of which there are another 17 in the UK, and

Organisation Y the subcontractor. There is little analysis regarding the difference in outcomes between prime providers and their subcontractors (DWP, 2014). Moreover, Organisations X and Y are both based in Scotland, and there is no specific Work Programme data or literature available by which to make comparisons across UK providers in order to assess the representativeness of the selected organisations. A comparison of the client sample used in the present study with Work Programme evaluations nationally and evaluation data provided by other prime providers (e.g. DWP, 2016b; Meager et al., 2014; Rocket Science, 2015) suggest it is a fairly accurate representation of Work Programme clients, but not necessarily the unemployed population as whole. Therefore, the findings outlined in this thesis may be representative of Work Programme clients across the UK, but the Scottish population may present a slightly different picture. Thus findings should be considered in the context of Work Programme delivery in Scotland, and not necessarily generalised to a wider population of unemployed jobseekers.

5.4. DESIGN OF QUESTIONNAIRE

The lack of available survey tools with relevant context-specific questionnaires, meant that to capture the data required to address the hypotheses laid out in Chapter 4 a questionnaire had to be designed. The design process followed four steps (Figure 5.2) Both the client and adviser completed one questionnaire at both phases of the research, thus four questionnaires were developed: two for advisers and two for clients (Appendices 4, 5, 6 and 7).

Figure 5.2. *Process for designing the research questionnaire*



5.4.1. Step 1: Review Employability frameworks

To develop a questionnaire that would provide one source of data, a review of employability frameworks (Chapter 2, Table 2.1) presented numerous potential measures, beyond what is reasonable and useful for this thesis. Had existing validated scales been used for all potential employability factors, a resultant questionnaire would include over 100 items, for example: five-item job search behaviour scale (Kinicki & Latack, 1990); 12-item perceived social support scale (Zimet et al., 1988); seven-item Social Provisions Scale to measure family support (Cutrona & Russell, 1987); the 19-item Career Decision Scale (Osipow, Carney, Winer, Yanico, & Koschier, 1976).

Sensitive to the potential of overwhelming clients with employability items to the point of them disengaging before answering the psychological contract items, a review of the secondary data from Organisations X and Y was carried out, and variables mapped to employability frameworks to identify gaps to inform new survey content, but also avoid duplication of items, thus reducing the items for inclusion in the questionnaire.

5.4.2. Step 2: Review Provider Data

Organisation X designed an online holistic assessment and diagnostics (A&D) tool which identified a client's job-readiness, or distance from the labour market. Completed at the client's induction with Organisations X and Y, the A&D tool captures essential variables which identify barriers to, or enablers of, achieving sustainable employment: for example, age, gender, childcare and dependents, qualifications and skills, health issues, geographical location, employment history, job-search behaviours, housing tenure, transport, and some attitudinal items (Coleman & Parry, 2011) (Appendix 10).

Provider data offered insight around a client's employability but not did address all elements present in existing frameworks, such as the impact of a health condition, personal attributes such as self-efficacy and perceived employability and key transferable skills. Furthermore, the provider did not capture external and enabling factor data. As anticipated, there were no available measures of the psychological

contract between client and adviser. Hence, where gaps between theoretical models and provider data existed, primary data was sourced from client employability surveys.

The majority of items captured by the A&D tool were measured on a categorical or 4-point Likert-type rating scale with each point on the scales given a label (e.g. 'not at all confident' (1) to 'very confident' (4)). Dichotomous variables, measured nominally, were coded as 0 or 1. Across all scales, the larger the number, the more positive the agreement or presence of the variable. Completed by over 250,000 clients and tested for reliability and validated⁶, it was found to be an accurate predictor of employability. Therefore, the provider tool was considered a reliable measure of employability and the format was adopted when designing the employability questionnaire.

5.4.3. Step 3: Design Questionnaires with Antecedent and Employability Variables

Employability questionnaires were designed to plug gaps in secondary data and allow for proportionate data collection which does not overburden both clients and advisers with questions which were previously, and recently, captured through the A&D tool. For example, demographic questions missing from provider data, but deemed important based on employability frameworks, were housing type (e.g. social or private) and whether other members of their family were in employment. Further

⁶ An external research centre validated the tool for Organisation X: name redacted.

employability items included whether their health condition impacted their ability to look for work, job-search self-efficacy, whether transport is an issue in getting to work, and perceptions of their ability to compete in the current labour market. Organisations X and Y do not repeat their A&D tool at a later data, therefore those questions captured at induction were inserted in the follow-up Phase 2 questions: this allows for measuring employability progression through an analysis of changes in employability. Variables measured within this study are commensurate with existing frameworks, and while not comprehensively capturing all potential variables, those included are largely found to be significant determinants of labour market success.

Across employability variables, the researcher retained the same 4-point rating scales as the A&D tool. This decision was two-fold: (1) respondents are familiar with the format; but (2) it ensures a consistent means of analysing the data across both phases. Furthermore, 4-point scales are acceptable for analysis with enough points to differentiate respondents from one another (Johns, 2005; Robinson, 2018). However, the fully labelled scales utilised produce reliable and valid data as they reduce ambiguity and respondent confusion and ensure consistent interpretation of the points, thus reducing measurement error (DeVellis, 2003; Johns, 2015).

While a large number of items is preferable in the measurement of multidimensional variables (Robinson, 2018), to ensure survey completion and maximise response rates, a pragmatic approach was adopted, erring on the side of brevity for measures with an extensive track record for influencing employability outcomes. Single-item measures are often used as an alternative to multiple-item

scales for well-established constructs, especially when they are unambiguous, in occupational psychology and health research (e.g. Ahlstrom, Grimby- Ekman, Hagberg, & Dellve, 2010; Bowling, 2005; McArdle et al., 2007; Tuomi et al., 1998; Van Ginneken & Groenewold, 2012; Van Hooft et al., 2004; Wanberg et al., 2002; Williams & Smith, 2016). A benefit of single-item measures over multi-item scales is that they can avoid unintentional exclusion of key facets of the construct that are important to the individual based on their individual differences and personal circumstances (Scarpello & Campbell, 1983; Highhouse & Becker, 1993). Conversely, a standardised multi-item measure may ignore those aspects, averaging or summing facets which are unimportant to the individual (Fuchs & Diamantopoulos, 2009; Postmes, Haslam & Jans, 2013). Hence, secondary data and the client questionnaire included single-item questions for well-established employability variables to reduce any potential survey fatigue and maximise survey response rates (e.g. Hoepfner, Kelly, Urbanoski & Slaymaker, 2011; Kreemers et al., 2018; Postmes et al., 2013; Robinson, 2018; van Hooft et al., 2004).

Cognisant that advisers would have to complete multiple surveys – one for each client participating in the study – questionnaires were kept short to avoid disengagement, and only perceived priorities captured. At Phase 1, the adviser survey captured demographic data as well as experience in welfare-to-work and their self-reported performance. Also, when evaluating employability and progression, much of what is being measured is subjective, and in that vein, it is important to get both the client and the adviser perspective of the client's employability to try and obtain a more reliable measure of employability, but also to determine whether the adviser's

perception could accurately identify clients who would enter employment.

5.4.4. Step 4: Design Questionnaire with Psychological Contract Variables

The lack of available psychological contract surveys related to the welfare-to-work context provided the opportunity to develop a questionnaire with content relevant to the clients and advisers. A bilateral approach to researching the psychological contract was essential as a way of understanding Mutuality and Reciprocity of the social exchange relationship between two parties (Coyle-Shapiro, 2001; Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998). Both clients and advisers were asked to indicate the extent to which they perceived themselves and the other party to be committed to their obligations (Phase 1) and the degree to which they believed they fulfilled their obligations and perceived psychological contract breach (Phase 2).

While there are two ways to measure content at Phase 1 – averaging all items or use a single-item ‘global’ measure to capture the overall expectations one party has of the other to carry out their commitment/obligations – it is important to identify the relative impact individual items might have on future outcomes and breach (Conway & Briner, 2005; De Jong et al., 2015). Pertinently, Daguerre with Etherington (2009, p.2), highlighted that ‘specific effort’ from advisers working with clients with complex needs was a key factor influencing job start outcomes – it was, therefore, useful to understand which items are most relevant to an adviser’s ‘special effort’. Therefore, the bilateral focus on the dyadic exchange between an adviser and client provided better insight into the idiosyncratic nature of the content of the contract.

To ensure a reliable and valid psychological contract breach scale for Phase 2, the questionnaire was developed based on four criterion: (1) the survey was measuring contract breach and not fulfilment; (2) both parties to the contract were surveyed to reliably assess their perception of obligations or breach; (3) multiple theory-based items were included; (4) and obligations were tested prior to administration (Freese & Schalk, 2008). As the provider had not captured psychological contract measures, the questionnaire was developed based on a five-item Likert scale accompanied by verbal anchors. Five-point interval scales yield greater variability and discrimination between the top and bottom scores than a 4-point scale, which is better for analytical purposes (Preston & Colman, 2000; Robinson, 2018), while also representing the commonly used rating scales for psychological contract surveys (e.g. Freese & Schalk, 2008; PSYCONES, 2005; 2006; Rousseau, 1998; 2000).

Overall, each questionnaire, at each phase, was divided into three sections for clarity: (1) antecedents and demographics; (2) employability and (3) the psychological contract. The Phase 1 questionnaire provided a baseline from which to determine the influence of employability (H1) as well as the client-adviser relationship (H4 and H5) on future employment outcomes. By applying standardised questions to the same samples at different points in time, these surveys provided data which were able to test employability progression (H2), as well as the influence of psychological contract breach on employment outcomes (H6a) and employability progression outcomes (H6b), and whether psychological contract breach can be predicted from Phase 1 (H6c and H6d).

5.5. DATA COLLECTION: SURVEY DISTRIBUTION ACROSS TWO PHASES

Data were collected from three main sources: client and adviser surveys (primary data), and objective data from Organisations X and Y (secondary data). Secondary data were available as the starting point for data collection (See 5.4.2), and also provided at Phase 2. Surveys were administered across two phases. Phase 1 surveys were designed to capture demographic data and measure employability and the client-adviser psychological contract (independent variables). At Phase 2, questionnaires were repeated, with some amendments, to measure employability progression (dependent variable) and psychological contract breach (independent variable), while provider data detailed employment outcomes (dependent variable).

5.5.1. Pre-test of data collection tool (November 2015)

The questionnaire was pre-tested to ensure respondents understood and correctly interpreted items, but also to check for user acceptance, face validity, clarity of instruction and flow, logic of scaling and potential drop-out (Arain, Campbell, Cooper & Lancaster, 2010). The pre-test study was made up of a convenience sample of participants within two Organisation X offices, comprising five advisers and seven clients. In addition, the researcher observed survey completion to identify any issues, such as signs of confusion, social desirability effect, frustration or lack of comprehension. The value in testing the questionnaire was to gauge adverse reactions to questions and their understanding of the psychological contract measures (Bryman,

2012; Bryman & Bell, 2011). Content validity was informally assessed, with the majority of clients and advisers agreeing that all psychological contract items were essential, with suggested additions and amended wording to clarify some of the items.

5.5.2. Phase 1 Data Collection (January 2016 – June 2016)

The data collection process was aligned with Work Programme processes (Figure 5.1). New clients attend an induction at Organisation X and Y where they complete the provider's A&D tool before their adviser is allocated and their first appointment booked. Following the client's first meeting with their adviser, data collection was carried out through face-to-face paper surveys between January 2016 and June 2016 within the offices of Organisation X and Y. Face-to-face survey administration was chosen to allow the researcher to develop rapport with clients – in part to ensure they were comfortable answering potentially sensitive questions but also to increase the likelihood of survey completion at Phase 2 (Bowling, 2005) and to minimize the risk of nonresponse error (Ponto, 2015).

Clients were made aware the survey would measure (1) any change in their employability over time and (2) the influence their relationship with their adviser had on subsequent employment outcomes. Clients were also made aware their adviser would be answering similar questions about their relationship. Written informed consent was obtained (Appendix 3). Simultaneously, advisers completed a survey about their client's employability and psychological contract content. Average survey

completion time for client surveys was 15 minutes (ranging from 10 to 30 minutes), with shorter adviser surveys typically completed within five minutes.

5.5.3. Phase 2 Data Collection (July 2016 – January 2017)

Phase 2 consisted repeated follow-up surveys to the same client-adviser dyads to measure psychological contract breach (independent variable) and a client's employability progression (dependent variable). Attempts to carry out face-to-face surveys with clients within provider offices were not always successful - many clients were in work or disengaged - therefore online surveys (through Qualtrics) and telephone surveys were also utilised, allowing the client their preferred method (Ponto, 2015). Clients were reminded of their agreed participation two months before the follow-up survey to mitigate low returns. However, contact details were not always active, and responses to requests not always forthcoming. Objective performance data was collected from the provider at the end of the data collection process, identifying client employment outcomes (dependent variables) and adviser performance (control variable).

5.6. MEASURES

Employability was measured as a sum score of primary and secondary client data, through an *Employability Index*. Psychological contract variables, as a proxy for the client-adviser relationship, assess the expectations of each party as measured by Mutuality and Reciprocity, and the fulfilment of those obligations as measured by

psychological contract breach. A full table of variables can be found in Appendix 10, but Table 5.8 is a reduced summary of the measures produced from the data collected.

Table 5.8. *Summary of measures and data source at Phase 1 and Phase 2*

Measure	Description of data source	Data Source		Phase	
		Provider	Survey	1	2
Employability Index	Sum score of employability	x	x	x	x
Adviser perception of client employability	Single item - adviser's perception of client's proximity to employment		x	x	x
Mutuality	Adviser Obligations Questionnaire (AOQ); Client Obligations Questionnaire (COQ)		x	x	x
Reciprocity	AOQ and COQ		x	x	x
Psychological Contract Breach	Five-item scale		x		x
Employment Outcome	Objective organisational data		x		x
Progression Outcome	Change in EI across phases		x	x	x

5.6.1. Employability Index

Existing employability frameworks integrate a variety of internal and external factors to understand the determinants of individual employability. This thesis did not investigate the interaction between variables, but instead explored the contribution of employability through a composite measure of employability, the Employability Index (EI). The rationale for this was two-fold: (1) “employability is a synergistic collection” of variables conceptualised as an aggregate multi-dimensional construct (Fugate et al., 2004, p.18) and (2) the focus of the study was the understand the added value of social exchange in addition to employability, therefore, a parsimonious measure of employability was adopted to simplify analysis and focus on the direct relationship between employability and social exchange, and employment outcomes. Not the first

to adopt an index to measure individual employability, previous examples did not meet the needs of this research. de Grip et al. (2004) made comparisons between sectors through their IEI covering supply and demand variables. Similarly, the Work Ability Index (WAI) (Ilmarinen, Tuomi & Seitsamo, 2005; Tuomi, Ilmarinen, Jahkola, Katajarinne & Tuikki, 1998), widely used in occupational health services, measures employability, with a specific focus on health, calculating a score indicating poor or very good workability against seven dimensions demonstrating the multidimensional nature of work ability. Devising a new index was considered acceptable given this study is the first to consider employability and social exchange in a welfare-to-work context, setting the foundation for future research.

The EI was created to baseline and assess the change in a client's employability score from Phase 1 to Phase 2. Overall, the EI is made up of 47 individual variables (32 composite items) (Table 5.9) and a composite sum score produced, ranging from a minimum of 32 to a maximum of 162, where a higher score indicates a 'better' level of employability. Pertinent theoretically derived variables were included in the EI if they could be changed through support from the provider, for example, self-efficacy and possession of assets. The EI does not include fixed personal variables which cannot be changed by attending the Work Programme (e.g. highest level of education obtained and health conditions) or are those not within the remit of the employability adviser or client to change. For example, the number and type of health conditions are not in the EI, but a *perceptual* question relating to health was included. The reliability of the EI was tested through internal consistency, with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient greater than 0.80 ($\alpha = 0.81$) demonstrating a strong correlation across all 32 items.

Table 5.9. List of items and their rating scale captured in the Employability Index

Category	Item	Scale	Max	Min
Presentation and deployment of assets and knowledge of recruitment practices	CV	Yes/no	1	0
	Driving Licence	Yes/no	1	0
	References	Yes/no	1	0
	Birth Certificate	Yes/no	1	0
	Bank Account	Yes/no	1	0
	Interview Clothing	Yes/no	1	0
	No Conviction	Yes/no	1	0
	Actively seeking	Yes/no	1	0
	Number of methods	0 to 6	6	0
	Hours spent looking	0 to 4	4	0
Impact of health	Frequency of application	0 to 3	3	0
	Completed Application	Yes/no	1	0
General skills	Completed job interview	Yes/no	1	0
	Health doesn't impact ability to look for work	1 to 4	4	1
	Maths	1 to 4	4	1
	English	1 to 4	4	1
	Money / Budgeting	1 to 4	4	1
	Time Management	1 to 4	4	1
	Interpersonal Skills	1 to 4	4	1
IT skills	Lack of ITC skills	1 to 4	4	1
	Computer	1 to 4	4	1
	Internet	1 to 4	4	1
	Email	1 to 4	4	1
Job-search confidence	Word Processing	1 to 4	4	1
	Job Searching	1 to 4	4	1
	Application forms	1 to 4	4	1
Attributes	Interviews	1 to 4	4	1
	Personal Attributes	1 to 4	32	8
Qualifications	Immediacy of employment	1 to 4	8	2
	Work Qualifications	Yes/no	1	0
Work experience	Work history	Yes/no	1	0
	Voluntary experience	Yes/no	1	0
Career identity and goals	Long term career goal	Yes/no	1	0
	Volunteering (Rev)	Yes/no	1	0
	Self-employment	1 to 4	4	1
Housing	Stable Housing	Yes/no	1	0
Direct caring responsibilities	Children/ dependents affect ability to look / work	Yes/no	1	0
	Childcare required	Yes/no	1	0
Access to transport	Transport an issue	Yes/no	1	0
	Available where willing to travel	1 to 4	4	1

Social capital / support	Family Support	1 to 4	4	1
	Peer support	1 to 4	4	1
	External support	1 to 4	4	1
Financial capital	Financially better off in work	Yes/no/maybe	2	0
Labour market relevance	Perceived employability in current LM	1 to 4	4	1
	Recruitment practices influence ability to apply	1 to 4	4	1
Government initiative	Government support and incentives	1 to 4	4	1

The EI accounts for the possibility that a client might start work and already cease by the time they are surveyed at Phase 2. Clients who enter employment may or may not have actually improved their skills or be able to manage their barriers to work, but may have happened upon employment either in a short-term capacity and may also have fallen out of work due to any unaddressed barriers (e.g. timekeeping, interpersonal skills, literacy issues, health). Therefore, while entering employment is an objective measure of employment success, it is captured as one item in the EI – a binary yes (1) or no (0) to the question “*do you have a work history?*”. For those who have not worked before, this will improve their EI by one point.

5.6.2. Subjective Employability: Adviser Perception of Client Employability

The adviser questionnaire captured a measure of client employability, as perceived by the adviser. Providers, specifically advisers, often use a 'killer' question to determine a client's proximity to employment and subsequently measure employability progression. Proximity to employment, “*on a scale of 0-10 how close do you think you are to gaining employment?*”, was scaled from 0-10 to allow clients

to report they are unable to work at all (0) (e.g. McGonagle et al. 2015; Tuami et al., 1998). The inclusion of this question is two-fold: to measure a change in perceived client employability, but also to gauge if respondents were could accurately predict the client's chance of gaining employment. Dickerson and Green (2009), for example, use a similar question format to demonstrate that perceptual indicators are good predictors, if not marginally optimistic, of employment outcomes.

While this question is used as a practical shorthand assessment for Work Programme providers, similar questions have been used to measure employment outcomes and employability progression. The Rickter Scale (Keith Stead Associates, 2019) measures progression on a 10-point scale and acts as a development tool. Indeed, Green's (2011, p.268) study measured employability by including the following question in their questionnaire: "What do you think is the per cent chance you will find a suitable job during the next 12 months?", providing support for the merit of including the provider's question within the thesis. Moreover, adopting a measure of employability which meets time and resource constraints (e.g. short-form measures) can increase efficiency and completion rates (Van der Heijden et al. 2018).

5.6.3. Mutuality and Reciprocity

Within the psychological contract construct, the difference and agreements between the perception of, and commitment to, obligations can impact future employment outcomes and predict future contract breach. Therefore, the variation in Mutuality (i.e., agreement *from two parties* concerning the specific obligations *of one*

party) and Reciprocity (i.e., perceived agreement *by one party* about the reciprocal exchange of *two parties*) that occurs between a client and their adviser was analysed. Adopting an established analytical method (Porter et al., 1998; Dabos & Rousseau, 2004) the absolute value of the difference, or gap, between the client-adviser dyads' expectations of obligations was calculated, reporting the mean difference overall. The lower the figure, the narrower the gap in expectations and thus the greater the presence of Mutuality or Reciprocity.

The data for measuring Mutuality and Reciprocity is provided from the *Adviser Obligations Questionnaire* (AOQ) and *Client Obligations Questionnaire* (COQ). Participants answered both the *COQ* and *AOQ* but from their own perspective and 'role'. For example, clients evaluated their psychological contracts by assessing: (1) the extent to which the client made commitments or obligations to their adviser (*COQ*) and (2) the extent to which their adviser, in turn, made commitments to the client (*AOQ*). The reverse is true for the adviser.

Reciprocity is measured by determining the mean difference between one party's perception of their commitment to their obligations and the other party's commitment to carry out their obligations. For example, an adviser's perception of Reciprocity is measured by calculating the difference between their response to the *AOQ* and their response to the *COQ*. On the other hand, Mutuality is measured by determining the gap between both parties' expectations of one individual's obligations. For example, Mutuality of client obligations is calculated by measuring the mean difference between both a client and adviser's response to the *COQ*. As well as being

subjective, Mutuality captures actual agreement between parties thus representing an objective measure (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004). The summary of how Reciprocity and Mutuality are measured is found in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10. *Calculations to measure Reciprocity and Mutuality*

Reciprocity (Adviser):	Gap (Adviser Obligation _(A) – Client Obligation _(A))
Reciprocity (Client):	Gap (Adviser Obligation _(C) – Client Obligation _(C))
Mutuality (Adviser):	Gap (Adviser Obligation _(A) – Adviser Obligation _(C))
Mutuality (Client):	Gap (Client Obligation _(C) – Client Obligation _(A))

5.6.4. Psychological Contract Breach

Data about perceived psychological contract breach were collected from both the client and adviser via the Phase 2 survey. As advised by Freese and Schalk (2008), the items within this survey differentiate between psychological contract breach and psychological contract fulfilment. Items were reverse coded where required, to ensure breach, and not fulfilment, was measured. The 7-item scale is presented to both parties, with a 5-point rating scale averaged to provide an overall figure representing perceived psychological contract breach, with five representing the greatest perceived level of breach. Advisers ($N = 21$) and clients ($N = 44$) were analysed as two independent samples when measuring perceived breach; at Phase 2 as breach is the individual perception of social exchange by one party, of two parties.

5.6.5. Dependent Variables

Outcomes are measured as ‘hard’ employment measures provided by Organisations X and Y as well as the ‘soft’ progression outcomes measured by the researcher at Phase 2.

Employment Outcome

Employment outcomes are measured as a binary variable: entered employment (1) or did not enter employment (0). Providers supplied job start information for each client that entered employment, as well as the type of industry and contract the client obtained. All cases from Phase 1 were included in analysis, as there was limited missing data, thus reducing the possibility of skewed results.

Employability Progression

While entering employment is the most commonly measured outcome captured at the end of a prescribed period engaging on an employability programme, *employability progression* is also an important outcome measure. The EI set a numerical baseline to determine where change occurred across phases. As the EI index is a measure of progression, but also the measure by which progression is assessed, clients were split into a dichotomous category (progressed (1) or did not progress (0)) for two reasons: (1) to prioritise consistency of binary measurements between employment outcomes and employability progression outcomes, and (2) to allow for

comparisons between employment outcomes and employability progression outcomes where possible.

5.6.6. Antecedent and control variables

Demographic variables are often used to control for, predict, or describe employment outcomes: often scant in psychological studies, these variables are more readily reported in economic literature (Kanfer et al., 2001). While age and gender are often used as control variables in the analysis of psychological contract and employability studies (e.g. Dabos & Rousseau, 2004; McArdle et al. 2007; Wanberg et al., 2002), demographic variables are also antecedents to employment outcomes.

Antecedent variables (or antecedent confounding variables) precede attendance at the Work Programme and the relationship between the client and adviser and are ‘controlled for’ in regression analysis. As such age, gender, length of unemployment, health conditions (specifically, the absence of) and SIMD are included as antecedents to employment. Education and benefit type were not significantly related to employment outcomes, employability progression outcomes, or employability (EI) and were therefore excluded from analysis. SIMD was chosen over office location as it preceded attendance on the Work Programme. SIMD was chosen over labour demand as the jobs density ratio is a limited measure of labour demand, excluding vacancies and unfilled jobs, and skills gaps (Lawton, 2011). Therefore, further analysis of the local labour market through the SIMD decile in which a client resides was conducted, anticipating that their home postcode will determine the quality

and variety of accessible employment opportunities.

One variable was controlled for to rule out alternative explanations of the findings (Saunders et al., 2012). Whether an adviser hit their target over the six-month research duration is confirmed at Phase 2 by senior management. To avoid tautology, the only variable controlled for was adviser performance as good advisers are likely to obtain positive employability results.

Tables 5.11, 5.12, 5.13 and 5.14 provide a summary of the items used within each measure and their source. Many of the items were from existing validated studies, adapted to suit the context (e.g. unemployment instead of occupational) while remaining loyal to the construct (Robinson, 2018). The tables are followed by a description of the variables included within the measures.

Table 5.11. *List of antecedent variables not included in the Employability Index, with their data source and collection phase*

Variable	Question and/or item description	Data Source		Phase	
		Provider	Survey	1	2
Age	Continuous variable based on date of birth	x		x	
Gender	Nominal (dichotomous): Male (1) / Female (0)	x		x	
Nationality	Nominal: White British / White Other / Australian / Asian / Asian British / European	x		x	
Marital status	Nominal: single / married or in a civil partnership / divorced / living with partner / separated / widowed / refused / don't know	x		x	
Dependents / Household	Nominal (dichotomous): yes (0), no (1): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide care to sick/disabled/ elderly • Do you have any children (aged 18 or under) and/or other dependents? • Are you a single parent? • Other household members in employment 	x	x	x	x
Benefit type	Nominal: Jobseekers Allowance (JSA) / Universal Credit (UC) / Employability Support Allowance (ESA)/ Incapacity Support (IS)	x		x	
Health	Nominal (multi-selection): physical impairment / visual, hearing and/or speech impairment / mental health condition / learning disability/difficulty / long-standing illness or medical condition / any other condition	x		x	
Length of Unemployment	Nominal: Less than 3 months; 3-6 months; 6-12 months; 12-18 months; 18-24 months; 24-36 months; 3-4 years; 4-5 years; 5-6 years; over 6 years; and never worked	x		x	
Highest level of qualification achieved	Nominal: Entry Level, Scottish Access/Foundation; O Grade, Standard Grade (SVQ level 1 or 2); Higher, A level (SVQ Level 3); Advanced Highers, HNC/HND (SVQ Level 4); Degree, Professional qualification (Above SVQ Level 4); Postgraduate Degree; Other Qualifications; Unsure; No qualifications.	x		x	
Safe, secure, affordable and appropriate housing	Nominal: rent / homeowner / live with friends/relatives / supported housing / traveller / temporary / at risk of losing home / homeless / other	x		x	x
	Nominal: private / housing / unsure / other		x	x	
	Nominal (dichotomous): yes / no		x	x	
Neighbourhood levels of employment	Client home postcodes mapped to the SIMD. Interval: SIMD was based the decile ranking, from 1 as most deprived to 10 as least deprived.		x	x	
Labour demand	Client home postcodes mapped to job density ratios. Interval data: measured at numerical levels; and Nominal: above 1 (1); below 1 (0)		x	x	
Control Variable	Adviser Performance. Objective Measure of hit target (1) or did not hit target (0).	x			x

Table 5.12. *List of variables included in the Employability Index, with their data source and collection phase*

Variable	Question and/or item description	Data Source		Phase	
		Provider	Survey	1	2
Presentation and deployment of assets and knowledge of recruitment practices	CV / Driving Licence / References / Birth Certificate / Bank Account / Interview Clothing / No Criminal Conviction	x		x	x
	Actively seeking employment	x		x	x
	Hours per week spent looking for work.	x		x	x
	Frequency applying for work	x			
	Completion of application forms and/or job interviews in the past 3 months.	x		x	x
	Methods / sources used to look for work.	x		x	x
Impact of health	“My health condition does not impact my ability to find or keep a job”		x	x	x
General skills	6 items relating to reading/writing, numeracy, IT, money management, time management and interpersonal skills.	x	x	x	x
IT Skills Confidence	Confidence using: a computer / The internet / Email / Word processing	x		x	x
Job-search confidence	Confidence: searching for work / completing application forms / attending job interviews	x		x	x
Personal attributes	8 items across Job-search self-efficacy, Employment Orientations and Perceived Employability		x	x	x
Perceived immediacy of employment	2 items: “I believe I am ready to work” and “I believe there are jobs available that I am able to apply for”		x	x	x
Qualifications	Any work-related qualifications?	x		x	x
Overall work experience inc. volunteering	Do you have a work history?	x		x	x
	“I have participated in voluntary work or work placements in the last 6 months”	x		x	x

Table 5.12 continued.

Variable	Question and/or item description	Data Source		Phase	
		Provider	Survey	1	2
Career identity and goals	Long-term job goal or aspiration?	x		x	x
	“I wish to participate in voluntary work or work placements.”	x		x	x
	How interested are you in exploring self-employment?	x		x	x
Safe, secure, appropriate housing	Housing categorise as at risk or ‘unstable’	x		x	
Direct caring responsibilities	Children/dependents affect ability to work?		x	x	x
	Do you require childcare?	x		x	x
Access to transport: Location of jobs, local transport networks	Do you consider that transport may be an issue in getting to work or getting a job?		x	x	x
	Do you think there are jobs available where you would be willing to travel to work?	x		x	x
Access to social capital / support	3 items related to family, friend and external support in relation to looking for and obtaining employment.		x	x	x
Access to financial capital	Do you think you would be better off financially in work?	x		x	x
Local labour market: relevance and access to vacancies	“I am confident that my qualifications and skills are relevant to the current labour market”		x	x	x
	“I believe that local recruitment practices allow me to apply for vacancies”		x	x	x
Government Work incentives	“The Government provides adequate support and incentives to support me in improving my employability”		x	x	x

Table 5.13. *List of employability variables not measured in the Employability Index*

Variable	Question and/or item description	Data Source		Phase	
		Provider	Survey	1	2
Subjective Employability (client)	Proximity scale: 0-10		x	x	x
Dedicated Adviser	Yes (1); No (0)	x	x		x
Training Attendance	Continuous: number of courses	x			x
Sanction	Yes (0); No (1)	x	x		x
Volunteered	Yes (0); No (1)	x	x		x

Table 5.14. *List of psychological contract variables, the source for measures of Mutuality, Reciprocity and Psychological Contract Breach*

Variable	Question and/or item description	Data Source		Phase	
		Provider	Survey	1	2
Client Obligations	<i>Client Obligations Questionnaire (COQ)</i> provides data on the commitments/obligations clients perceive their advisers to make, e.g. “Adhere to DWP conditionality and jobseeker’s contract”.		x	x	x
Adviser Obligations	<i>Adviser Obligations Questionnaire (AOQ)</i> provides data on the obligation’s clients perceive their advisers to make, e.g. “Help with writing a cv, job applications or interview skills”.		x	x	x
Psychological Contract Breach	Five questions were adapted from Robinson et al. (2000) with items including: “ <i>I have not received everything promised to me in exchange for my contributions</i> ”.		x		x

5.7. DESCRIPTION OF MEASURES ACROSS CLIENT AND ADVISER QUESTIONNAIRES

5.7.1. Client Questionnaire

Antecedents

Age

Date of birth was captured by both organisations, and age was measured as both a continuous variable based on date of birth, and also categorised based on the age-ranges DWP use often when designing and evaluating tailored employability programmes: 18-24, 25-49 and 50+ (DWP, 2011).

Gender

Clients were asked to select the gender they identified with, male or female, while also being given a '*prefer not to answer*' option. Gender was coded dichotomously (0 = female; 1 = male).

Nationality

Organisational data identified the following nationalities amongst the client sample: *White British; White Other; Australian; Asian; Asian British; and European.*

Marital status

Clients were asked to select from the following options: *single; married or in a civil partnership; divorced; living with partner; separated; widowed; refused to answer; and don't know*. This question was included in the client questionnaire and is based on the responses included in a DWP participant experience survey (Meager et al., 2014).

Dependents / Household

Caring responsibilities – either for children or other members of the family – can become a barrier to gaining employment and the uptake of development opportunities. Based on a dichotomous scale, three items captured client caring responsibilities. Clients are asked by the Organisations whether they have dependents or children and whether they are single parents. Items were coded as yes (0) and no (1), reverse coded to support literature which suggests they are not positively related to employment outcomes (e.g. Brewer et al., 2016).

The researcher captured two further questions in the client questionnaire. Clients were asked to respond to “Do you provide care to someone sick, disabled or elderly?” (Meager et al., 2014) (yes (0); no (1)) and also “Are any of the members of your household in employment?” (yes (1); no (0)).

Benefit type

Clients on the Work Programme fall into one of the following categories of benefit type: *Jobseeker's Allowance (JSA); Universal Credit (UC); Employability*

Support Allowance (ESA); and Incapacity Support (IS).

Health

Health issues were captured by organisations, with clients self-reporting their condition(s) across a multi-selection list of items: *physical impairment; visual, hearing and/or speech impairment; mental health condition; learning disability/difficulty; long-standing illness or medical condition; and any other condition*. Clients were also given a ‘*prefer not to answer*’ option.

Length of Unemployment

Unemployment duration is captured across the following categories: *Less than 3 months; 3-6 months; 6-12 months; 12-18 months; 18-24 months; 24-36 months; 3-4 years; 4-5 years; 5-6 years; over 6 years; and Never Worked*. ‘Never worked’ is a separate category to over six years for two reasons: pragmatically, it is an existing provider category; it is also a separate category to worklessness (NPI, 2012) and is a legitimate category researched often within social research (Rosso, Gaffney & Portes, 2015).

Highest level of qualification achieved

Organisations captured educational attainment as measured with one item asking clients to choose the highest level of education they had achieved against a choice of: *level 1: SQA1/2 Equivalent; level 2: SQA3 Equivalent; level 3: SQA4*

Equivalent; level 4: Degree; No Qualifications; and Other/Unknown.

Safe, secure, affordable and appropriate housing

The organisation provides information on the client's housing situation: *renter; homeowner; live with friends/relatives; supported housing; traveller; temporary; at risk of losing home; homeless; and other*. The researcher included a question about housing type, asking clients to identify whether they live in private or social housing based on research which suggests social housing residents are twice as likely to be unemployed or inactive as those living in other tenures (Wilson et al., 2015).

Neighbourhood levels of employment

Client home postcodes were mapped to the SIMD, measured at an interval level based on the decile ranking, from 1 as most deprived to 10 as least deprived. The SIMD is valuable in identifying areas of deprivation based on classifications by the Scottish Government (2016) against seven indices - income, employment, health, education, access, housing and crime. The SIMD ranks the 6,505 Data Zone - small geographical areas of between 500 to 1000 residents within local authority boundaries which contain households with similar social characteristics - across Scotland from most deprived (ranked 1) to least deprived (ranked 6,505).

Labour demand

Client home postcodes were mapped to Local Authority Areas and then the associated job density ratio. As job density is the ratio of jobs to working age

population within a geographical region, it was measured as both interval (numerical values) and nominal (above 1 = 1; below 1 = 0) variables.

Employability Index

Presentation and deployment of assets, and knowledge of recruitment practices

Assets contribute to an individual's chances of obtaining employment (e.g. Fugate et al., 2004; Hillage & Pollard, 1998). Many employability providers consider a 'toolkit' of tangible assets an essential aspect of deployment and presentation (UK Government, 2017), with items including a birth certificate, bank account, CV, employment references, interview clothing, and also a driving licence (including provisional). When a client has “no conviction” (and thus reversing the scoring) is considered an asset within Organisations X and Y. Each client answers *yes(1) or no(0)* when presented with each asset. For means of analysis, the sum of toolkit items is captured, with a maximum of seven.

Job-seeking behaviours are considered a function of deploying employability assets. Measured across five nominal items from the provider, the following items are captured on a nominal (dichotomous) scale (yes = 1; no = 0): whether a client was *actively seeking employment*; had completed an *application form* and *job interview* in the previous three months. This item was included in the client questionnaire at Phase 2 and the timeframe was altered to six months.

If clients responded ‘yes’ to whether they were “actively seeking employment”,

they were asked three follow-up questions. First, clients were asked how many hours per week they spend looking for work based on the following categories: *No hours (0); Up to 5 hours (1); Between 5 to 10 hours (2); Between 10 to 16 hours (3); over 16 hours (4)*. Next,, clients were asked how often they apply for work, with the options: *Never (0) / Every couple of months (1) / Monthly (2) / Weekly (3)*. The more positive the response, the higher the score. Finally, clients were asked where/how they were looking for work (based on a multi-response nominal scale (*Newspapers, Internet, Job Centre, Through Family and Friends (Word of mouth), Direct contact with employers, and Recruitment/Job Agencies*)). For the purposes of analysis, the number of options selected were calculated as a sum score with a minimum of 0 and maximum of 6.

Impact of Health Condition

The health data captured by the provider does not measure the severity of conditions. In fact, accepting the notion of ‘hidden sickness’ (Beatty et al., 2000; 2009) existing within individuals out of work, and in work, the data does not necessarily reflect the extent and prevalence of illness amongst benefit claimants and unemployed jobseekers (e.g. Lindsay et al., 2015). To understand the influence of the client’s perception of their health issues as a barrier to employment, the following item was included in the survey: “*My health condition does not impact my ability to find or keep a job*” measured on a 4-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 4 = strongly agree).

General skills

Skills assessments were limited in the provider data. Despite the myriad of

skills items which could be included in the survey, the aim was to capture the 'general' skills that all jobseekers require (Bellis et al., 2011; Blades et al., 2012), avoiding industry-specific, high-level transferable and technical skills (e.g. Devins et al., 2011; Green et al., 2013).

Six general skills items were created based on a summative review by Blades et al. (2012) assessing numeracy, literacy, money and budgeting, interpersonal, time management skills and overall IT skills and measured on a 4-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 4 = strongly agree) with negatively worded items (e.g. "I have problems with reading and/or writing in English") reverse coded. A Cronbach's alpha test of internal consistency demonstrates the reliability of these six items as a skills measure ($\alpha=.72$).

IT Skills Confidence

Four items captured by the organisation measure the level of client confidence when using technology, specifically using a computer, internet, email, and word processing ($\alpha = .96$). Confidence was measured on a 4-point scale (1 = not confident at all; 2 = not very confident; 3 = confident; 4 = very confident).

Job-search confidence

Job-Seeking Confidence was captured by the provider and measured on a three item, 4-point scale rating (1 = not confident at all; 2 = not very confident; 3 = confident; 4 = very confident) across confidence in practical aspects of looking for work

including job searching, completing application forms and attending job interviews. The items were shown to be internally consistent and reliable measure of job-seeking confidence ($\alpha = 0.84$)

Personal attributes and perceived immediacy of employment

Personal attributes that identify affect and cognition relating to employment and job-searching were not available from Organisations X and Y hence were included in the questionnaire.

Job-search self-efficacy was measured across eight items proposed by James (2007) including: *“I can keep a job when I get it”* and *“I believe I am ready to work”*. Two of the items *“I’ll never find someone who will employ me”* and *“I can’t/won’t ever work”* were reverse coded. A Cronbach’s alpha test of internal consistency demonstrates the reliability of these eight items as a job-search self-efficacy measure ($\alpha = .86$). All items were measured across a 4-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree and 4 = strongly agree).

Respondents were asked to rate four single items asked by the provider, including *“It is important for me to find a job”*, *“I know what my main barriers are in relation to getting and keeping a job”*, *“I am prepared to take on additional training to develop new skills if it will increase my chances of getting work”* and *“I am prepared to take a job in a different industry or role”* (e.g. DWP, 2016c; Kanfer et al. 2001). After testing for internal consistency ($\alpha=0.72$), the researcher accepted the grouping. Items were again measured across a 4-point scale.

Factor analysis (principal components extraction method) was carried out to identify the fewest factors explaining the greatest variance across personal attributes, creating a parsimonious model of attitudinal person-centred factors. Principal component analysis using a Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation rotation method was conducted to identify components and their underlying factors. The third, and final, analysis reduced the items from 12 to eight items, across three components. The indicators for the final analysis demonstrated a determinant score of .02 (indicating an absence of multicollinearity) and a correlation matrix of items above .5. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was .82, above the recommended value of .6, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($\chi^2(28) = 379.266, p < .001$) (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006). Items across the three components are not correlated, and all anti-image correlations were above an acceptable value of .8. Eigenvalues indicated that three components explained a total of 78.3 per cent of the variance for all variables. Importantly, one factor explained almost half (49.7%) of the variance (Table 5.15).

Component 1 is made up of three job-search self-efficacy items from James (2007), with a significant Cronbach alpha ($\alpha = .88$) suggesting it is an internally consistent measure. Interestingly, not all job-search self-efficacy measures identified by James (2007) loaded onto each other: "I'll never find someone who will employ me" moved to component 3, "I can't/won't ever work" was moved to component 2. "I can keep a job when I get it" and "I believe I am ready to work" were removed altogether. Component 2 measures adaptability but also the value a client places on work; this component will be referred to as *employability orientation*, with three items producing

a reliable measure ($\alpha = .79$). The third component measures a form of perceived employability⁷, specifically (limiting) beliefs in their ability to find and sustain work, and while a measure of two items, is reliable ($\alpha = .70$). Self-efficacy and perceived employability are often reported as conceptually interchangeable (Green et al., 2013), which explains why some of the JSSE elements have fallen into a component following factor analysis.

Table 5.15. *Factor Analysis Results to reduce person-centred variables*

	LOADINGS		
	Component 1	Component 2	Component 3
I am confident communicating with future potential employers	.920		
I am confident I could successfully complete a job interview	.888		
I am confident in my ability to find a job	.806		
I am prepared to take on additional training		.834	
It is important for me to find a job		.784	
I can't/won't ever work		.719	.425
I believe I have barriers stopping me from staying in a job			.828
I'll never find someone to employ me			.801
Eigenvalue	3.98	1.19	1.09
% Of total variance	49.73	14.84	13.68
Total variance			78.3

Attitudinal person-centred factors comprised three internally consistent ($\alpha \geq$

⁷ Perceived employability has been measured through many scales. De Witte's (2000) four-item scale asked respondents to rate their agreement around: "I am optimistic that I would find another job, if I looked for one", "I will easily find another job if I lose this job", "I could easily switch to another employer, if I wanted to" and "I am confident that I could quickly get a similar job". However, items are not suitable within this research context: while appropriate for an occupational context the language of "careers" and "another employer" made assumptions about the expectations and experiences of jobseekers who were unemployed and had potentially never worked.

.70) groups of variables: job search self-efficacy, employment orientation and perceived employability. In addition, confirmatory factor analysis confirmed that the eight person-centred factors measured across three components was a good fit with the data ($\chi^2/df = 1.307$ ($p > 0.05$), CFI = .98, RMSEA = .06, $p > 0.05$, PCLOSE = .396) (Brown, 2015). A composite score for the three components was based on the mean of all eight items, and the alpha coefficient for the total scale was $\alpha = .85$. Two discarded items – “*I believe I am ready to work*” and “*I believe there are jobs available that I am able to apply for*” – portrayed a perceived *immediacy* of employment ($\alpha = .70$) and were included in analysis.

Qualifications

Clients are asked by the Organisations whether they have obtained a work-related qualification recorded as a binary yes (1) or no (0) response.

Overall work experience (including volunteering)

Previous experience across volunteering and employment is captured by the organisation using binary yes(1) and no (0) questions, specifically: “*Do you have a work history?*” and “*I have participated in voluntary work or work placements in the last 6 months*”.

Career identity and goals

The provider asked each client to identify whether they have a long-term career

goal (yes (1) or no (0)). Additional binary yes/no questions were asked to respond to “*I wish to participate in voluntary work or work placements*”. In this instance, the responses were reverse-coded (yes (0) and no (1) as research suggests volunteering has a negative impact on employment outcomes (e.g. Kamerade & Ellis Paine, 2014; Lee, 2010). Whether the client has any interest in self-employment is also captured (1 = not interested, 2 = some interest, 3 = interested, 4 = very interested).

Safe, secure, affordable and appropriate housing

Provider data captured the client’s current housing situation. Housing was categorised as “stable” if the client did not choose any of the following situations: *supported housing / traveller / temporary / at risk of losing home / homeless*.

Direct caring responsibilities

Clients are posed the question by the Organisation, “*would your children or other dependents affect you being able to work?*” – measured on a categorical scale (yes (0), no (1)). Some respondents provided an alternative, which was to say “maybe” (scored as 0.5). Clients are also asked whether they require childcare, and this item is reverse coded (yes (0) and no (1)) due to negative impact of childcare requirements on employment outcomes (e.g. Brewer et al., 2016).

Access to transport: Location of jobs and local transport networks

Access to transport may influence a client’s decision to apply for or accept

work (Crisp et al., 2018). *Access issues* are measured through two items: “do you consider that transport may be an issue in getting to work or getting a job?” (yes (0) and no (1); reverse coded) and “Do you think there are jobs available where you would be willing to travel to work?” (1 = strongly disagree to 4= strongly agree).

Access to social capital / support

Social support is assessed by agreement with two independent items foregrounded with the statement “What support do you have in regard to looking for and keeping work?: “my family is supportive of me” and “my friends are supportive of me”. Items were included following a review of the Social Provisions Scale (e.g. Nota et al., 2007), Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (Zimet et al., 1988) and McQuaid (2006, p. 412) – which recognised the need for social support to ensure “job search success”. External support was measured by a question adapted from the British Household Panel Survey (Taylor, Brice, Buck & Prentice-Lane, 2010), “Is there anyone you could rely on to help you from outside your own household, if you needed help finding a job for yourself or a member of your family?”. Items were measured on a 4-point rating scale (1= strongly disagree to 4 = strongly agree).

Access to financial capital

Financial restrictions are identified by the organisation as “Do you think you would be better off financially in work?” based on categorical response (yes (2), no (0), or maybe (1)).

Local labour market: relevance and access to vacancies

Objective labour market data is provided through the job density ratio and the SIMD to identify external influences on individual employability. However, client awareness of labour market opportunities and knowledge of recruitment practices were used to assess external influences in the absence of insight from employers. While an imperfect response, perceived employability in the context of the current labour market was ascertained through seeking client agreement with the proxy question “*my qualifications and skills are relevant to the current labour market*” from the previously validated provider survey, but also similar to items on the perceived employability scale by De Cuyper et al. (2011). Also, the clients' perspective of the influence of human resource practices was captured with one item “*I believe that local recruitment practices allow me to apply for vacancies*” (adapted from a body of research by McQuaid, 2006). A 4-point rating scale (1 = strongly disagree to 4 = strongly agree) was used for these items.

Government Work incentives

Client perception of government incentives was captured through an adapted item from Green et al. (2013) – “*the Government provides adequate support and incentives to support me in improving my employability*” - based on a 4-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 4 = strongly agree).

Employability Variables not measured in the Employability Index

Subjective Employability

Proximity to employment from a client's perspective was also measured on the proximity to employment scale: "on a scale of 0-10 how close do you think you are to gaining employment?". It was labelled from 0-10 instead of 1-10 to allow clients to state they are unable to work at all (e.g. Tuami et al., 1998). The lowest score (0) was labelled "not at all likely" while the highest (10) was labelled "extremely likely". A higher score indicated a higher expected probability of entering work. This question was asked in Phases 1 and 2 of both clients and advisers and is the only employability question advisers were asked about their clients.

Enabling support at Phase 2

Objective data relating to enabling support was captured at Phase 2, specifically, whether the client had the following occur across the six-month research duration: a dedicated adviser (i.e. continuity of adviser) (yes (1); no (0)); attended training (specifically the number of training courses they attended); received a sanctioned (yes (0); no (1)); and volunteered (yes (0); no(1). Items were reverse coded where evidence suggests they have a negative influence on employment outcomes.

Psychological Contract Variables

At Phase 1, clients were asked to indicate the extent to which they perceived

themselves and their advisers to be committed to their obligations. In the absence of an established scale with content appropriate for an employability context, the content for the questionnaire is based on the European Union project, PSYCONES (Isaksson et al., 2003), with terminology and scaling informed by Rousseau's (2000) Psychological Contract Inventory (PCI). The language of the items was adapted, with "employee" replaced by "client" and "employer" replaced by "adviser".

Client Obligations Questionnaire (COQ)

The *COQ* was used to obtain data on the commitments and obligations that clients were perceived to make across 12 items (Table 5.16). Client obligation items were developed based on DWP contract requirements and evaluations of advisers' expectations of jobseekers (e.g. DWP, 2019; Meager et al., 2014; Newton et al., 2012) and a pre-test. When asked to a client, the items were prefaced with the question "*to what extent have you made the following commitments or obligations to your adviser?*".

Items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale: from 1 (not at all); 2 (slightly); 3 (somewhat); 4 (a lot); 5 (to a great extent). Client responses to the questionnaire were internally consistent ($\alpha=.92$). At Phase 2, clients were asked to what degree they believed they fulfilled their obligations from Phase 1, with the language altered to reflect past tense, i.e. '*to what extent **have you** fulfilled your obligation to...*' ($\alpha = .84$) followed by each item.

Table 5.16. *Psychological contract content: obligations of a client and adviser*

Client Obligations	Adviser Obligations
Adhere to DWP conditionality and jobseeker's contract	Help with writing a cv, job applications or interview skills
Attend all appointments / courses with your provider	Drawing up an action plan
Attend all appointments / courses with support providers	An assessment of your skills
Complete tasks as required on action plan	Financial support to help cover the costs associated with looking for work (e.g. Travel expenses, childcare costs)
Make adviser aware of any changes to circumstances	A session on motivation or confidence
Respect for adviser and other members of staff and clients	Financial advice of some sort
Disclose barriers	Referral to a career adviser
Honesty	A place on a training course
Build employability skills	A work experience placement or voluntary work
Seek out development opportunities	Support or training in maths, reading, writing or English language
Apply for jobs	Support or advice on becoming self-employed
Commit to working	Advice or support relating to your health or a disability
	Help with housing issues
	Help or advice related to having a criminal record
	Help or advice in relation to looking after children or adults
	Help with drug or alcohol problems
	Any other type of assessment, support, training or advice
	Fair treatment
	To provide client with vacancies
	To help them obtain a further qualification

Note: Adapted from Work Programme evaluations (Meager et al., 2014; Newton et al., 2012), validated within the pre-test.

Adviser Obligations Questionnaire (AOQ)

The *AOQ* was used to obtain data on the commitments and obligations advisers are perceived to make across 20 items (Table 5.16). Adviser obligations were derived from a DWP participant survey which listed expectations of adviser responsibilities and obligations (Meager et al., 2014). The last three items – fair treatment; to provide clients with vacancies; to help them obtain a further qualification - were included as core obligations following testing with clients and advisers. Clients were asked “*to what extent has your adviser made the following commitment or obligation to you?*”. Items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale as above. Once again, client responses demonstrated the reliability of the questionnaire ($\alpha = .93$). At Phase 2, clients were asked ‘*to what extent **has** your adviser fulfilled their obligation to...*’ followed by each item ($\alpha = .94$).

Although not an exhaustive list of items (Table 5.16), and these obligations might not represent the personalised needs of all clients nor represent the entirety of adviser obligations, however, they represent the most common obligations expected of client-adviser relationships and demonstrate a good level of internal consistency.

Psychological Contract Breach

Five questions were adapted from Robinson et al. (2000) with items including: “*Almost all the promises made by my adviser have been kept so far*” and “*I have not received everything promised to me in exchange for my contributions*”. Items were scored on a 5-point scale accompanied by verbal anchors (‘not at all’ (1) or ‘to a great

extent' (5)) and reverse coded where required, to ensure psychological contract breach, not fulfilment, was measured. The response 'not at all' (1) allows respondents to identify whether an item is relevant, or present, in their expectations of the other party. Internal consistency for the client ($\alpha = .93$) survey demonstrated a high level of reliability.

5.7.2. Adviser Questionnaire

Cognisant that advisers would have to complete multiple surveys – one for each client participating in the study – survey items were kept to a minimum to avoid disengagement. The point of assessing the below variables was to identify whether specific adviser characteristics are more likely to be related to client employment outcomes than others, while also building a picture of adviser characteristics and demographics.

Antecedents

Age

Advisers were asked to select the appropriate age range: *Aged 18-24; Aged 25-34; Aged 35-44; Aged 45-54; Aged 55-64.*

Gender

Three options were provided: *Male; Female; Prefer not to say.*

Ethnicity and first language

Free text was provided to allow advisers to record their ethnicity and first language.

Education

An adviser's highest level of education was captured using items similar to the client data: *level 1: Standard Grade/equivalent; level 2: Higher, A level /equivalent; level 3: HNC/HND or equivalent; level 4: Degree, Professional qual; No Qualifications; and Other Qualifications.*

Work Pattern

Two options were provided: *full time* and *part time* working patterns.

Duration in employability sector and organisation

Free text option. Analysis is based on years.

Adviser perceptions of the sector

Advisers were asked two questions to gauge their perception of their role in comparison to wider welfare services. First, they were asked to determine whether they believed themselves to be: *a public sector employee; private sector employee; Unsure; or Prefer not to say.* Employability programme delivery often attributes the

more inferior quality of service to private compared to public contract employees due to with stronger incentives to engage in cost reduction rather than focus on quality (Hart, Schleifer & Vishny, 1997).

Second, they were asked “Do you see Organisation X’s role as being similar to the JCP or government, and asked to respond either *yes*, *no*, or *unsure*. Advisers tend to consider JCP staff as benefits administrators, whereas advisers consider themselves job ‘coaches’ (van Stolk et al., 2006).

Adviser self-reported performance

Self-reported performance ratings on a 4-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 4 = strongly agree) were captured across four items: *I always achieve my job target*; *I always achieve my compliance target*; *I always score satisfactory or above in observations*; and *I have never received a complaint*.

Employability

The only employability question advisers were asked about their clients (at Phase 1 and Phase 2) concerned their client’s ‘proximity to employment’: “*On a scale of 0-10 how close do you think your client is to gaining employment?*”.

Psychological Contract

As with clients, advisers completed the *COQ* and *AOQ* at Phases 1 and 2, and the psychological contract breach measure at Phase 2.

Client Obligations Questionnaire (COQ)

When an adviser was asked to rate their client's commitment (*COQ*), the items were prefaced with “*to what extent has your client made the following commitment or obligation to you?*”. Items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale: from 1 (not at all); 2 (slightly); 3 (somewhat); 4 (A Lot); 5 (to a great extent). Adviser ($\alpha = .90$) responses to the questionnaire were internally consistent. At Phase 2, advisers were asked to what degree they believed their client fulfilled their obligations from Phase 1, with the language altered to reflect past tense, i.e. ‘*to what extent **has** your client fulfilled their obligation to...*’ ($\alpha = .95$) followed by each item.

Adviser Obligations Questionnaire (AOQ)

Advisers were asked about their own commitment to their clients - “*to what extent have you made the following commitments or obligations to your client?*” – with items rated on a 5-point Likert scale as before. The scale was deemed reliable ($\alpha = .77$). At Phase 2, advisers were asked ‘*to what extent have you fulfilled your obligation to...*’ followed by each item ($\alpha = .86$).

Psychological Contract Breach

As before, five questions adapted from Robinson et al. (2000) were scored on a 5-point scale accompanied by verbal anchors. The items were the same as the clients, with the word “adviser” substituted with “client”. Internal consistency for the adviser scale also demonstrated a high level of reliability ($\alpha = .91$).

Additional measures were captured at Phase 2. For example, psychological contract violations⁸, perceived procedural justice⁹, trust¹⁰ and organisational citizenship behaviours¹¹; however, due to the limited sample size at Phase 2, the variables discussed in this thesis are focused on those which are relevant to the sample and provide useful information by which to reliably analyse the impact of employability and the client-adviser relationship on employment outcomes.

5.8. ANALYTICAL STRATEGY

As set out in Section 5.5 (Data Collection), quantitative data were obtained from primary and secondary data sources. Data were collected for 102 clients and 102 client-adviser dyads at Phase 1, populating the EI, Reciprocity and Mutuality measures. With 42 client-adviser dyads at Phase 2, there was insufficient data for robust

⁸ Violation was measured amongst clients across four items (on a 5-point scale) from Robinson et al. (2000) such as “I feel that my adviser has violated the contract between us”. Internal consistency was $\alpha = .90$.

⁹ Clients were asked to agree with six items relating to perceived procedural justice ($\alpha=.95$) (reduced from the 15 items in Niehoff and Moorman (1993) organisational justice questionnaire) such as “Decisions are made by my adviser in a fair manner” – measured across a five-point agreement scale.

¹⁰ Trust items was asked of both client and adviser. Measured across seven items from Robinson & Rousseau (1994), including “I am not sure I fully trust my adviser/client (reverse score)” and “My adviser is open and upfront with me” (five-point scale, $\alpha = .96$ for client and $.95$ for adviser surveys).

¹¹ Eight Organizational citizenship behaviours (OCB) items were adapted from the OCB scale (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter, 1990) and included “My attendance is above the norm”, “I attend appointments that are not mandatory, but considered important”. Responses were provided on a five-point Likert-scale ranging from one (strongly disagree) to five (strongly agree), and were rated *about* clients, by clients themselves ($\alpha =.87$) and adviser of client ($\alpha = .95$).

multivariate analysis, however, indicative results provide a platform for further research. The data analysis methods selected to address the research objectives and hypotheses within this thesis are set out below.

5.8.1. Data Analysis

Data was stored on IBM SPSS Statistics 25 software, cleaned and coded prior to statistical analysis. Outliers were identified to avoid skewing data thus incorrectly making correlations or regressions or hiding real effects that might be of interest. Bivariate analysis, specifically chi-square tests of association and the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r), determined the significant relationship between variables (Bell, Bryman & Harley, 2018). Specifically, interrogation of where Mutuality occurred, and which items share commonality across obligations was conducted: an Intraclass Correlations (ICC)(2) was computed across four datasets (i.e. client response to *COQ*, adviser response to *COQ*, adviser response to *AOQ* and client response to *AOQ*). The ICC value depicts the variance in the mean of the raters (i.e. clients and advisers) that is “real” (Landers, 2015). Univariate inferential tests included independent sample t-tests (to determine whether there are differences between groups) and paired samples t-tests (to understand employability progression and identify the significant employability factors which ‘improved’ across phases) (Carifio & Perla, 2007). Overall, the strength of any association is described based on Cohen's (1988) standard: strong associations ($r \geq 0.50$); moderate associations (0.30 to 0.49); and weak associations (0.10 to 0.29).

Binary logistic regression was used to investigate whether an empirical relationship exists between employability and psychological contract variables (independent variables) and employment outcomes (dependent variables). Binary logistic regression assumptions required for analysis were met in this study (Agresti, 2002; Hair et al., 1998; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001; Wuensch, 2016). First, the dependent variable is nominal and dichotomous. Appropriate when the dependent variable has only two variables, this method attempts to predict categorical assignment – entered employment (1) or did not enter employment (0) – by exploring the combinations of variables within the dataset, identifying those which predict a dichotomous outcome by improving on the constant (Stevens, 2009). Second, independent variables are a mixture of categorical, continuous and interval data: independent variables included Antecedents, EI, Mutuality, and Reciprocity. The EI as a parsimonious measure of employability, as regression requires a smaller and manageable number of predictors. Third, each of the 102 cases were assigned to one of the two outcome groups. Fourth, there were no outliers according to outlier removal rules suggesting a standard deviation cut-off point of 2.5 (Pollet & van der Meij, 2017). Fifth, observations are independent of each other, not from repeated measurements or matched data. Sixth, a linear relationship between independent and dependent variables is not assumed. Finally, there is no multicollinearity amongst the independent variables.

The researcher made attempts before regression to mitigate the possible risks of multicollinearity by using the EI as a parsimonious measure of employability, and to keep the variables to a minimum for regression analysis. For example, *education*

and *benefit type* were removed as antecedents due to a lack of significance across outcome variables. Moreover, highly correlated variables (i.e. $> .6$) (Kennedy 1980; Tsui, Ashford, St Clair & Xin, 1995) were removed from the model following tests of multicollinearity. The final variables included within the regression model demonstrate a variance inflation factor (VIF) < 5 , that is, levels of multicollinearity are acceptable for use within regression analysis (Hair et al., 2006; Ringle, Wende & Becker, 2015) (Appendix 11). Hence, one control variable and ten independent variables were selected for inclusion in the binary logistic regression. To further assess the validity of these measures for regression analysis, principal components analysis (PCA) was conducted and all items were suitable for analysis (Appendix 12), thus, the range of employability factors were analysed through binary logistic regression to identify specific predictors of employment outcomes.

Multiple regression selection process allows the researcher to reduce a large set of independent variables, removing unnecessary variables, reducing data, and improving the predictive accuracy of the model. To increase the efficiency of analysis, different regression selection approaches were considered to test predictors, and a hierarchical approach was chosen over an entry method (i.e. all in at once) as it is useful when investigating the effect of groups of independent variables sequentially (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Hierarchical entry allows variables to be entered based on a specified, and theoretically derived order based on the factors the research hypothesis most likely to influence the dependent variable (Hair et al., 1998). Moreover, employability and psychological contract studies have a history of adopting hierarchical regression as their method of analysis (e.g. Coyle-Shapiro, 2001; Coyle-

Shapiro & Kessler, 2002; De Cuyper et al., 2011; Green et al., 2013; Koen et al., 2013; Maynard, Joseph & Maynard, 2006).

Therefore, hierarchical regression analysis was chosen to identify factors which predict objective employment outcomes by sequentially entering variables following the conceptual framework set out in Chapter 4. Adviser performance (control) is entered in step 1 of the equation to reduce the chance of spurious relationships. Antecedents (age, gender, health, length of unemployment and SIMD decile) and the Employability Index were entered into steps two and three, respectively. The final set of four psychological contract variables, Mutuality and Reciprocity (from both client and adviser perspectives), were entered into the fourth step using a *backward wald entry* to eliminate and identify only those variables with a significant p-value, adopting a .05 criterion of statistical significance.

5.8.2. Test of survey reliability and validity

Cronbach's alpha test of reliability was used to assess internal consistency across measures consisting of multiple Likert items and scales. Each measure is reliable with an alpha coefficient of $\alpha \geq .70$ (Wang & Wange, 2012).

While valuing the contribution a pilot study would make to the refinement of tools and administration before rolling out a larger version of a study (Crossman, 2007; Ismail, Kinchin & Edwards, 2018), the selection criteria for participants meant that conducting a pilot would significantly reduce the final sample size. The benefits did not outweigh the costs, especially as the smaller sample size of the pilot study is also

unlikely to produce reliable results (Kraemer, Mintz, Noda, Tinklenberg & Yesavage 2006; Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001) or act as a precursor to a more extensive study (Arain et al., 2010). Also, to conduct a valid pilot study would require a six-month time lag, a luxury not afforded within this study.

5.9. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Sensitive to the confidential information clients might be disclosing, and aware that advisers can refer clients back to the JCP for not complying with their benefit conditions, it was emphasised to clients when seeking their informed written consent that (1) participation was voluntary with no influence on their receipt of benefit and (2) responses remain confidential. The secondary data relating to client employability is owned by the client and written consent was granted prior to obtaining the data.

The safety and protection of respondent data is an important legal and ethical requirement. DWP information was not captured or sought. Data collected through paper surveys was transferred and stored in a password-protected secure database, backed-up regularly. Files were named appropriately, and version controls implemented, to ensure anonymity and safeguard data. Paper surveys have been destroyed, and consent forms scanned and stored securely. Individual participants cannot be identified from their responses: client and adviser names have been coded to ensure anonymity and any combination of information which can be used to identify individuals has been re-coded to ensure anonymity.

5.10. RESEARCH LIMITATIONS

The sampling frame, as with every sampling frame, was not perfect. Attendance was not guaranteed at either inductions, training or appointments, reducing the original sample size in half. Additionally, at the time of designing the research, access was readily available across a national sample, but organisational restructure and lack of JCP referrals to the Work Programme reduced the sample frame. The ‘attachment’ rate was lower than it had been since the beginning of the Work Programme in 2011 (DWP, 2017). As soon as a client answers the phone to a provider or receives a letter inviting them to attend an induction they have been ‘attached’ to the Work Programme. ‘Attachment’ does not guarantee attendance at induction and does not accurately reflect the volume of client who attend their first appointment with their adviser post-induction. Moreover, despite considerable effort to increase the sample size and maximise the response rate at Phase 2, attrition occurred, especially for ESA claimants. Still, the samples at Phases 1 and 2 are statistically comparable providing insight into employability progression and psychological contract breach, which can be investigated further in any future studies with a larger sample size.

Due to the volume of employability data captured by the provider at the client’s induction, the researcher was hesitant to repeat similar measures in the survey; prioritising engagement and completion of psychological contract measures (see 5.4.3). Nonetheless, certain limitations with single-item measures must be addressed. Debates ensue over whether the reliability and validity of a single item measure of a participants’ attitude can be reliably estimated (e.g. Diamantopoulos, Sarstedt, Fuchs, Wilczynski

& Kaiser 2012; Fuchs & Diamantopoulos, 2009; Hoepfner et al., 2011). On the one hand, single-item scales are considered to have acceptable reliability and validity (Bowling, 2005; Wanous & Reichers, 1996; Wanous, Reichers & Hudy, 1997). On the other hand, it is argued that they do not provide a valid and reliable proxy for a potentially complex constructs, leaving them open to random measurement errors, such as biases in meaning and interpretation (Fuchs & Diamantopoulos, 2009; Hoepfner et al., 2011). For some individuals the “abstract thinking” required to answer a single-item may be “cognitively challenging” (Sloan et al., 2002, cited in Fuchs & Diamantopoulos, p.204) and demonstrate within-person variation in a participant’s capacity to answer the question (Fuchs & Diamantopoulos, 2009; Houdmont et al., 2019; Weir, Faul & Langa, 2011). In this study, for example, single-item measures across facts and objective data are acceptable (e.g. questions about work history or children/dependents), but the above limitations must be considered when measuring psychological constructs and attitudes in future empirical research (Fuchs & Diamantopoulos 2009; Hoepfner et al., 2011; Wanous & Reichers, 1996).

Also, some dimensions were assessed via proxy items when a measure was not directly unobservable. For example, employer practices were not observed and instead a clients’ perception of employer recruitment and selection practices were captured (i.e. “I believe that local recruitment practices allow me to apply for vacancies”) as was their perceived employability in the current labour market (i.e. “my qualifications and skills are relevant to the current labour market”). However, the jobseekers’ response is a subjective measure, with value judgements that may not accurately represent employer recruitment and selection processes in practice, thus presenting a bias which

may impair the reliability of the item (Baron, 1997). In addition, the items were not evaluated against existing employer practices and labour market measures *a priori*, and thus future research would require a direct comparison between the proxy and direct measure to ensure it is reliable and valid (Dickinson, Hrisos, Eccles, Francis & Johnston, 2010; Hrisos et al., 2009).

In addition, the measurement of SIMD at Data Zone level as a proxy for external factors, including labour demand, is a limitation. The SIMD is a measure of deprivation and inequality within a small geographical area using a range of seven indices, of which only one is employment. Moreover, the Data Zones do not capture the distance individuals may commute to access employment. Therefore, a measure of labour demand in future research should cover a wider geographical area. In this study, jobs density ratios were calculated by Local Authority. However, areas with higher levels of job demand would be expected to attract commuters into the area. Thus, a more reliable measure of labour demand may be the jobs density ratio in relation to travel-to-work-areas (TTWA) (e.g. McQuaid et al., 2004; Berthoud (2008); Tunstall, Green, Lupton, Watmough & Bates, 2014; Lee & Sissons, 2016; Sunley et al., 2001).

The aforementioned cognitive processes (i.e. comprehension, memory retrieval and decision-making) involved in accurately responding to questionnaires can require effort, and their execution may be hindered by a variety of factors, for example, intellectual ability (Bouffard & Narciss, 2011; Freund & Kasten, 2012; Molden & Dweck, 2006) and emotional intelligence (Bratton, Dodd & Brown, 2011;

Keefer, 2015)¹². Therefore, there are certain cognitive and perceptual limitations to the findings which must be addressed.

Perceptual biases can lead to issues with a key tenet of mutuality: psychological contracts are more likely to be fulfilled when both parties agree on the terms. Given the nature of measuring the obligations of both self and other, a common source of response bias that must be considered is socially desirable responding, whereby self-raters present themselves favourably, potentially producing unreliable and inaccurate ratings (Keefer, 2015; Mabe & West, 1982). Inflated self-ratings are often at the heart of discrepancies within self-other rating agreements (Nilsen & Campbell, 1993), and in this study, clients may enhance their commitment due to the nature of the mandatory contract they are attending. Inherent in these response biases is the notion that people have limited self-awareness, or are motivated – knowingly or not – to enhance their attributes (Dunning, Heath, & Suls, 2004; Keefer, 2015; Krosnick & Presser, 2010). Nonetheless, Atwater and Yammarino (1992) suggest that self-ratings biases cannot account for all discrepancies due to a bilateral approach to measurement, and within this thesis the significant findings are measured at a dyad-level of analysis.

Overall, the use of self-reports to assess any social exchange is a limitation. Such assessments are inherently biased as perceptions are subjective (Moses,

¹² Supplementary analysis finds that the education level of the client or adviser is not associated with reciprocity or mutuality outcomes; but personal attributes (e.g. self-efficacy) and job-search confidence are significantly and positively related to clients' perception of both themselves and their adviser.

Hollenbeck & Sorcher, 1993). However, the psychological contract construct is an individual perception, idiosyncratic and subjective, and the terms are based on the perception of the individual (Rousseau 1989; 1995; 2004; Robinson & Morrison 2000; Rousseau & Tijoriwala 1998). Therefore, the use of self-report data is justifiable in this study and a conventional method of assessment (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998; Conway & Briner, 2002). Moreover, the risk of common method bias is reduced by using multi-source data and a repeated measures design, as well as capturing objective measures of employment outcomes and progression. Involving clients and advisers in pre-testing the tool goes a way to helping address that limitation a priori. However, as this study inherently studies employability as an antecedent to psychological contract formation, some caution must be adopted when interpreting the importance of reciprocity and mutuality as a predictor of employment. Hence, there will be individual differences in antecedents and also reactions to contracting which require greater focus in psychological contract research (Alcover et al., 2017; Sambrook & Wainwright 2010).

5.11. CHAPTER CONCLUSIONS

This chapter has outlined and explained the research methodology applied in this thesis. Due to the temporal nature of the research, a longitudinal quantitative research strategy, situated within a Positivist paradigm, has been designed to measure the influence of employability and the client-adviser psychological contract (independent variables) on employment outcomes and employability progression (dependent variables). Conducted across two phases with a six-month time lag,

multisource data is collected from questionnaires distributed to clients and advisers, and objective employment outcome data from the Work Programme. Employability is measured as a sum score in an Employability Index devised for the purposes of this study, while the psychological contract variables, as a proxy for the client-adviser relationship, measure expectations of each party via Mutuality and Reciprocity. The results were analysed across bivariate and multivariate analysis, with binary logistic regression identifying key variables contributing to objective employment outcomes. The findings of this thesis are discussed in the following three chapters.

CHAPTER SIX

FINDINGS: EMPLOYABILITY FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE OBJECTIVE OUTCOMES

This chapter presents the findings that emerged from analysis of the association between the independent variables (i.e. employability) and dependent variables (i.e. entering employment and employability progression) set out in Chapter 5. First, variables significantly associated with a client's objective employment outcomes following six months attendance on the Work Programme are identified and discussed, including those variables captured in the Employability Index (EI) measure. The chapter then explores the variables associated with employability progression, and also those which changed over the six-month research duration. The chapter then sets out the results which emerged from hypothesis testing. Specifically, Hypothesis 1 tests whether clients with higher EI scores at Phase 1 are more likely than clients with lower EI scores to enter employment by Phase 2. Next, Hypothesis 2 identifies whether clients with lower EI scores at Phase 1 are more likely than clients with higher EI scores to demonstrate employability progression at Phase 2. Finally, the question as to whether clients' who worked with the same adviser across the six-month research duration entered employment or demonstrated employability progression is answered (Hypothesis 3). The chapter will conclude with a summary of results, highlighting any trends.

6.1. THE IMPORTANCE OF EMPLOYABILITY: SIGNIFICANT VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH ENTERING EMPLOYMENT

Fifty-four (52.9%) of the 102 Work Programme clients from Phase 1 entered employment by Phase 2, with 90 days identified as the average amount of time taken to do so (Table 5.6). To explore the variables associated with the above outcome, this section first delves into antecedents to employment, those variables not included within the EI, before next exploring the EI variables associated with entering employment, before presenting the variables which are not captured in the EI. Aligned to the conceptual framework in Chapter 4, a discussion of the results will begin with Individual Factors, followed by Personal Circumstances, External Factors and then Enabling Support factors. Table 6.1 sets out the associations between employability variables, while Figure 6.1 is a visual representation of clients' characteristics depending on whether they entered employment or not. Tables 6.2 and 6.3 set out a summary of variables, condensed to predominantly significant variables. A full table is found in Appendix 13.

6.1.1. Variables (not included in the EI) associated with entering employment

Bivariate analysis demonstrates significant associations across a variety of variables: employability, age, gender, health conditions and length of unemployment, for example (Table 6.1). Further inferential tests were performed across demographic data such as age, gender, nationality, marital status, health and length of unemployment and SIMD found significant difference between clients who entered work and clients

who did not enter work. Men were more likely to enter employment than women, $\chi^2(1, N = 102) = 13.90, p < .001$, as were younger clients ($M = 32.04, SD = 12.74$), $t(100) = 2.29, p = .024$). More specifically, the majority of clients aged 18-24 entered employment, $\chi^2(1, N = 102) = 4.678, p = .031$, with a p-value significant at a 95 per cent confidence level (Table 6.2).

Conversely, clients who did not enter employment had health conditions, $\chi^2(1, N = 102) = 11.04, p = .001$, and were more likely to suffer from physical health conditions ($\chi^2(1, N = 102) = 5.92, p = .015$) or mental health conditions, $\chi^2(1, N = 102) = 5.56, p = .018$. Clients who did not enter employment were also more likely to have extended periods of unemployment ($r(100) = -.34, p = .001$), with clients who had been 5-6 years unemployed, $\chi^2(1, N = 102) = 4.68, p = .030$, and six years plus unemployed more likely to remain unemployed, $\chi^2(1, N = 102) = 13.88, p < .001$.

Unlike a client's perception of external factors, objective measures demonstrate that the location a client resides in impacts their employment success. SIMD ranking was not correlated with employment outcomes; however, dummy variables suggests that clients residing in SIMD Decile One were less likely to enter employment, $\chi^2(1, N = 102) = 7.389, p = .007$. Furthermore, clients who lived in areas with a job density ratio of .65 were more likely to enter employment, $\chi^2(N = 102) = 6.112, p = .013$), while clients who lived in an area with a job density of .67 were less likely to enter employment, $\chi^2(N = 102) = 5.555, p = .018$. A binary measure of the job density ratio ((1) below 1; (2) above 1) was not significantly different across employment outcomes.

Unexpectedly, whether a client had ‘never worked’ nor the benefit they claimed was not a significant factor in itself. However, benefit type was associated with health conditions: JSA claimants were more likely to have no health conditions, $\chi^2(3, N = 102) = 17.19, p = .001$, and were significantly more likely to be looking for work than ESA claimants, $\chi^2(3, N = 102) = 46.67, p < .001$. Nonetheless, clients who attend the Work Programme are a homogenous sample, and the expectation is that clients are more likely to be ‘hard to help’ often classified as those with health conditions and longer durations of unemployment. ERSA (2016) have suggested that Work Programme provider performance has demonstrated a steady increase in ESA job starts at the time this research was carried out. Therefore, benefit type is not necessarily distinct in their categorisation of ‘work-readiness’.

Four Phase 2 enabling support variables with data available for all 102 clients were analysed: continuity of dedicated adviser, sanctions, number of training courses attended, and volunteering undertaken. Two significant findings emerged from sanctions and training attendance data. First, just over ten per cent of all clients were sanctioned. Similar results were noted in a Work Programme evaluation with 10.2 per cent sanctioned after six months on the programme and 13.7 per cent after 24 months (Meager et al., 2014). To determine whether those claimants who had been subject to a sanction decision were more likely to enter employment a chi-square test of independence was carried out across the 102 clients from Phase 1 and of those sanctioned, the majority did not enter employment, $\chi^2(1, N = 102) = 4.262, p = .039$. Records do not disclose whether sanctions occurred before or after a client entered employment.

Second, an independent samples t-test was conducted to determine whether there was a difference in employment outcomes for clients who attended more or less training. Clients who entered employment attended an average of 1.24 ($SD = 1.75$) training sessions while clients who did not enter employment attended significantly more ($M = 2.69$, $SD = 2.81$), $t(100) = 3.161$, $p = .002$. Within this study, 59 clients attended some form of skills training while on the Work Programme, with an average of attendance at two courses over the six months ($M = 1.92$, $SD = 2.41$) ranging from one to 12 courses per client. The number of training courses attended were negatively correlated with the EI, $r(57) = -.20$, $p = .046$, and an adviser's perception of the client's proximity to employment, $r(57) = -.27$, $p = .006$.

At Phase 2, senior management provided an objective yes/no response to whether advisers achieved their performance target across the previous six months: across the 102 dyads, 72 pairs (70.6%) had an adviser who achieved their target. Also, over three quarters (76.5%) of clients had the same adviser across both phases of this research, but the results were not significant (discussed further in section 6.3.4). None of the adviser characteristics (Chapter 5) were significantly related to employment or employability progression outcomes (See Appendix 14).

Table 6.1. *Bivariate Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients matrix for variables associated with employability outcomes*

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1 Entered Employment	.53	.51	1													
2 Employability Progression +	.50	.51	-.37*	1												
3 Employability Index	113.5	17.17	.45**	-.40**	1											
4 Age	34.85	13.46	-.22*	-.15	-.30**	1										
5 Gender	.61	.49	.37**	.14	.13	-.08	1									
6 Health conditions	.61	.49	.33**	-.41**	.58**	-.31**	.22*	1								
7 Length/unemployment	4.69	3.39	-.34**	.06	-.20*	.33**	-.12	-.20*	1							
8 SIMD	2.85	2.23	.17	-.08	.13	-.08	.16	.09	-.04	1						
9 Proximity (Client)	5.92	2.31	.41**	-.32*	.60**	-.20*	.20*	.48**	-.25*	.17	1					
10 Proximity (Adviser)	6.76	2.35	.46**	-.08	.42**	-.05	.23*	.32**	-.28**	.20*	.44**	1				
11 Dedicated Adviser	.76	.43	-.06	.01#	.07	-.16	-.11	.08	-.05	.13	.02	.09	1			
12 Sanctioned	.12	.32	-.20*	.26	-.11	-.18	-.14	-.14	-.03	-.04	-.01	-.09	-.01	1		
13 Training courses	1.92	2.41	-.30**	.33*	-.20*	-.08	-.12	-.14	-.04	-.11	-.04	-.27**	-.07	.25*	1	
14 Adviser Performance	.71	.46	-.18	.20	-.04	-.13	-.03	-.03	-.02	-.18	-.14	-.09	.10	.04	.07	1

Note:

Data Source: Provider data and client survey. Sample size: Client, $N = 102$ (+ $N = 44$); Adviser, $N = 27$; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; # p-value of 1.

Measures: Employment outcome: did not obtain employment (0); did obtain employment (1). Employability Progression: did not progress (0); did progress (1). Age: Continuous; Gender: male (1); female (0); Health conditions: yes (0); no (1); Length of unemployment: Less than 3 months; 3-6 months; 6–12 months; 12-18 months; 18-24 months; 24-36 months; 3–4 years; 4–5 years; 5–6 years; over 6 years. SIMD decile from 1-10; Proximity to employment: 0-10; Dedicated Adviser: yes (1) and no (0); Sanctioned: yes (1) and no (0); Training courses attended: continuous number. Adviser Performance: objective measure of whether they hit their performance target (1) or not (0).

Figure 6.1. A summary diagram of antecedent and employability variables influencing employment outcomes

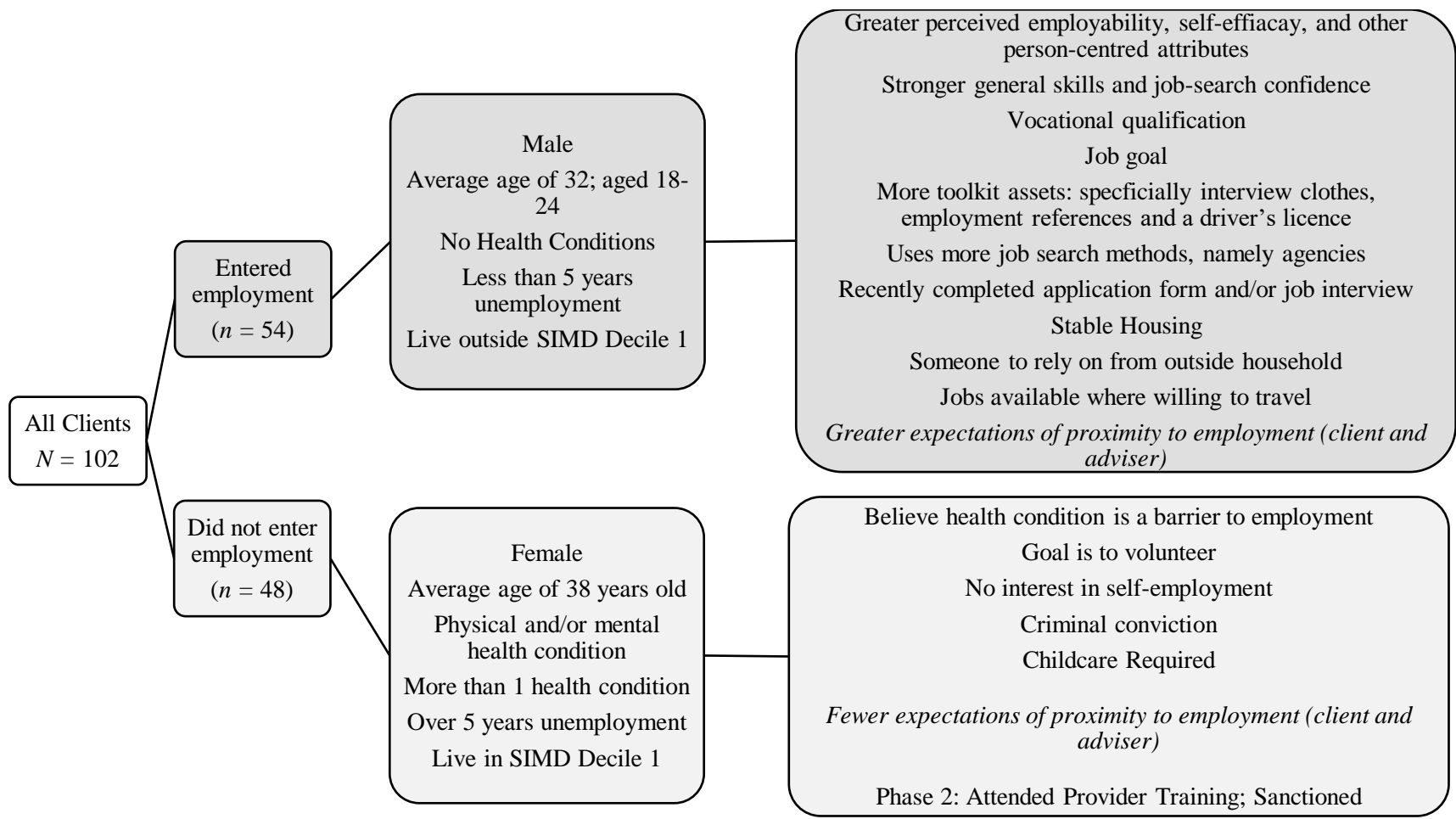


Table 6.2. *Employment outcomes for the client sample: Phase I Antecedents (N = 102) (%)*

Characteristics	Entered Employment (n = 54)	Did Not Enter Employment (n = 48)	p value
Age (<i>Mean, SD</i>)	32.04 (12.74)	38.02 (13.66)	.024
18-24	22 (31.4)	10 (20.8)	.031
25-49	24 (44.4)	26 (25.5)	.327
50+	8 (14.8)	12 (25)	.196
Gender			
Male	42 (77.8)	20 (41.7)	<.001
Female	12 (22.2)	28 (58.3)	
Health and well-being +			
Physical Condition	0	5 (10.4)	.015
Mental health	5 (9.3)	13 (27.1)	.018
No health condition	41 (75.9)	21 (43.8)	.001
No of conditions (<i>Mean, SD</i>)	0.31 (0.64)	0.81 (0.87)	.001
Length of Unemployment			.001
Less than 3 months	4 (7.4)	0	.054
3-6 months	2 (3.7)	1 (2.1)	.629
6-12 months	8 (14.8)	3 (6.3)	.164
12-18 months	14 (25.9)	7 (14.6)	.157
18-24 months	3 (5.6)	0	.097
24-36 months	6 (11.1)	6 (12.5)	.828
3 – 4 years	4 (7.4)	2 (4.2)	.487
4-5 years	1 (1.9)	1 (2.1)	.933
5-6 years	0	4 (8.3)	.030
6 years +	2 (3.7)	15 (31.3)	.000
Never Worked	10 (18.5)	9 (18.8)	.976
Office location			.861
Motherwell	2 (3.7)	9 (18.8)	.014
Hamilton	5 (9.3)	0	.031
Home Location / SIMD			.087
1	13 (24.1)	24 (50)	.007
2	12 (22.2)	9 (18.8)	.665
3	13 (24.1)	4 (8.3)	.033
Labour Demand (job density)			.070
.58	10	7	.595
.65	9	1	.013
.66	0	2	.130
.67	5	13	.018
.79	5	3	.573
.81	8	6	.735
1.02	4	3	.817
1.06	13	13	.728
<1	17	16	.842
>1	37	32	

Note: Data Source: Provider data and client survey. +multiple response question

Table 6.3. *Employment outcomes for the client sample: Phase 1 Employability Index Items (N = 102) (%)*

Item	Entered Employment (n = 54)	Did Not Enter Employment (n = 48)	p value
Employability Index (<i>Mean, SD</i>)	120.67 (14.24)	105.44 (16.72)	<.001
Health NOT a barrier (<i>Mean, SD</i>)	2.76 (1.13)	2.35 (0.89)	.049
Personal Attributes (<i>Mean, SD</i>)	3.38 (0.55)	2.97 (0.52)	<.001
Immediacy of Employment (<i>Mean, SD</i>)	3.37 (0.59)	2.88 (0.68)	<.001
General Skills Average (<i>Mean, SD</i>)	3.18 (0.51)	2.88 (0.49)	.003
Job Search Confidence (<i>Mean, SD</i>)	2.74 (0.65)	2.31 (0.74)	.002
Long-term career goal (%)	32 (59.3)	18 (37.5)	.028
Volunteering Goal	0	8 (6)	.002
Not interested in self-employment	14 (25.9)	26 (54.2)	.004
Work-related Qualifications	28 (51.9)	13 (27.1)	.011
Toolkit Total (<i>Mean, SD</i>)+	4.44 (1.06)	3.65 (1.38)	.001
Criminal Conviction	6 (11.1)	14 (29.2)	.022
No. of job search methods (<i>Mean, SD</i>)+	3.54 (1.76)	2.81 (1.66)	.035
Recruitment agencies	24 (49)	8 (20.5)	.006
Recently completed application forms	42 (77.8)	23 (47.9)	.006
Recently completed job interviews	21 (38.9)	9 (18.8)	.026
Childcare Required	3 (17.6)	8 (57.1)	.022
Housing Stability	46 (85.2)	33 (68.8)	.047
Someone to rely on from outside household to find a job (<i>Mean, SD</i>)	3.00 (0.61)	2.69 (0.69)	.017
Jobs available where willing to travel (<i>Mean, SD</i>)	2.85 (0.63)	2.48 (0.92)	.018

Note: Data Source: Provider data and client survey. +multiple response question

Table 6.4. *Employment outcomes for the client sample: Phase 1 Subjective Measure of Proximity to Employment (N = 102) (Mean, SD)*

Response	Overall Average	Entered Employment (n = 54)	Did Not Enter Employment (n = 48)	t	p value
Client response	5.92 (2.31)	6.80 (1.96)	4.92 (2.30)	-4.46	<.001
Adviser response	6.76 (2.35)	7.78 (1.99)	5.63 (2.22)	-5.17	<.001

Note: Data Source: Provider data and client survey.

Table 6.5. *Employment outcomes for the client sample: Phase 2 Enabling Support Items (frequency, %)*

Item	All Clients (N = 102)	Entered Employment (n = 54)	Did Not Enter Employment (n = 48)	Inferential Test		
				<i>Chi-square</i>	<i>t-test</i>	<i>p value</i>
Dedicated Adviser	78 (76.5)	40 (74.1)	38 (79.2)	0.37		.545
Sanctions	12 (11.8)	3 (5.6)	9 (18.8)	4.26		.039
Training attended (M, SD)	1.92 (2.41)	1.24 (1.75)	2.69 (2.81)		3.16	.002
Volunteering	13 (72.2)	5 (38.5)	8 (61.5)	2.49		.114
Adviser performance	72 (70.6)	34 (63)	38 (79.2)	3.21		.073
Provider organisation						
Org X	84 (82.4)	49 (90.7)	35 (72.9)			
Org Y	18 (17.6)	5 (9.3)	13 (27).1	5.555		.018

Note: Data Source: Provider data and client survey. Adviser performance (hit targets (1); did not hit targets (0))

Finally, clients in Organisation X were significantly more likely to enter employment than Organisation Y: this result emerges from Chi-squares tests of association, $\chi^2(1, N = 102) = 5.555, p = .018$ (Table 6.5). In regard to adviser performance, 100 per cent of adviser in Organisation Y compared to 63.1 per cent of advisers in Organisation X were reported by their manager to have hit their target, $\chi^2(1, N = 102) = 9.543, p = .002$ (Appendix 8). There are no significant differences between the provider organisation and adviser behaviour in regard the training clients attended ($t(100) = -1.344, p = .182$), volunteering undertaken ($\chi^2(1, N = 102) = .209, p = .648$), the sanctions clients received ($\chi^2(1, N = 102) = 2.914, p = .088$), or whether the client worked with the same adviser across the six-month research duration ($\chi^2(1, N = 102) = 1.168, p = .280$).

6.1.2. Variables (included in the EI) associated with entering employment

A strong positive association exists between the EI, $r(100) = .45, p < .001$, and entering employment, with the p-value significant at a 99 per cent confidence level (Table 6.2). The average EI score for clients is 113.5 ($SD = 17.17$), with client who entered employment demonstrating a higher value ($M = 120.67, SD = 14.24$).

The EI score increases in the absence of a health condition, $r(100) = .58, p < .001$, and decreases with age, $r(100) = -.30, p = .002$ and length of unemployment, $r(100) = .20, p = .04$. There are no significant associations with gender, $r(100) = .13, p = .183$, or SIMD, $r(100) = .135, p = .18$. At Phase 2, the only significant association exists with the number of training courses a client attends: specifically, the greater the

EI, the less training a client attended, $r(100) = -.20, p = .046$.

With many factors involved in the development and deployment of employability, some of the significant variables comprising the EI measure will be explored (Table 6.3).

Individual factors

The following results suggest the route into employment is influenced by a range of supply-side variable, including personal attributes, general skills and job-search confidence, a vocational qualification and ‘toolkit’ of essential assets such as a CV and employment references. Clients who entered employment also used more methods of job-searching (namely agencies).

Personal attributes demonstrated higher scores for clients who entered employment ($M = 3.38, SD = .55$) than those who did not enter employment ($M = 2.97, SD = .52$), $t(100) = -4.302, p < .001$. On their own, each of the personal attributes components were significantly related to employment outcomes, with clients who entered employment more positive about their job-search self-efficacy, $t(100) = -3.317, p = .001$, employment orientation, $t(100) = -2.554, p = .012$, and perceived employability, $t(100) = -4.322, p < .001$. Additionally, the client’s perception of their immediacy of entering employment demonstrated that those clients who entered employment had a greater sense of their potential ($M = 3.37, SD = .59$) than those who did not ($M = 2.88, SD = .68$), $t(100) = -3.932, p < .001$.

General skills, $t(100) = -3.065, p = .003$, specifically, competencies included Maths, $t(100) = 2.008, p = 0.047$, and money management/budgeting, $t(100) = -2.782, p = .006$, were significantly higher for clients who entered employment. And while overall confidence in using information technology was not significant, $t(100) = -1.736, p = 0.086$, a client who had confidence accessing the internet, was more likely to enter employment ($M = 3.11, SD = .86$) than clients who had not ($M = 2.75, SD = .91$), $t(100) = -2.031, p = .045$. As anticipated, in comparison to clients who did not enter employment, those who were successful reported greater job search confidence, $t(100) = -3.163, p = .002$, and had more assets in their toolkit, $t(100) = 10.048, p = .002$, specifically, a driver's licence, $\chi^2(1, N = 102) = 6.167, p = .013$, interview clothing, $\chi^2(1, N = 102) = 5.448, p = .020$, and employment references, $\chi^2(1, N = 102) = 4.148, p = .042$.

Vocational qualifications, $\chi^2(1, N = 102) = 6.485, p = .011$, unlike education, $\chi^2(5, N = 102) = 5.11, p = .402$, was a significant factor linked to employment outcomes, with over half of clients (51.9%) who entered employment possessing a work qualification on entering the Work Programme, compared to just over a quarter (27.1%) who did not gain employment. However, work history was not significantly different for clients who entered employment or not; again, it must be noted that a Work Programme client is likely to have limited experience and is representative of the homogenous nature of the sample. Similarly, clients who entered employment were more likely to be actively looking for work ($N = 88$), yet the results were not significant, which is unsurprising due to the mandatory nature of the Work Programme and expectations of active job searching as part of the conditionality attached to receipt

of benefit payments.

That said, clients who entered employment were significantly more likely to have completed application forms, $\chi^2(1, N = 88) = 7.443, p = .006$, or at least one job interview before starting the Work Programme, $\chi^2(1, N = 88) = 4.964, p = .026$. While frequency with which they sought or applied for work was not significantly related to whether a client entered employment, the more job search methods used the better the individual's chances of entering the workforce, $t(86) = -2.135, p = .035$, with the majority of clients who entered employment applying for work through an average of four methods, ranging from one to six. Not all methods were significant in and of themselves, apart from utilising recruitment agencies, whereby half (49%) of the clients seeking employment were successful, $\chi^2(1, N = 102) = 7.605, p = .006$.

Personal Circumstances

The need for childcare was a significant factor influencing whether an individual enters employment, $\chi^2(2, N = 31) = 5.231, p = .022$. More specifically, clients were significantly likely to not enter employment (57.1%) when childcare was required (Table 6.3).

Whether a client lived in social or private housing was not significantly different for clients who entered employment or not; where a client's housing situation does have a significant impact on the likelihood of them entering employment if they live in 'stable' accommodation (85.2%) compared to those at risk of losing their accommodation (14.8%), $\chi^2(1, N = 102) = 3.930, p = 0.05$.

Social support from friends or family in helping a client job search demonstrated similar levels of agreement, yet these results are not significantly different for clients who enter employment or not. However, there is a significant relationship between relying on someone from outside the client's household and employment outcomes, $t(100) = -2.422$, $p = .017$, with clients who entered employment more likely to agree they have someone from outside their family to support with job searching.

Spatial mobility and travel issues demonstrated a statistically significant difference between the employment groups. With no significant relationship between whether clients believe transport is an issue and employment outcomes, the results suggest that the significance lies in 'willingness' rather than access, as clients who entered employment were more positive ($M = 2.85$, $SD = .63$) compared to their counterparts ($M = 2.48$, $SD = .92$) when asked if there are jobs available where they would be willing to travel, $t(100) = -2.410$, $p = .018$.

External Factors

External factors were assessed against subjective and objective measures (e.g. SIMD). Subjective measures such as *local recruitment practices allow me to apply for vacancies and qualifications* and *I have skills and qualifications relevant to the labour market*, were responded to more positively for clients who entered employment, but the results were not significant (Table 6.3).

Enabling Support

Concerning the final employability category, enabling factors, government work incentives were not abundant during the time of the study, and therefore, a client's perception of incentives was captured at Phase 1. When asked if the *government provides adequate incentives to support improved employability*, clients who entered employment had a higher perception of support ($M = 2.74, SD = .78$), compared to those not in employment ($M = 2.52, SD = .71$); however, this was not found to be significant, $t(100) = -1.477, p = .143$ (Table 6.3).

6.1.3. Advisers' subjective assessment of client employability

While not included in EI, clients and advisers informally measure the client's "distance" from the labour market, rating their proximity to employment on a 0-10 scale. Both client and advisers have similar views of the client's proximity to employment, $r(100) = .44, p < .001$, even though advisers rate their client almost one scale point higher than clients rate themselves (Table 6.1). Moreover, the EI was positively associated with both client, $r(100) = .60, p < .001$, and adviser ratings of the client's proximity to employment, $r(100) = .42, p < .001$. These results suggest that the proximity item has the potential to be a shorthand measure of employability. What is more, it also has the potential to be a predictor of employment outcomes. Clients who entered employment were significantly more likely to rate themselves higher on the scale, $t(100) = -4.465, p < .001$, and work with advisers who rated them higher, $t(100) = -5.170, p < .001$, than those who did not enter employment. However, advisers are

more accurate predictors of a client entering employment. When entering three variables (EI, adviser rating of client proximity and client rating of proximity) into a binary logistic regression, two significant predictors of employment outcomes emerged: the EI ($\beta = .05$; $p = .003$; $\text{Exp}(\beta) = 1.05$) and the adviser's response ($\beta = .374$, $p = .002$, $\text{Exp}(\beta) = 1.45$). With the adviser's response a more powerful predictor than the EI.

6.1.4. Summary of results relating to entering employment

An individual's ability to realise their assets and skills to some extent depends upon personal circumstances, such as childcare or other commitments, and their ability to seek, and benefit from, opportunities. Demand-side factors played a role in a client's labour market success: stable housing and someone to rely on from outside their household, as well as a belief that there are jobs available where they are willing to travel are more prevalent for clients who entered employment. However, circumstances and individual factors are also influenced by external socioeconomic factors, for example, local labour market demand and whether a client lives in an area with high levels of unemployment. External factors were influential in employment outcomes: clients who lived in the top-ranked area of deprivation (SIMD1) were likely to not enter employment.

These results suggest that a successful client will be a young male without any health conditions – especially not physical or mental health conditions. He will have references and interview clothing, maybe a driver's licence, and no convictions. Ideally, he will have

work qualifications and have no more than five years of unemployment (but if he has never worked, that is not an issue). He may not have any educational qualifications, but will likely have no numeracy issues, and possess good money management skills. Confident in his ability to job search, he will have a job goal and a work qualification. Without an adviser asking him, he will complete application forms and attend job interviews and use at least four methods to apply for work – finally getting a job through an agency. He will be confident in his employability and committed to working. He will live in secure housing and know there are jobs available where he would be willing to travel. He might have children but hopefully will not require childcare. There will be someone to rely on from outside of his household; whether that is a dedicated Work Programme adviser is irrelevant. He will attend fewer training sessions than his unemployed counterparts and will also avoid being sanctioned.

6.2. EMPLOYABILITY PROGRESSION: THE OTHER SIDE OF EMPLOYMENT OUTCOMES

While entering employment is the most commonly measured employability outcome captured at the end of a prescribed time period, this study also considers employability progression an outcome. Forty-four clients participated in Phase 2. With a smaller sample size than Phase 1, Phase 2 results are unable to be generalised to a wider population. As set out in Chapter 5, Pearson chi-squares, independent samples t-tests and paired samples t-tests were used to examine differences in the EI scores of clients who progressed or not, and also identify the significant variables associated

with whether clients progressed or not. Before discussing where a change occurred over the two phases, first, the relationship between employment outcomes and employability progression outcomes will be discussed.

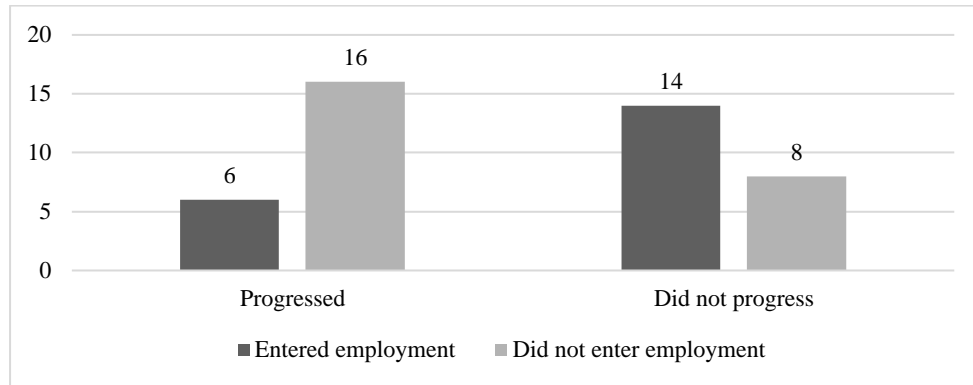
6.2.1. Variables associated with employability progression

At Phase 2, there was an even split between clients who progressed ($n = 22$) compared who did not progress ($n = 22$) within six months. Clients who progressed demonstrate similar results to clients who did not enter employment. They had health conditions (and a greater number of self-reported health conditions) and generally had lower EI scores at Phase 1 ($M = 109.55$, $SD = 15.8$). Variables such as personal attributes, skills and confidence, for example, were lower than average (Table 6.6, Figure 6.3). The toolkit total and job-search behaviours, mainly those measured by the number of methods and hours spent looking for work, were lower at Phase 1 for clients who progressed as well as clients who did not enter employment. Conversely, clients who wanted to volunteer were more likely to progress, while they did not enter employment.

Clients who did not progress demonstrate similar results to those clients who entered employment, with higher scores across most variables at Phase 1. Furthermore, there was a significant relationship between employment outcomes and employability progression outcomes, $\chi^2(1, N = 44) = 5.867$, $p = .015$. Of the 44 clients, 20 had entered employment, of which only six clients demonstrated an improvement in their employability (Figure 6.2). That is, clients who did not progress were more likely to

be clients who entered employment.

Figure 6.2. Differences between employment outcomes and employability progression outcomes (frequency)

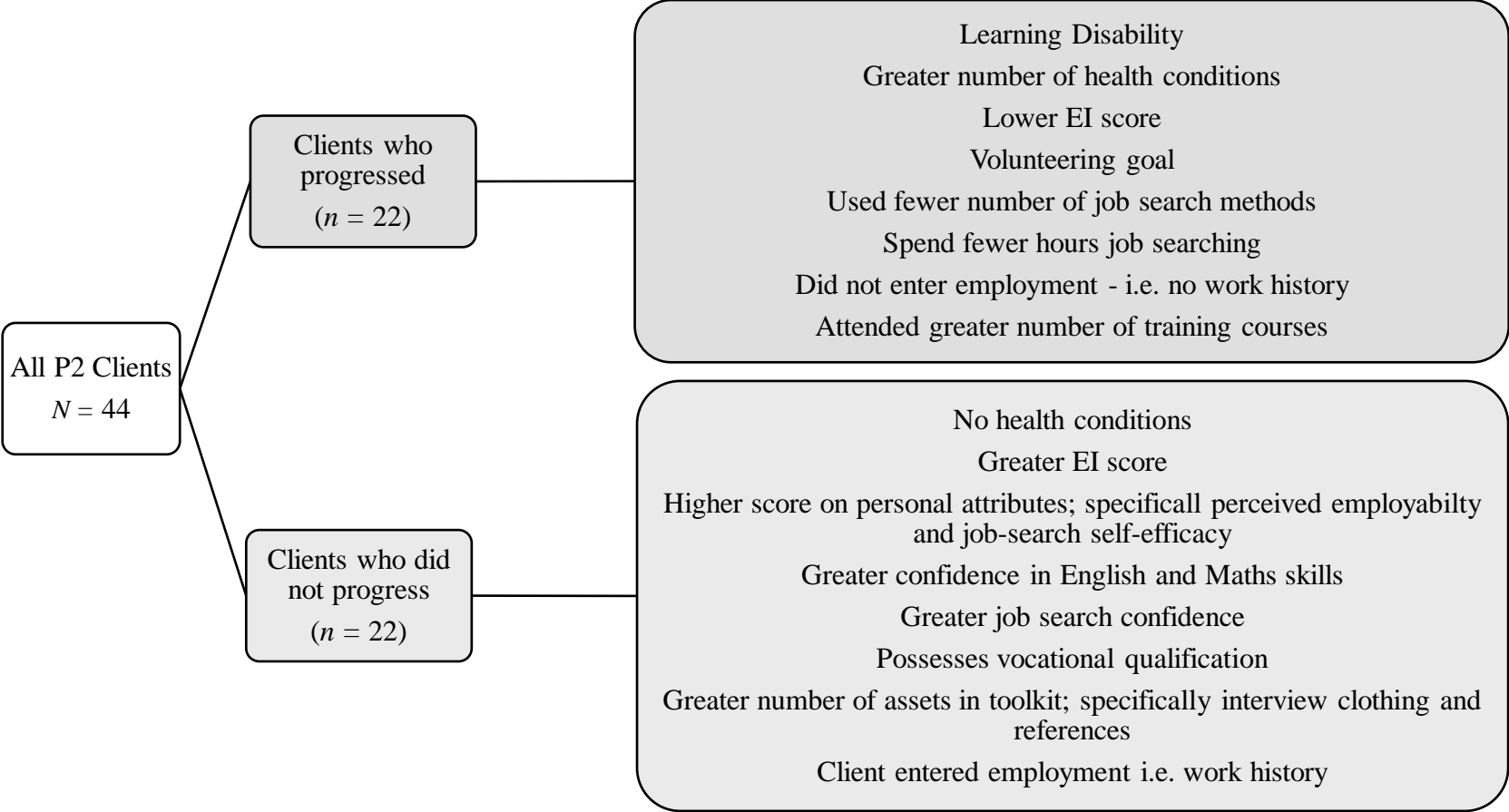


The only Phase 2 variable which differed for clients who progressed compared to clients who did not progress was the number of training courses they had attended during their six months on the Work Programme. Clients who progressed attend more courses ($M = 3.36$, $SD = 3.23$) than clients who did not progress ($M = 1.45$, $SD = 2.3$), $t(42) = -2.24$, $p = .030$. Sanctions were not significantly different for clients who progressed or not. While tailored, consistent support from a dedicated adviser is considered a key tenant in the personalisation agenda, consistency of advisers across phases one and two, nor adviser in-role performance, influenced whether a client progressed or not. There was no significant difference across provider organisations in regard to employability progression outcomes ($\chi^2(1, N = 44) = .518$, $p = .472$).

Table 6.6. Significant differences across antecedent, employability and psychological contract variables across employability progression outcomes

Characteristics	All P2 Clients (N = 44)		Progressed (n = 22)		Did Not Progress (n = 22)		Inferential Test	
	Freq (%)	Mean (SD)	Freq (%)	Mean (SD)	Freq (%)	Mean (SD)	T-test / chi-square	p-value
Health and well-being +								
Learning Disability	6 (13.6)		6 (27.3)		0		6.95	.008
No health condition	25 (56.8)		8 (28.6)		17 (77.3)		7.50	.006
Number of health conditions		.59 (.76)		.91 (.82)		.27 (.55)	-3.05	.004
Employment Outcome	20 (45.5)		6 (27.3)		14 (63.6)		5.87	.015
Employability Index Phase 1		115.61 (15.49)		109.55 (15.8)		121.68 (12.83)	2.80	.008
Employability Index Phase 2		115.59 (13.86)		119.06 (11.98)		111.69 (15.13)	-1.58	.123
Personal Attributes		3.23 (.49)		3.05 (.48)		3.41 (.43)	2.65	.011
Perceived Employability		3.09 (.65)		2.89 (.67)		3.30 (.57)	2.18	.035
Job Search Self-Efficacy		3.03 (.68)		2.74 (.68)		3.32 (.56)	3.06	.004
Skills Confidence								
Issues with Maths (Rev)		2.93 (.82)		2.63 (.65)		3.23 (.69)	2.54	.015
Issues with English (Rev)		3.25 (.78)		2.91 (.87)		3.59 (.50)	3.19	.003
Job Search Confidence		2.57 (.70)		2.29 (.70)		2.85 (.63)	2.86	.007
Work Qualifications	20 (45.5)	.45 (.50)	6 (27.3)		14 (63.6)		2.54	.015
Volunteering Goal	4 (9.1)		4 (9.1)		0 (0)		2.16	.037
Toolkit Total		4.27 (1.15)		3.72 (1.1)		4.81 (.96)	3.55	.001
Suitable interview clothing		.70 (.46)		.55 (.51)		.86 (.35)	2.41	.020
Employment references		.52 (.51)		.32 (.48)		.73 (.46)	2.91	.006
Number of job search methods		3.39 (1.56)		2.86 (1.52)		3.91 (1.44)	2.34	.024
Hours spent looking for work		1.57 (1.19)		2.09 (1.23)		3.05 (.95)	2.88	.006
Number of Provider Training (P2)		2.41 (2.95)		3.36 (3.23)		1.45 (2.3)	-2.24	.030
Dedicated adviser	32 (72.7)		16 (72.7)		16 (72.7)		.000	1.00

Figure 6.3. A summary diagram of factors influencing employability progression outcomes



6.2.2. Significant changes in employability from Phase 1 to Phase 2

Considering welfare-to-work programmes intend to improve individual employability and ensure clients leave more employable than when they began, the changes in employability across the phases were analysed to identify where employability progression occurred. When comparing the differences between Phase 1 and Phase 2 EI scores the mean change was negligible with a range of 56, with a maximum improvement of 25 points and negative change of 31 points (i.e. the EI had reduced by 31 points). For clients who did not progress, the average difference was 12.5 ($SD = .95$), while for clients who did progress the average was 9.7 ($SD = .90$); suggesting that progression was not as substantial a change as the 'worsening' of employability. The EI is not significantly different across phases, $t(42) = .075$, $p = .940$). In fact, few significant differences emerged across phases.

Paired sample t-tests were carried out across all variables to assess whether there was a statistically significant mean difference between the EI at Phase 1 and Phase 2. Table 6.7 only presents significant changes. General skills, IT confidence and all personal attribute averages remain unchanged across time. One item relating to IT confidence improved over time, clients' confidence in accessing the internet. There was a significant change across the mean score of job-search confidence with an increase from 2.54 ($SD = .72$) to 2.9 ($SD = .73$). Also, there was a significant gain in the number of toolkit items from an average of 4 to 5, specifically for CVs and interview clothing.

In general, there was a demonstrable increase in the frequency of applications made, with a marked shift towards weekly applications, and increase in the completion of application forms and more frequent attendance at job interviews. How clients looked for work also changed over six months with a move from accessing the JobCentre to contacting employers directly. Work history significantly changed over time, which is not unexpected considering 20 of the sample of 44 entered work over the six-month research duration. While 45 per cent of clients started the programme with a work qualification, over half had one after six months.

Furthermore, the perception of available jobs where clients would be willing to travel increased significantly across phases. That said, there was a negative shift in a clients' perception of whether local recruitment practices allowed them to apply for vacancies, reducing from an average of 3.13 ($SD = .55$) to 2.81 ($SD = .78$). Also, the mean score for the item my health condition does not impact my ability to find or keep a job reduced, suggesting that perceptions of health as a barrier had altered within six months on the Work Programme, but not for the better.

Finally, paired t-tests demonstrated a difference between advisers' assessments of their clients' proximity to employment, $t(42) = 2.973$, $p = .005$, reducing from 5.96 ($SD = 1.19$) to 4.69 ($SD = 2.15$), suggesting that advisers at Phase 2 saw their clients as further away from employment (Table 6.7).

Table 6.7. Summary table of significant changes from Phase 1 to Phase 2 across client sample (N = 44)

Characteristics	Phase 1		Phase 2		Inferential Test	
	%	Mean (SD)	%	Mean (SD)	T-test	p
Employability Index		115.61 (15.49)		115.59 (13.86)	.075	.940
Other members of household in employment	29.4		37.8		2.089	.044
Health <i>not</i> a barrier		2.57 (1.04)		2.06 (0.87)	2.452	.019
Confident accessing internet		2.94 (0.91)		3.09 (0.98)	-2.052	.048
Job Search Confidence		2.54 (0.72)		2.90 (0.73)	-2.742	.010
Work Qualifications	45.5		53.9		-3.742	<.001
Career goal	49		51.4		2.411	.021
Work History	76.5		90.7		-3.504	.001
Toolkit Total		4.07 (1.28)		4.78 (0.89)	-3.329	.002
Suitable interview clothing	69.6		94.3		-3.510	.002
CV	81.4		100		-2.640	.012
Job Search Behaviours						
Jobcentre	73.2		35.7		-3.162	.002
Direct to Employer	39		64.3		-3.00	.003
How often apply					-3.976	.001
Never	29.5		0.0			
Every couple of months	6.8		4.3			
Monthly	20.5		0.0			
Weekly	43.2		95.7			
Recently completed application forms	72.7		90		-2.249	.032
Recently completed job interviews	31.8		70		-3.003	.005
Jobs available where willing to travel		2.66 (0.86)		3.34 (0.67)	-3.700	.001
Local recruitment practices allow me to apply for vacancies		3.13 (0.55)		2.81 (0.78)	-2.154	.039
Proximity to employment (Adviser response)		5.96 (1.91)		4.69 (2.15)	3.016	.006

6.2.3. Summary of results relating to employability progression

There is evidence that clients who had lower levels of employability were more likely to report health conditions and lower self-evaluations (e.g. self-efficacy and job search confidence), spend less time searching for work, have fewer assets in their toolkit, and no work history to speak of. Ultimately, clients who progressed demonstrated similar results to clients who did not enter employment. They also were less likely to have entered employment over the six-month research duration. Conversely, clients who did not progress have no health conditions, greater self-evaluations, vocational qualification, a greater number of assets, and also had a work history. Clients who entered employment did not progress at all. Of the 20 jobseekers at Phase 2 who had entered employment, only six demonstrated employability progression.

6.3. HYPOTHESES TESTING

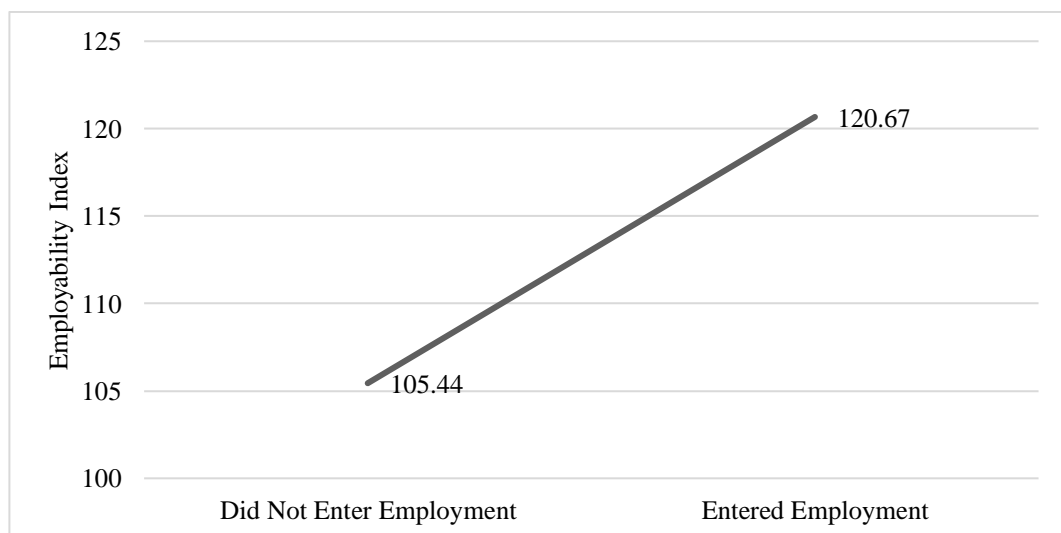
There are three hypotheses set out to understand specific variables that influence clients' employment outcomes, which will now be discussed in turn.

6.3.1. Test of Hypothesis 1: the role of employability in entering employment

***H1:** Clients with higher Employability Index (EI) scores at Phase 1 are more likely than clients with lower EI scores to enter employment by Phase 2.*

The range of employability factors was parsimoniously captured in the EI. An independent samples t-test was used to test the first hypothesis; employment outcome (did not enter employment (0) and did enter employment (1)) was the dependent variable, and the EI score was the independent variable. Made up of 48 variables, and a composite score produced ranging from 32 to 162, a higher EI score indicates a ‘better’ level of employability. The average EI score for clients who entered employment was significantly higher ($M = 120.67$, $SD = 14.24$, range from 76 to 148), than those who did not enter employment ($M = 105.44$, $SD = 16.72$, range from 69 to 134), $t(100) = -4.968$, $p < .001$, (Tables 6.1 and 6.3, Figure 6.4). Thus, clients with higher employability baseline EI scores – and therefore possessing a range of employability factors theoretically linked to job starts – are more likely to enter employment than those with lower scores, supporting H1.

Figure 6.4. *Difference in Employment Outcomes based on EI scores*

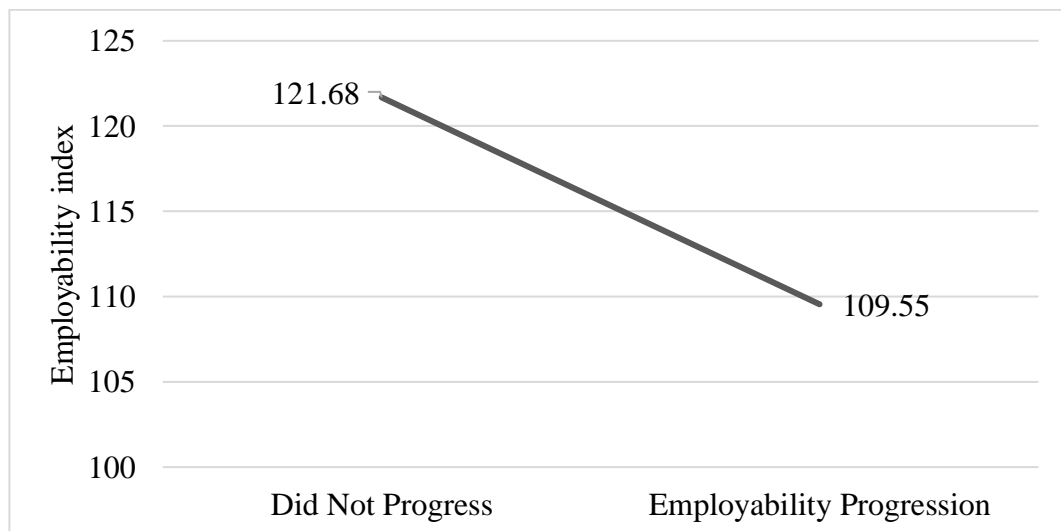


6.3.2. Test of Hypothesis 2: the role of employability on employability progression

H2: Clients with lower Employability Index (EI) scores at Phase 1 are more likely than clients with higher EI scores to demonstrate employability progression at Phase 2.

As hypothesised, there was a significant difference between clients who progressed and those who did not progress based on initial baseline employability scores. Those who progressed had a lower EI average at Phase 1 ($M = 109.55$, $SD = 15.80$) than those who did not progress ($M = 121.68$, $SD = 12.83$), $t(42) = 2.797$, $p = .008$), supporting H2 (Table 6.7, Figure 6.5).

Figure 6.5. Difference in Employability Progression based on EI scores



6.3.3. Test of Hypothesis 3: the significance of a dedicated adviser

H3: Clients who work with the same adviser across the six-month research duration are more likely than clients who do not have a dedicated adviser to (a) enter employment and (b) demonstrate employability progression.

Out of 102 clients, 72 (70.6%) had a dedicated adviser at the end of Phase 2. This figure is comparable to a national study whereby 67.7 per cent of clients ‘almost of almost always’ had the same adviser (Meager et al., 2014). Forty of those clients entered employment and 38 did not enter employment. The results of the analysis did not support the hypothesis, $\chi^2(1, N = 102) = .366, p = .545$ (Table 6.5). At Phase 2, and from a sample of 44, 32 (72.7%) of clients had the same adviser from Phase 1 to Phase 2, but again, the results were not significant, $\chi^2(1, N = 44) = .000, p = 1.00$. Interestingly, however, a p-value of 1 suggests there is no statistical difference between the groups.

6.4. CHAPTER CONCLUSIONS

This chapter identified factors associated with clients’ employment outcomes and addressed three hypotheses. The clear finding is that clients possessing a range of employability factors theoretically linked to employment outcomes, are more likely to enter employment. Employability progression was analysed across a small sample, therefore only providing some initial insight that may be worthy of future research.

Results suggest that clients who progress are similar to clients who did not enter employment, which may seem an obvious finding if not for the result that clients who entered employment did not progress at Phase 2. Where employability progression occurred after six months, the significant changes were associated with the 'role' of being a client, such as increased job-search activities.

There is some insight into the role of enabling factors on employment outcomes, specifically relating to sanctions and training attendance. However, the role of the adviser as part of the enabling support an LMI provides a client is not significant. If employability is a maze of employability factors, then some individuals will require support from an adviser to build their skills and manage their barriers. Therefore, there is a merit in investigating the role of the adviser from another perspective, that is, through their relationship with their client, with results presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER SEVEN

FINDINGS: THE INFLUENCE OF THE CLIENT-ADVISER RELATIONSHIP ON OBJECTIVE EMPLOYMENT OUTCOMES

This chapter sets out to understand the relationship between psychological contract variables and employment outcomes. Adhering to the belief that employability is a collective endeavour and employability outcomes are enabled by the social exchange between a client and their adviser, relationships were analysed from the individual perspective of both the client and the adviser, as well as the client-adviser dyad. The dependent variables remain as before (employment outcomes and employability progression). First, this chapter sets out the individual-level analysis of both the clients' and advisers' perceptions of their expectations and obligations at Phase 1, before identifying Mutuality and Reciprocity through dyad-level analysis. Next, the results of individual-level analysis at Phase 2 provides insight into the perceptions of Psychological Contract Breach (PCB).

From the conceptual model set out in chapter 4, three hypotheses were set out. First, an examination of the variation in Mutuality (H4) and Reciprocity (H5) that occurs between a client and their adviser at the start of the relationship was tested for association with future employment outcomes. Furthermore, it was hypothesised that perceived psychological breach from either a client or adviser at Phase 2 will be associated with whether a client enters employment (H6a) or progresses towards

employment (H6b); and also Phase 1 psychological contract variables Mutuality (H6c) and Reciprocity (H6d). Thus, this chapter sets the foundation for further discussion regarding the inclusion of the client-adviser relationship as a variable worthy of further analysis.

7.1. INDIVIDUAL-LEVEL ANALYSIS: DESCRIPTIVE SUMMARY OF PERCEIVED CLIENT AND ADVISER OBLIGATIONS AT PHASE 1

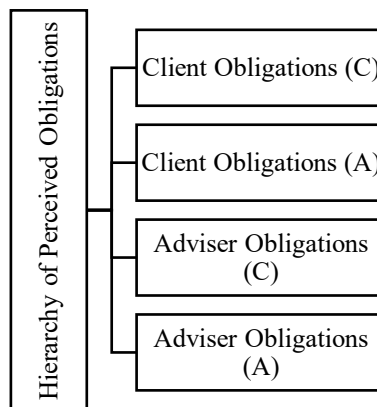
This section sets out the mean, standard deviations and correlations between the main variables reported in this chapter (Table 7.1). A client's commitment to deliver on their obligations produced the highest score out of four datasets provided by the *COQ* and *AOQ* (Table 7.1, Figure 7.1). Clients perception of their own obligations ($M = 4.50$, $SD = .60$) exceed all other expectations, with advisers' self-reported commitment to their obligations demonstrating the lowest average ($M = 2.79$, $SD = .49$), suggesting the least amount of commitment to the partnership. Apart from the adviser's self-report, all variables were above the mid-point, suggesting that obligations were indeed perceived. In an ordered hierarchy of each party's obligations, client's self-report is at the top, and client's self-report at the bottom. Two of these items are also correlated with employment outcomes: a client's expectations their adviser, and an advisers' expectations of their client (Table 7.1, Figure 7.2). Moreover, a clients' commitment is related to their expectations of their adviser, $r(100) = .30$, $p = .003$, and also an advisers' self-commitment compared to their perception of their clients' obligations, $r(100) = .31$, $p = .002$. These individual level correlations suggest reciprocal expectations, which will be investigated further when looking at dyad-level

analysis as the focus of this analysis.

The Employability Index is strongly associated with a clients' commitment to their own obligations (Client Obligations (C))¹³, $r(100) = .55$, $p < .001$, but not an advisers' commitment to their own obligations (Adviser Obligations(A)), $r(100) = -.15$, $p = .138$. A clients' commitment increases with the absence of health conditions, $r(100) = .28$, $p = .004$, but no other variables.

An advisers' perception of their client's employability is strongly correlated to their perception of their client's obligations (Client Obligations(A)), $r(100) = .22$, $p = .027$, however, is not associated with their own commitment to their obligations (Adviser Obligations (A)), $r(100) = -.15$, $p = .13$.

Figure 7.1. *Hierarchy of obligations as rated by clients and advisers*



¹³ As a shorthand, the term Client Obligation(A) will be used when discussing an adviser's expectation of their client's obligations (i.e. the advisers' response to the COQ): the first letter of the respondent – client or adviser - will be in subscript. The same approach will be adopted for Reciprocity. Where this differs is the shorthand for mutuality: the *subject* will be in subscript, for example, agreement of client obligations will be written as Mutuality(C).

Table 7.1. *Bivariate Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients matrix for variables associated with employability outcomes, including psychological contract measures*

		M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1	Employment Outcome	.53	.50	1													
2	Employ' Progression +	.50	.51	-.37*	1												
3	Age	34.9	13.5	-.22*	-.52	1											
4	Gender	.61	.49	.37**	.38	-.08	1										
5	Health	.61	.49	.33**	-.41**	-.31**	.22*	1									
6	Length unemployment	4.69	3.39	-.34**	0.06	.33**	-.22	-.20*	1								
7	SIMD	2.85	2.24	.67	-.08	-.08	.64	.09	-.04	1							
8	EI (P1)	113.5	17.2	.45**	-.40**	-.30**	.33	.58**	-.20*	.35	1						
9	Proximity (C)	5.91	2.31	.41**	-.32*	-.20*	.20*	.48**	-.25*	.70	.60**	1					
10	Proximity (A)	6.76	2.35	.46**	-.01	-.05	.23*	.32**	-.28**	.20*	.42**	.44**	1				
11	Dedicated Adviser	.76	.43	-.06	.00	-.63	-.14	.08	-.05	.30	.07	.02	.09	1			
12	Sanction	.12	.32	-.20*	.27	-.76	-.43	-.43	-.03	-.04	-.12	-.01	-.09	-.01	1		
13	Training courses	1.92	2.41	-.30**	.33*	-.08	-.12	-.14	-.04	-.11	-.20*	-.04	-.27**	-.07	.25*	1	
14	Performance (CEO)	.71	.46	-.78	.95	-.31	-.03	-.03	-.02	-.78	-.04	-.37	-.09	.10	.04	.07	1

Note.

Data Source: Provider data and client survey. **Sample size:** Client, N = 102 (+ N=44); Adviser, N = 27; *p<.05, **p<.01. **Phases:** P1 = Phase 1, P2 = Phase 2.

Measures: Employment outcome: did not obtain employment (0); did obtain employment (1). Employability Progression: did not progress (0); did progress (1). Age: Continuous; Gender: male (1); female (0); Health conditions: yes (0); no (1); Length of unemployment: Less than 3 months; 3–6 months; 6–12 months; 12–18 months; 18–24 months; 24–36 months; 3–4 years; 4–5 years; 5–6 years; over 6 years. SIMD decile from 1–10; Proximity to employment: 0–10; Dedicated Adviser: yes (1) and no (0); Sanctioned: yes (1) and no (0); Training courses attended: continuous number. Adviser Performance: objective measure of whether they hit their performance target (1) or not (0).

Table 7.1 continued.

		M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
15	Client obligations _(C)	4.50	.60	.15	.00	-.07	-.05	.28**	.11	.02	.55**	.35**	.28**	.04	-.06	-.10	-.00
16	Adviser obligations _(C)	3.10	.93	.25*	.05	-.14	.15	.27**	-.05	.03	.29**	.29**	.22*	-.19	-.04	.05	-.07
17	Adviser obligations _(A)	2.79	.49	.04	-.08	.05	-.07	-.07	-.10	-.11	-.15	-.06	-.15	-.24*	-.12	.21*	-.18
18	Client obligations _(A)	3.85	.76	.24*	-.11	.16	.10	.23*	.01	.02	.24*	.29**	.52**	-.05	-.22*	-.05	-.11
19	Reciprocity _(C) (P1)	1.42	.86	-.16	-.1	.08	-.19	-.08	.12	-.04	.09	-.07	-.05	.25*	-.01	-.13	.10
20	Reciprocity _(A) (P1)	1.11	.70	.26**	-.11	.11	.17	.28**	.05	.13	.32**	.35**	.61**	.12	-.18	-.19	-.02
21	Mutuality _(C) (P1)	.81	.63	-.16	.21	-.27**	-.06	-.07	-.07	-.04	.06	-.07	-.35**	-.14	.11	.03	.13
22	Mutuality _(A) (P1)	.82	.69	.11	-.16	-.07	.09	.13	.13	-.04	.11	.16	.06	-.24*	.00	.09	-.08
23	A-PCB _(C) (P2)	1.90	.86	.15	-.38*	.16	-.07	.15	-.03	.02	-.05	.03	-.01	.07	-.19	-.37*	-.10
24	C-PCB _(A) (P2)	2.37	.94	-.37**	-.02	-.01	-.30*	-.11	.04	-.01	-.12	-.12	-.47**	-.17	.36**	.37*	.04

Note.

Sample size: N(dyads) at P1 = 102, N(dyads) at P2 = 42.

Measures: Obligations: PCB is measured on 5-point scale: 1=not at all; 5=to a great extent. Reciprocity and Mutuality measures are calculated as the mean difference between scores. * p<.05, ** p<.01

Shorthand examples: Client Obligation_(A) = adviser's expectation of their client's obligations (i.e. the advisers' response to the COQ); Adviser Obligation_(A) = adviser's assessment of their own obligations (i.e. the advisers' response to the AOQ); Mutuality (c) = agreement between adviser and client of client obligations; C-PCB_(A) = Adviser perception of client PCB.

Table 7.1 continued.

		M	SD	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
15	Client obligations _(C)	4.50	.60	1									
16	Adviser obligations _(C)	3.10	.93	.43**	1								
17	Adviser obligations _(A)	2.79	.49	-.02	.06	1							
18	Client obligations _(A)	3.85	.76	.30**	.22*	.31**	1						
19	Reciprocity _(C)	1.42	.86	.24*	-.78**	-.10	-.05	1					
20	Reciprocity _(A)	1.11	.70	.26*	.18	-.35**	.75**	-.01	1				
21	Mutuality _(C)	.81	.63	.18	.012	-.09	-.67**	.11	-.61**	1			
22	Mutuality _(A)	.82	.69	.11	.51**	-.09	.07	-.44**	.13	.02	1		
23	A-PCB _(C) (P2)	1.90	.86	-.01	-.06	-.11	-.26	.06	-.16	.21	-.05	1	
24	C-PCB _(A) (P2)	2.37	.94	.07	.10	.01	-.42**	-.05	-.43**	.39**	.01	.11	1

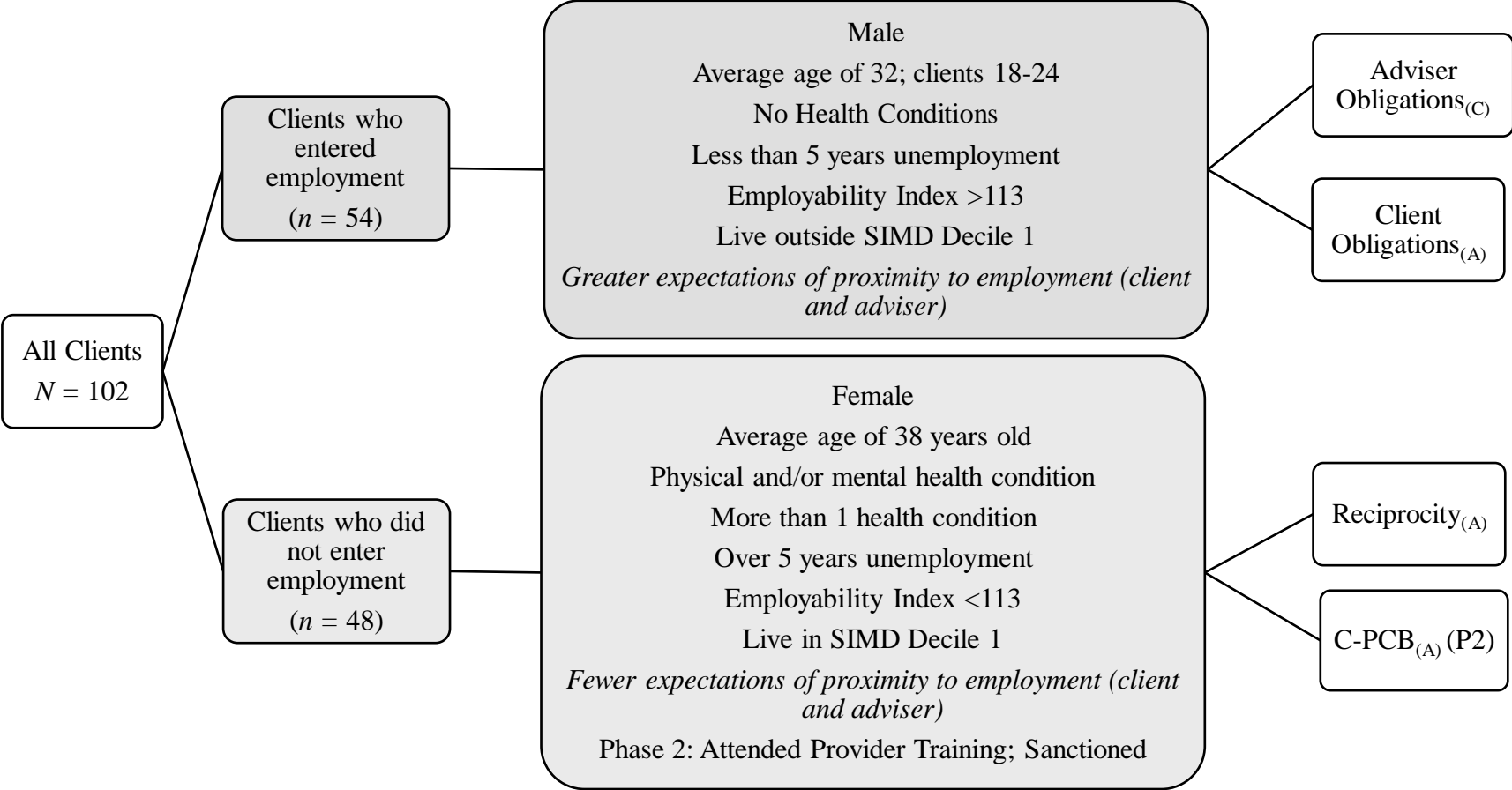
Note.

Sample size: N(dyads) at P1 = 102, N(dyads) at P2 = 42.

Measures: Obligations: PCB is measured on 5-point scale: 1=not at all; 5=to a great extent. Reciprocity and Mutuality measures are calculated as the mean difference between scores. * p<.05, ** p<.01

Shorthand examples: Client Obligation_(A) = adviser's expectation of their client's obligations (i.e. the advisers' response to the COQ); Adviser Obligation_(A) = adviser's assessment of their own obligations (i.e. the advisers' response to the AOQ); Mutuality (c) = agreement between adviser and client of client obligations.

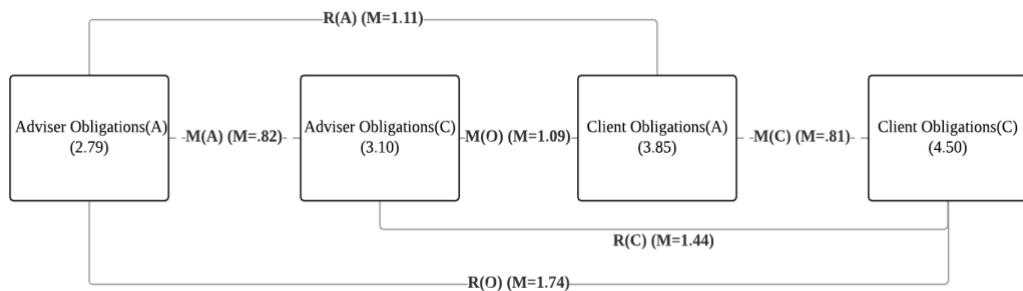
Figure 7.2. A summary diagram of psychological contract factors influencing employability progression outcomes



7.2. DYAD-LEVEL ANALYSIS: DESCRIPTIVE SUMMARY OF MUTUALITY AND RECIPROCITY AT PHASE 1

For both Mutuality and Reciprocity, a low mean difference is a positive result, identifying a smaller gap in responses, and the greater the presence of each measure. For example, the greatest level of mutuality exists across client obligations (Mutuality_(C)): with a smaller mean difference ($M = 0.81$, $SD = 0.63$) (Table 7.1; Figure 7.3). The lower the mean, the narrower the gap in agreement between both parties and thus the greater the presence of mutuality. More specifically, there is a stronger agreement between advisers and clients regarding the specific obligations of clients. On the other hand, the greatest perceived agreement of reciprocal exchange exists in the eyes of the adviser (Reciprocity_(A)) ($M = 1.11$, $SD = .70$) (Table 7.1; Figure 7.3). Again, the lower the mean, the narrower the gap in expectations.

Figure 7.3. Mean difference across client and adviser responses to initial assessments of psychological contract content (AOQ and COQ).



Note: Solid line = gaps in reciprocity; dotted line = gaps in mutuality.

At Phase 1, an advisers' perception of reciprocity is associated with a clients' lack of health conditions, $r(100) = .30, p = .005$. Because reciprocity is measured as the mean difference, a positive association means the mean difference increases with the lack of health conditions and employability. That is, inversely, reciprocity decreases with the lack of health conditions and employability. The only association demonstrated with mutuality of client obligations is the clients' age, $r(100) = -.27, p = .006$; considering the mean difference, mutuality increases with a client's advancing age.

At Phase 2, clients' perception of adviser reciprocity is attached to whether they have the same adviser across the six-month research duration, $r(100) = .25, p = .014$, as is the mutuality of adviser obligations, $r(100) = -.24, p = .016$. Considering the mean difference, working with the same adviser at Phase 2 is associated with fewer expectations of adviser reciprocity from clients and greater mutuality of adviser expectations at Phase 1.

The next section will discuss Reciprocity results first, followed by Mutuality. The focus will be on the two measures with the narrowest gap, that is, the advisers' perception of agreed reciprocity (Reciprocity_(A)), and the client-adviser agreement of clients' obligations (Mutuality_(C)).

7.2.1. An exploration of reciprocity

First, a strong positive correlation exists between an adviser's perception of agreed reciprocity (Reciprocity_(A)) and their expectations of their clients' commitment

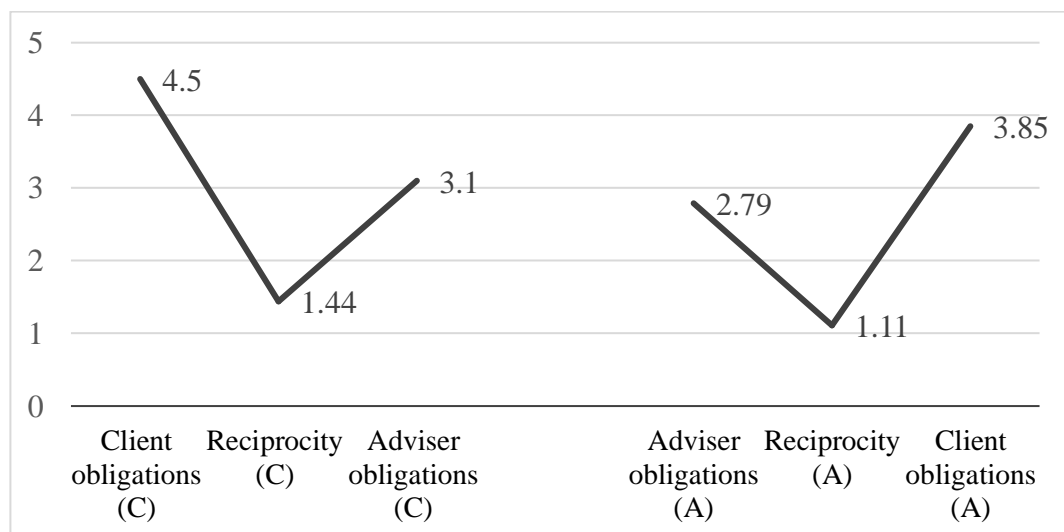
to their obligations (Client Obligations_(A)), $r(100) = .75, p < .001$ (Table 7.1). Specifically, the mean difference in Reciprocity_(A) increases with the advisers' expectations of their clients' commitment. Concurrently, Reciprocity_(A) is negatively correlated with an adviser's self-assessment (Adviser Obligations_(A)), $r(100) = -.35, p < .001$; in other words, the mean difference decreases with the advisers' own commitment. An advisers' perception of reciprocity is most strongly associated with their assessment of their clients' obligations.

Individual-level analysis highlights that advisers expect more of their clients than they commit to themselves, and therefore the gap in an adviser's perception of agreed reciprocal exchange increases with an adviser's expectations of their client's commitment to their obligations and decreases with their own commitment to fulfil their obligations (Figure 7.4). Inverting that statement to account for the measure of the mean difference; simply, where a balance occurs, and perceived agreement of reciprocal exchange exists, advisers' level of commitment increases to meet that of their client somewhere in the middle. Similar results emerged from the client dataset, with a moderate positive correlation across their responses to the *AOQ* and the *COQ*, $r(100) = .43, p < .01$. However, for clients' perception of reciprocity (Reciprocity_(C)) the results are the inverse: the less obliged an adviser perceives themselves, the greater the clients' commitment (Figure 7.4).

These two associations suggest that perceived agreement of a reciprocal exchange differs depending on the respondent: clients need advisers to increase their commitment to match their own contribution; while advisers perceive greater

reciprocal exchange where they increase their commitment to match the clients. What is also evident is that the gap in reciprocity increases with clients' self-report, and decreases with advisers' self-report, suggesting a divergence between client and adviser perceptions of their obligations, with greater expectations of the clients' commitment.

Figure 7.4. Mean difference in reciprocity (dyad-level analysis) compared to individual-level items

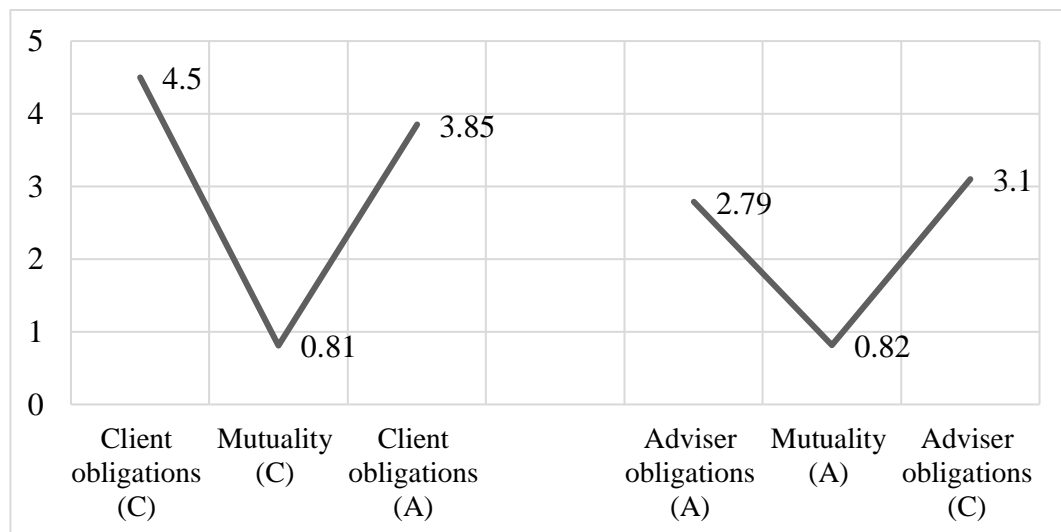


7.2.2. An exploration of mutuality

Second, a strong correlation exists between client-adviser mutuality in regard to the clients' commitment to their obligations ($Mutuality_{(C)}$) and advisers' expectations of their clients ($Client\ Obligations_{(A)}$), $r(100) = -.67, p < .001$. The mean difference decreases as $Client\ Obligations_{(A)}$ increases, that is, the more an adviser expects of their client, mutuality increases. Unlike reciprocity, any self-ratings (e.g.

Client Obligations_(C)) are not significantly correlated to mutuality, with similar results found for mutuality of adviser obligations. Also, there is no agreement between parties in regard an advisers' commitment to their obligations, $r(100) = .06, p = .580$ (Figure 7.5).

Figure 7.5. Mean difference in mutuality (dyad-level analysis) compared to individual-level items



Mutuality is mainly associated with the perception of the other party, with self-ratings across the *COQ* and *AOQ* not significantly related to mutuality scores. Considering mutuality is an assessment of an agreement between two parties it would have been expected that, for example, a client's expectations of their obligations would be related to mutuality across client obligations, but instead an adviser's response to the *COQ* is the only significant association between individual-level and dyad-level items.

There are some similarities between Mutuality and Reciprocity. First, Mutuality_(C) is strongly and negatively correlated with Reciprocity_(A), $r(100) = -.61, p < .001$ (Table 7.1). Also, both are associated with an advisers' perception of their clients' employability (Employment Proximity_(A)). First, a strong significant correlation exists between Employment Proximity_(A) and Reciprocity_(A), $r(100) = 0.61, p < .001$, – the closer to employment an adviser perceives the client to be the less they perceive a reciprocal exchange. Likewise, a significant correlation between Mutuality_(C) and Employment Proximity_(A) exists, $r(100) = -.35, p < .001$, suggesting the more employable an adviser perceives a client to be, the more likely both parties are to agree about the clients' commitment to their obligations.

7.2.3. Mutuality: a comparison of client and adviser obligations

Reciprocity of obligations cannot be measured based on individual items as both parties are not carrying out the same obligations. However, mutuality can be further interrogated from individual obligations across the *AOQ* and *COQ*. The underlying content of the psychological contract items relating to mutuality were further interrogated. The client and adviser obligation items presented in Tables 7.2 and 7.3 are presented in descending order according to the mean score.

Client Obligations

Client and adviser responses to the *COQ* had nine significant correlations arose from the 12 items (i.e. objective mutuality) (Table 7.2). The strongest agreement exists for the obligation *respect for adviser and other members of staff and clients, ICC(2,2)*

= .50, $p < .001$, with 50 per cent of the variance in the mean of the two raters considered to be real. Similarly results for *applying for jobs*, $ICC(2,2) = .42$, $p < .001$, indicate that 42 per cent of the variance in the mean between two raters is real. However, Mutuality does not exist across the item *adhere to DWP conditionality and client's contract*, a compliance requirement that both parties would be expected to agree on.

The top three obligations were rated as (1) *respect for adviser and other members of staff and clients*; (2) *attend all appointments and courses with your provider*; and (3) *honesty*. At the bottom of the list are those items expected in the 'role' of client: *commit to working*; *applying for jobs* and *seeking out development opportunities*. Nevertheless, the only items associated with employment outcomes (while still demonstrating mutuality) are those at the bottom of the list of client obligations: *build employability skills*, $t(100) = 2.343$, $p = .021$; *commit to working*, $t(100) = 2.392$, $p = .019$; *apply for jobs*, $t(100) = 2.392$, $p = .019$; and *seek out development opportunities*, $t(100) = 2.691$, $p = .008$. Irrespective of the items' position in the ordered list of obligations, the greatest mutuality (i.e. the smaller the gap in client and adviser responses) exists for clients in employment (Table 7.4).

Adviser obligations

Of the 20 items in the *AOQ*, the client and adviser agree on six obligations (Table 7.3). The strongest agreement exists for the obligation to *provide client with vacancies*, $ICC(2,2) = .55$, $p < .001$, which suggests 55 per cent of the variance is real, that is, there is a strong agreement across the expectation of both parties for an adviser

to *provide the client with vacancies*. Unlike the mean scores for client obligations, some adviser obligations are below the mid-point where they address more specific client requirements.

On average, advisers and clients rate *fair treatment* as the primary adviser obligation, despite a lack of Mutuality, with advisers perceiving their commitment to fair treatment to be higher than the clients, $ICC(2,2) = .15, p = .221$. The descending order of top-rated obligations continues with *help with writing a CV, job applications or interview skills*, $ICC(2,2) = .36, p = .015$, and *to provide the client with vacancies*. Items at the bottom of the list of adviser obligations more personalised, than standardised, in their support, such as *help or advice related to having a criminal record*, $ICC(2,2) = .36, p < .001$, or *help or advice in relation to looking after children or adults*, $ICC(2,2) = .33, p = .021$.

The only adviser obligation that exhibited Mutuality and was also linked to employment outcomes was the obligation to *provide vacancies*, $t(100) = 2.247, p = .027$) whereby Mutuality was significantly greater for clients who entered employment ($M = .68, SD = .84$) than clients who did not enter employment ($M = 1.12, SD = 1.00$) (Table 7.4).

Overall, Mutuality exists across many of the client and some of the adviser obligations. An examination of the obligations indicates that relational items, respect and fairness, are expected as a priority, above contract requirements and job-seeking activities. However, despite demonstrating the greatest mean difference, where there

is agreement between the two parties on whether the client will commit to working, apply for jobs, seek out development opportunities and build employability skills, that client is more likely to be in employment. Similarly, where there is mutuality around an adviser's obligation to provide vacancies for the client, the client is more likely to be in employment. Thus, where Mutuality is associated with employment outcomes, the obligations are transactional and aligned to the 'role' of the adviser or client, or a work-first agenda, despite both parties' prioritising relational aspects of their social exchange.

Psychological contract measures were not significantly different across providers. However, individual obligations demonstrated a few significant differences across provider organisations. Adviser responses were significantly higher in Organisation Y when advisers expected their client to *attend all appointments and courses with support providers* ($t(100) = -2.670, p = .009$) and committed to *refer their client to a careers adviser* ($t(100) = -3.393, p = .001$). Advisers in Organisation X were more likely to rate their commitment higher ($M = 2.46, SD = 1.36$) than those in Organisation Y ($M = 1.53, SD = .80$) for the item *'provide them with support or advice on becoming self-employed'* ($t(100) = 2.722, p = .008$). The only client-rated adviser obligation which differed across the organisations was 'fair treatment': advisers in Organisation Y were significantly more likely to be rated higher in this obligation ($M = 4.8, SD = .41$) than those in Organisation X ($M = 4.25, SD = 1.17$) ($t(100) = 2.316, p = .023$).

Table 7.2. *Agreement between adviser and client response to COQ – mean and ICC*

Obligation Item	Adviser Mean (SD)	Client Mean (SD)	ICC	Mean Difference (SD)
Respect for adviser / other members of staff and clients	4.39 (.72)	4.74 (.58)	.50**	.49 (.63)
Attend all appointments / courses with your provider	4.29 (.92)	4.69 (.65)	.33*	.66 (.84)
Honesty	4.09 (1.05)	4.67 (.64)	.31*	.78 (.93)
Make adviser aware of any changes to circumstances	4.06 (1.00)	4.59(.78)	.27*	.81 (.92)
Complete tasks as required on an action plan	3.85 (1.03)	4.54 (.69)	.05*	.93 (.92)
Adhere to DWP conditionality and client's contract	3.99 (.96)	4.39 (.82)	-.04	.95 (.94)
Attend all appointments/courses with support providers	3.68 (1.28)	4.62 (.78)	.21	1.21 (1.17)
Disclose barriers	4.05 (.97)	4.22 (.99)	.28	.89 (.90)
Build employability skills	3.71 (1.16)	4.36 (.83)	.25*	1.01 (1.03)
Commit to working	3.48 (1.28)	4.56 (.85)	.34**	1.24 (1.09)
Apply for jobs	3.36 (1.24)	4.43 (.94)	.42**	1.23 (1.09)
Seek out development opportunities	3.28 (1.33)	4.29 (.93)	.30**	1.32 (1.15)

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$. Items ordered by average score. Negative ICC is computed assuming the interaction effect is absent.

Table 7.3. *Agreement between adviser and client response to AOQ – mean and ICC*

Obligation Item	Adviser Mean (SD)	Client Mean (SD)	ICC	Mean Difference (SD)
Fair treatment	4.55 (.63)	4.34 (1.10)	.15	.82 (.96)
Help with writing CV, job applications or interview skills	4.37 (.93)	4.27 (1.07)	.36*	.80 (.97)
To provide the client with vacancies	4.23 (1.04)	3.93 (1.25)	.55**	.88 (.93)
Drawing up an action plan	4.04 (.80)	3.76 (1.24)	.10	1.10 (.96)
An assessment of your skills	3.80 (.92)	3.94 (1.11)	.21	1.03 (.90)
Financial support to help with looking for work	3.64 (1.37)	4.06 (1.22)	.28*	1.20 (1.21)
Any other type of assessment, support, training or advice	3.20 (1.14)	3.13 (1.57)	.16	1.48 (1.19)
Financial advice of some sort	3.12 (1.3)	3.15 (1.42)	.06	.156 (1.09)
A place on a training course	3.04 (1.50)	3.18 (1.61)	-.17	1.78 (1.45)
A session on motivation or confidence	2.89 (1.45)	3.33 (1.48)	-.10	1.71 (1.29)
To help them obtain a further qualification	2.84 (1.32)	3.11 (1.57)	.30	1.48 (1.11)
A work experience placement or voluntary work	2.29 (1.31)	2.85 (1.60)	.10	1.59 (1.34)
Support/training in maths, reading, writing or English	2.32 (1.31)	2.63 (1.64)	.24	1.49 (1.26)
Referral to a career's adviser	1.88 (1.25)	2.99 (1.51)	.11	1.48 (1.37)
Advice or support relating to your health or a disability	2.13 (1.32)	2.72 (1.57)	.17	1.48 (1.37)
Support or advice on becoming self-employed	2.3 (1.32)	2.53 (1.63)	.46**	1.22 (1.27)
Help with housing issues	1.97 (1.17)	2.29 (1.53)	-.04	1.45 (1.35)
Help or advice related to having a criminal record	1.54 (1.16)	2.13 (1.56)	.36**	.96 (1.35)
Help or advice in relation to looking after children/adults	1.49 (1.00)	1.86 (1.41)	.33*	.89 (1.29)
Help with drug or alcohol problems	1.3 (.73)	1.76 (1.42)	-.08	.93 (1.38)

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$. Items ordered by average score. Negative ICC is computed assuming the interaction effect is absent.

Table 7.4. *Employment outcomes significantly associated with items demonstrating mutuality*

Source	Obligation Item	Entered employment (<i>n</i> = 54)	Did not enter employment (<i>n</i> = 48)	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i> value
		M (SD)	M (SD)		
COQ	Commit to working	1.00 (1.06)	1.53 (1.07)	2.39	.019
	Apply for jobs	1.00 (1.07)	1.53 (1.07)	2.39	.019
	Seek out development opportunities	1.04 (1.05)	1.64 (1.17)	2.69	.008
	Build employability skills	.79 (.89)	1.27 (1.12)	2.34	.021
AOQ	To provide vacancies	.68 (.84)	1.12 (1.00)	2.25	.027

7.3. INDIVIDUAL-LEVEL ANALYSIS: DESCRIPTIVE SUMMARY OF PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT BREACH AT PHASE 2

There is no significant relationship between an adviser's perception of their client's PCB (C-PCB_(A)¹⁴) and a client's perception of their adviser's PCB (A-PCB_(C)), $r(40) = .111$, $p = .48615$, suggesting that reciprocity and mutuality perhaps do not extend to perceptions of a breach (Table 7.1).

Out a five-point rating scale, (with five representing the greatest level of perceived breach), overall, the scores for advisers and clients were below mid-point (Table 7.1), suggesting that most participants who responded at Phase 2 were not entirely dissatisfied with the other party's fulfilment of the obligations; that is, they

¹⁴ For brevity, adviser perception of client PCB = C-PCB_(A); client perception of adviser psychological breach = (A-PCB_(C)).

¹⁵ Despite PCB being measured and analysis unilaterally, the following analysis is based on the responses for the clients and advisers who make up 42 client-adviser dyads.

did not perceive the other party to have broken many promises. However, on average, advisers' perceived a greater level of psychological contract breach from their clients (C-PCB_(A)) ($M = 2.37, SD = .94$) than clients did of their advisers (A-PCB_(C)) ($M = 1.90, SD = .86$).

Psychological contract breach – from either party – is not associated with Employability Index scores, but an adviser's perception of client breach is significantly and negatively associated with the adviser's perception of their client's employability, $r(100) = -.47, p < .001$. This result suggests that the closer to proximity an adviser perceives their client to be at Phase 1, the less likely they are to perceive future breach at Phase 2.

7.4. HYPOTHESES TESTING

Independent samples t-test were conducted to identify significant differences across clients who entered employment and clients who did not enter employment based on Mutuality and perceived Reciprocity at Phase 1, and Psychological Contract Breach at Phase 2.

7.4.1. Hypothesis 4: the influence of mutuality on employment outcomes

***H4:** Mutuality at Phase 1 will be associated with whether a client enters employment or not by Phase 2. Specifically, the greater the Mutuality, the more likely a client is to enter employment; and the lower the Mutuality, the less likely a client is to enter employment.*

Hypothesis 4 sets out to test whether mutuality at the start of the relationship will be positively associated with future employment outcomes. Greater mutuality across client obligations exists for clients who entered employment ($M = .71$, $SD = .62$) than those who did not ($M = .91$, $SD = .63$). On the other hand, greater mutuality across adviser obligations exists for clients who did not enter employment ($M = .74$, $SD = .62$) compared to clients who did enter employment ($M = .89$, $SD = .74$). However, there were no significant results across employment outcomes, or even employability progression (Table 7.5; Appendix 15); therefore, support for H4 is not provided.

7.4.2. Hypothesis 5: the influence of reciprocity on employment outcomes

***H5:** Reciprocity at Phase 1 will be associated with whether a client enters employment or not by Phase 2. Specifically, the greater the Reciprocity, the more likely a client is to enter employment; and the lower the Reciprocity, the less likely a client is to enter employment.*

Hypothesis 5 aims to test whether perceived reciprocity is significantly related to outcomes. A positive, but weak, correlation between Reciprocity_(A) and Employment Outcomes exists, $r(100) = .26$, $p = .009$, providing initial support for H5 (Table 7.1, Appendix 16). Moreover, the mean difference between an adviser's responses to the *AOQ* and the *COQ* was significantly higher for clients who entered work ($M = 1.28$, $SD = .72$) than their counterparts ($M = .92$, $SD = .62$), $t(100) = -$

2.665, $p = .009$ (Table 7.5). This suggests that clients entered employment when their adviser perceived a lack of reciprocity.

On the other hand, a clients' perception of reciprocity was greater for clients in employment ($M = 1.34$, $SD = .76$) than clients who did not enter employment ($M = 1.56$, $SD = .87$), however the results were not significant, $t(100) = 1.39$, $p = .169$. Therefore, H5 is only partially supported. Incidentally, there were no significant differences between employability progression outcomes and Reciprocity measures (Table 7.5).

7.4.3. Hypothesis 6: the impact of psychological contract breach on outcomes

H6: Perceived psychological contract breach will be associated (a) with a client entering employment; (b) clients' employability progression; and negatively associated with (c) Mutuality and (d) Reciprocity.

From a well-founded body of empirical evidence which suggests that perceived PCB has a significant association with individual and organisational outcomes, it was hypothesised that perceived breach, from either party in the social exchange, will be associated with employment outcomes (H6a) and employability progression (H6b). Also, due to the nature of social exchange, it was important to consider mutuality and reciprocity of obligations as factors influencing the quality of the client-adviser relationship (i.e. perceived PCB), thus it was hypothesised that perceived psychological breach from either a client or adviser will be associated with Mutuality (H8c) and Reciprocity (H8d).

Table 7.5. Differences across psychological contract variables (reciprocity, mutuality and breach) and employment outcomes

Measure	Employment Outcome				Employability Progression			
	Entered employment (<i>n</i> = 54)	Did not enter employment (<i>n</i> = 48)	<i>T</i>	<i>p</i>	Progressed (<i>n</i> = 22)	Did not Progress (<i>n</i> = 22)	<i>T</i>	<i>p</i>
	M (SD)	M (SD)			M (SD)	M (SD)		
Mutuality_(C)	.71 (.62)	.91 (.63)	1.58	.117	1.02 (.65)	.73 (.73)	-1.360	.181
Mutuality_(A)	.89 (.74)	.74 (.62)	-1.09	.280	.73 (.68)	.96 (.75)	1.038	.305
Reciprocity_(C)	1.34 (.76)	1.56 (.87)	1.39	.169	1.41 (.82)	1.52 (1.02)	.394	.696
Reciprocity_(A)	1.28 (.72)	.92 (.62)	-2.67	.009	1.06 (.63)	1.23 (.80)	.740	.463
A-PCB_(c)	2.04 (.70)	1.78 (.97)	-.973	.366	1.57 (.69)	2.22 (.91)	2.659	.011
C-PCB_(A)	2.04 (.89)	2.73 (.87)	3.135	.003	2.43 (.96)	2.47 (.83)	.121	.905

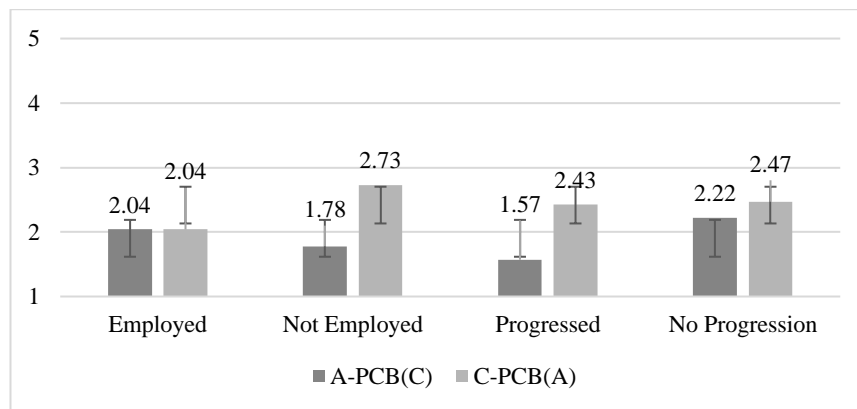
Bivariate correlation analysis suggests PCB is significantly associated with both employment and employability progression outcomes, depending on the respondent (Table 7.1). These preliminary results were supported by further set of independent samples t-tests which assessed the difference in mean scores against outcomes and perception of PCB. For clients who entered employment, C-PCB_(A) and A-PCB_(C) were comparable at an average of 2.04. However, an adviser's perception of PCB was significantly different across employment outcomes, $t(40) = 3.135, p = .003$, with lower perceived PCB for clients who entered employment ($M = 2.04, SD = .89$) compared to clients who did not enter work ($M = 2.73, SD = .87$) (Figure 7.6). The greater the breach as perceived by an adviser, the less likely a client was to enter employment (i.e. negative outcome).

Also, the greater the breach perceived by a client, the less likely they were to demonstrate employability progression (i.e. a negative outcome). Thus H6b is partially supported. On the other hand, clients who did not progress ($M = 2.22, SD = .91$) perceived significantly higher levels of PCB from their adviser than those who did progress ($M = 1.57, SD = .69$), $t(40) = 2.659, p = .011$. These results support H6b. Thus, the results for each party's perceived breach has an impact on different outcomes: the results of C-PCB_(A) are the inverse for A-PCB_(C) (Figure 7.6).

As hypothesised in H6c and H6d, Phase 1 psychological contract variables (i.e. Mutuality and Reciprocity) are related to PCB at Phase 2, but only those variables associated with employment outcomes (i.e. Reciprocity_(A) and Mutuality_(C)); and only when PCB is perceived from the client by the adviser. An advisers' perception of

breach from their client (A-PCB(C)) at Phase 2 is moderately correlated with their perception of reciprocity at Phase 1, $r(40) = -.43, p = .002$, and Mutuality of client obligations at Phase 1, $r(40) = .39, p = .002$ (Table 7.1). That is, the more an adviser perceives reciprocity at Phase 1, the greater the perceived breach at Phase 2. And the more aligned adviser and client expectations of the client are at Phase 1, the less PCB is perceived of the client at Phase 2. Thus, there is partial support, again, for H6c and H6d.

Figure 7.6. *Difference in perceived psychological contract breach based on outcome measures*



7.4.4. Summary of results relating to psychological contract variables

Mutuality is not associated with Employment Outcomes; therefore, support for H4 is not provided. Further, only reciprocity from an adviser's perspective was significantly different for clients who entered employment therefore, H5 is partially supported. Moreover, there is support for H6 as PCB is associated with employment and progression outcomes based on adviser and client perceptions, respectively.

However, for each result, the perception of breach was low, suggesting that there were no major examples of relationships breaking down. Yet any perceptions of breach could be identified from Phase 1. Specifically, an adviser's perception of client breach was negatively associated with a gap in adviser-perceived reciprocity and positively with a gap in mutuality of client obligations.

7.5. CHAPTER CONCLUSIONS

What we know from the previous findings chapter is that a dedicated adviser across six months does not have a statistically significant relationship with employment or progression outcomes. This chapter, therefore, examined the client-adviser relationship operationalised through the psychological contract. Adopting a bilateral approach to exploring the social exchange across 102 dyads, findings suggest that the client-adviser relationship is an important variable influencing the employment outcomes of unemployed clients. The evidence presented suggests three substantial trends: (1) psychological contract variables are predominantly significant when the adviser is the respondent (i.e. an adviser's perception of reciprocity); (2) the onus is on clients to commit to and deliver on their obligations; and (3) employment outcomes are regularly influenced by relationship variables, but employability progression outcomes are only subject to a client's perception of their advisers breach of psychological contract. Notably, advisers are not only influenced by their clients' commitment to carry out their obligations but also their perception of a client's proximity to employment. Together, these results indicate that an adviser's perception of their client can influence a client's employment outcome.

CHAPTER EIGHT

FINDINGS: PREDICTORS OF EMPLOYMENT OUTCOMES

This chapter will identify which of the Phase 1 antecedent, employability and psychological contract variables predict clients' employment outcomes from their initial engagement with the Work Programme. Furthermore, the results identify the variance in employability that psychological contract variables account for. Binary logistic regression was selected as the most appropriate analytical method (as detailed in Chapter 5). Used to assess if one categorical dependent variable (did enter employment (1) or did not enter employment (0)) was predicted based on antecedent variables, employability, and/or psychological contract variables, hierarchical regression analysis determined the overall fit of the relative contribution of each of the independent variables as it is was entered into the regression model.

One hundred and two cases were analysed using a parsimonious list of independent variables as regression requires a smaller and manageable number of predictors. Controlling for adviser performance antecedents to employment included those that were shown to be significantly related to employment outcomes: age; gender; health; length of unemployment; and SIMD. Four psychological contract variables were included in the regression across mutuality and reciprocity.

8.1. IDENTIFYING PREDICTORS OF EMPLOYMENT SUCCESS THROUGH REGRESSION ANALYSIS

A test of the full model was found to be statistically significant based on the chi-square (χ^2) omnibus test ($\chi^2(8, N = 102) = 51.387, p < .001$) and non-significant Hosmer-Lemeshow goodness of fit test ($\chi^2(8, N = 102) = 4.630, p = .796$), which indicated that the data fit the model well and the combination of independent variables were useful predictors of the likelihood of clients' entering employment (Table 8.1, Figure 8.1). The -2 log-likelihood value was 84.102, significantly lower than in the previous models, suggesting the new model is a better fit than the constant or previous models.

The Nagelkerke R² (a proxy for R² estimate (pseudo-R²)) demonstrates a good relationship between the predictors in the model and the outcome itself (R² = .545), indicating that the independent variables explained approximately 54.5 per cent of the variance in employment outcomes. However, with the Nagelkerke R² an unreliable measure of whether the model is consistent with the data, the final model demonstrated a prediction accuracy of 80.6 per cent; that is, it can be predicted with over eighty per cent accuracy the likelihood of someone entering employment or not, with greater accuracy in predicting clients who enter employment (82.7%) than those who do not (78.3%). Each model demonstrated increased accuracy, with a spike following the inclusion of antecedents to employment and settling at just over eighty per cent in the final model with the inclusion of the psychological contract variables.

After controlling for adviser performance, psychological contract measures explain unique variance in client employability over and above that accounted for by employability variables and demographic variables. With each block entered, the model improved: the chi-square increased for each model (with a decrease in 2-LL and increase in pseudo-R2) suggested the overall model is significantly improved with the addition of variables. Beyond step 1, each step entered produced a significant chi-square test, non-significant H&L result, and decreasing -2 Log likelihood decreasing, suggesting each new step produced a model with a better fit to the data. The Nagelkerke R2 also increased from .396 (i.e. antecedents explained approximately 39.6 per cent of the variance in client employment outcomes) followed by an additional 10.6 percent of variance added with the inclusion of employability variables (.502) and finally an additional 4.3 per cent adding with psychological contract variables (.545) at step 4.

The “parameter estimate”, or β value, is used to predict the odds ratio of the dependent variable – with the direction of the β value indicating if the relationship is positive or negative. Predicted probabilities of an event occurring will be determined by $\text{Exp}(\beta)$. The $\text{Exp}(\beta)$ value reflects effect size and suggests the extent to which raising an associated measure by one unit influences the odds ratio: any negative figure leads to a reduction in the odds of an outcome occurring. The results of the final model indicated that several variables predicted an increase in the variance between whether someone obtained a job or not: gender, length of unemployment, Employability Index, and Mutuality(C).

Table 8.1. Hierarchical regression analyses examining the effects of employability and psychological contract variables on employment outcomes (Phase 1)

	Model 1: Control						Model 2: Antecedents					
Prediction Accuracy	56.1% (NE 76.1%, E 38.5%)						75.5% (NE 67.4%, E 82.7%)					
Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients	$\chi^2 (1, N = 102) = 2.418, p = .120$						$\chi^2 (6, N = 102) = 34.502, p < .001$					
-2 Log likelihood	133.072						100.987					
Nagelkerke R ²	.033						.396					
Hosmer and Lemeshow Test	$\chi^2 (0, N = 102), p = .000$						$\chi^2 (8, N = 102) = 1.627, p = .990$					
Variables in the equation												
<i>Variables</i>	<i>β</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>Exp(β)</i>	<i>β</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>Exp(β)</i>
Constant	-.09	.25	.13	1	.71	.91	2.33	.86	7.30	1	.01	10.31
Adviser Performance	.69	.45	2.35	1	.13	1.99	.55	.54	1.03	1	.31	1.74
Age							-.02	.02	.59	1	.44	.99
Gender							-1.45	.52	7.85	1	.01	.24
Health							-1.03	.51	4.04	1	.05	.35
Length of unemployment							-.23	.08	8.34	1	.01	.80
SIMD							.07	.12	.38	1	.54	1.08

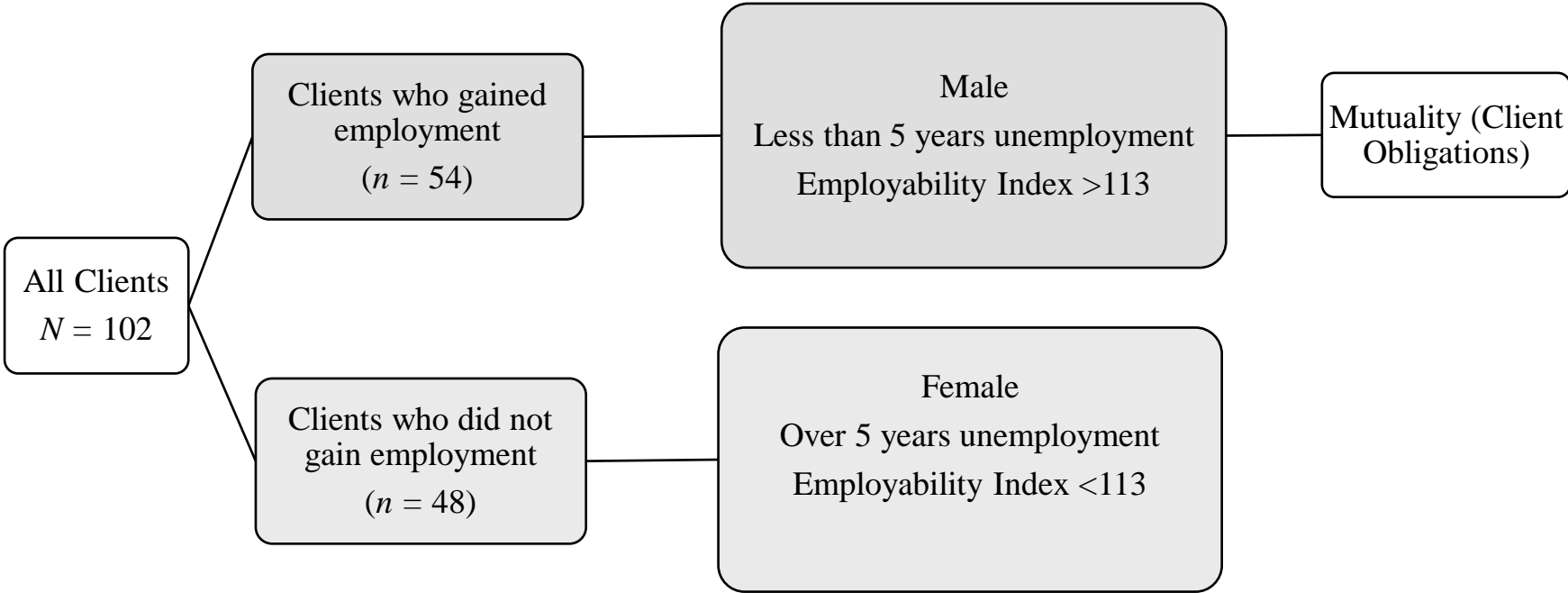
Note:

+ backward wald stepwise, step 4 of 4 variable(s). NE = Did not enter employment; E = Entered employment. Adviser performance: did not hit the target (0); did hit target (1). Health: I have a health condition (0); I have no health conditions (1). Gender: female (0); male (1). Age and the Employability Index were measured across continuous variables. Length of unemployment and SIMD deciles were measured on an interval scale. Mutuality and Reciprocity calculated as a mean difference and thus, a numerical value.

Table 8.1 continued.

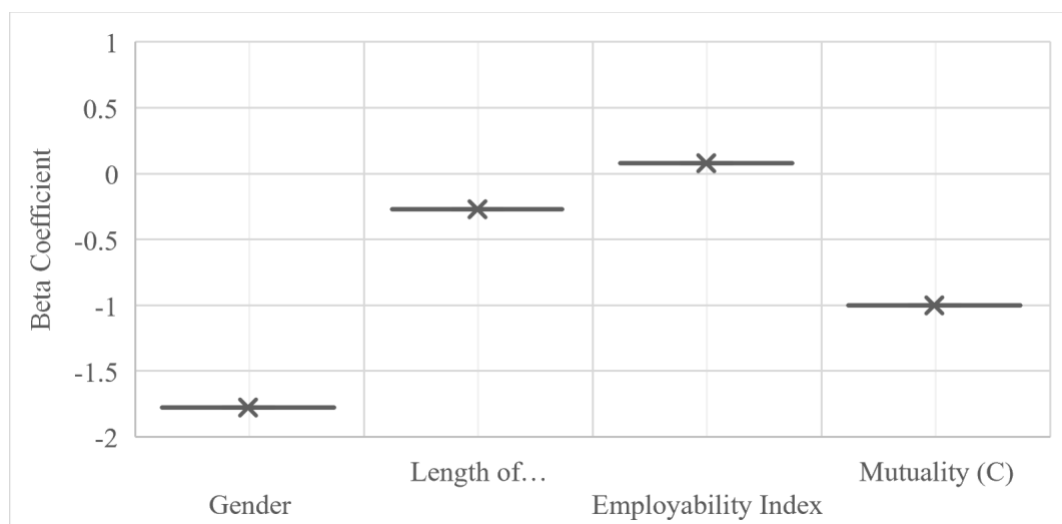
	Model 3: Employability						Model 4: Psychological Contract+							
Prediction Accuracy	76.5% (NE 73.9%, E 78.8%)						80.6% (NE 78.3%, E 82.7%)							
Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients	$\chi^2 (7, N = 102) = 46.182, p < .001$						$\chi^2 (8, N = 102) = 51.387, p < .001$							
-2 Log likelihood	89.307						84.102							
NagelkerkeR ²	.502						.545							
Hosmer and Lemeshow Test	$\chi^2 (8, N = 102) = 4.706, p = .788$						$\chi^2 (8, N = 102) = 4.630, p = .796$							
Variables in the Equation												95% C.I. for <i>Exp</i> (β)		
<i>Variables</i>	β	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>Exp</i> (β)	β	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>Exp</i> (β)	<i>Lower</i>	<i>Upper</i>
Constant	-6.06	2.77	4.78	1	.03	.01	-5.81	3.00	3.76	1	.053	.01		
Adviser Performance	1.04	.63	2.76	1	.10	2.82	1.03	.64	2.59	1	.11	.36	.87	9.73
Age	-.01	.02	.08	1	.78	.99	-.02	.02	.79	1	.37	.98	.93	1.02
Gender	-1.77	.58	9.38	1	.01	.17	-1.78	.60	8.93	1	.003	.17	.05	.55
Health	.01	.62	.00	1	.99	1.00	.32	.68	.22	1	.64	1.37	.30	4.34
Length of unemployment	-.25	.09	8.12	1	.01	.78	-.27	.09	8.73	1	.003	.76	.65	.92
SIMD	.03	.13	.04	1	.84	1.03	.01	.13	.01	1	.93	1.01	.81	1.32
Employability Index	.07	.02	9.88	1	.001	1.07	.08	.03	10.15	1	.001	1.08	1.02	1.12
Mutuality (Client Obligations)							-1.0	.46	4.78	1	.029	.37	.14	.92

Figure 8.1. A summary diagram of antecedent, employability and psychological contract factors predicting employment outcomes



An examination of the beta coefficients from the final model found that being a woman was negatively related to entering employment ($\beta = -1.78, p = .003$) as was an increased duration of unemployment ($\beta = -.27, p = .003$) (Table 8.1, Figure 8.2). On the other hand, employability (as measured through the EI) demonstrated a positive relationship with employment outcomes ($\beta = .08, p < .001$). Mutuality (Client Obligations) ($\beta = -1.00, p = .029$) was negatively related to employment outcomes: the negative β value suggests that the greater the gap in mutuality the less likely the client is to enter employment, conversely the greater the mutuality, the greater the chance of the client entering employment. Age ($\beta = -.02, p = .37$), health ($\beta = .32, p = .64$) and SIMD decile ($\beta = .01, p = .93$) were not significant variables contributing to employment outcomes, despite being univariate predictors of entering employment (See Chapter 7).

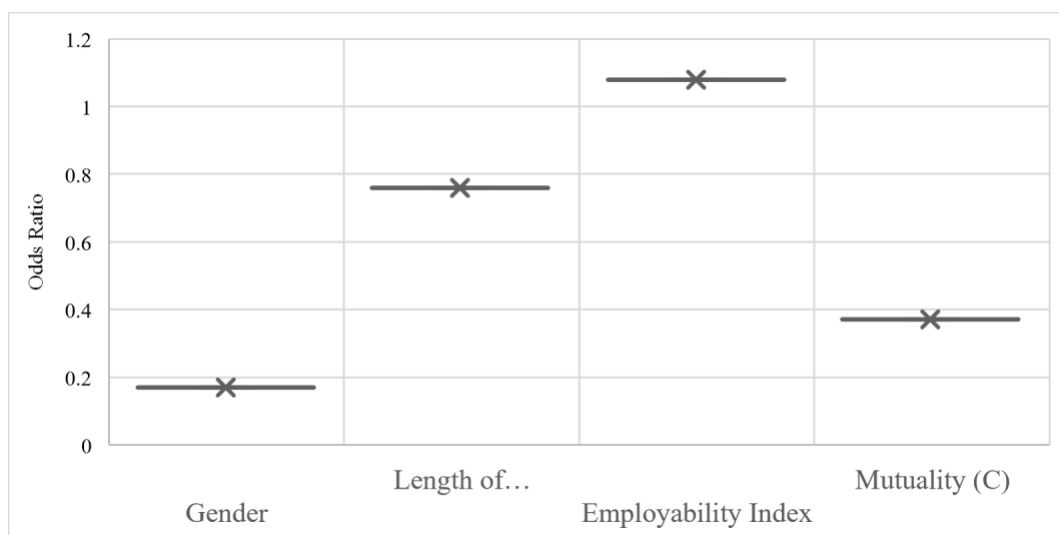
Figure 8.2. Box and Whisker Figure for significant β values from binary logistic regression



Note: A negative value means that the odds of entering employment decrease.

Overall, effect sizes were small, with all odds ratios below 1.5 (Table 8.1; Figure 8.3). Employability had the largest odds ratio ($\text{Exp}(\beta) = 1.08$), suggesting that there is a greater chance of a client entering employment when they also possess a range of important employability variables. Precisely, as the EI scale increases point by point, the odds of entering employment increase by a factor of 1.08. Length of unemployment ($\text{Exp}(\beta) = .76$) demonstrates a small effect size, with an even smaller effect attributed to gender ($\text{Exp}(\beta) = .17$). The odds ratio value ($\text{Exp}(\beta) = .37$) for the gap in Mutuality(Client Obligations) suggests that the chance of the client entering employment decreases the larger the gap in Mutuality. As the variable is measured as a 'gap', to better understand the impact of Mutuality(Client Obligations) the inverse of the $\text{Exp}(\beta)$ is calculated (i.e. $1/.37 = 2.70$).

Figure 8.3. *Box and Whisker Figure for significant Odds Ratio ($\text{Exp}(\beta)$) values from binary logistic regression*



Therefore, where Mutuality of client obligations exists, clients are almost three times more likely to enter employment than those with lower levels of Mutuality,

having controlled for adviser performance, allowing for gender and length of unemployment, and also factoring in individual employability. An important finding, this result suggests that the psychological contract between a client and their adviser contributes to employment outcomes, alongside established employability variables.

Supplementary analysis to test for *gap*level* interaction effects was explored, where the level was measured as the average client and adviser ratings of obligations (Ye et al., 2012). To identify predictors of employment outcomes with a sample of 102 dyads there should be no more than 10 predictor variables (Ranganathan, Pramesh, & Aggarwal, 2017), which this analysis exceeds when interaction effects are added into step 5 of the original model. Moreover, replacing the main effects in step 4 with interaction effect reduces the number of predictor variables, but presents a further challenge as the exclusion of main effects can result in substantial changes in the apparent effects of the interaction terms. Specifically, interaction effects do not have the same importance when the main effects are excluded from analysis (Chatterjee & Simonoff, 2013; Osborne, 2016). Acknowledging these limitations to interpretation, supplementary analysis found no change to model fit or the significance of predictor variables in either model; i.e., the model with main effects and interaction effects included and the model with interaction effects only. In addition, the existing multivariate model was not improved by adding the provider organisation as a control variable, with overall prediction accuracy unchanged at 80.6 per cent and no change in significant predictor variables (i.e. gender, length of unemployment, employability and Mutuality(c)).

8.2. CHAPTER CONCLUSIONS

The multivariate analysis of employment outcomes establishes the importance of previously known variables, such as length of unemployment and employability. However, results from regression analysis provide further support for Hypothesis 1, but also introduce support for Hypothesis 4, which was previously rejected as a univariate influence on employment outcomes (Chapter 7). The multivariate analysis indicates that Mutuality of client obligations (i.e. the agreement of two parties over one party's obligations) explains unique variance in employment outcomes. As such, antecedents, employability and relationships variables at Phase 1 predict employment outcomes at Phase 2. These results suggest that the client-adviser relationship variables can improve the predictive accuracy of employment outcomes, even from day one.

CHAPTER NINE

DISCUSSION

Despite a considerable body of research investigating the relationship between key employability components, welfare-to-work programmes, and the role of the adviser in enabling employment outcomes for long-term unemployed jobseekers, advisers have been under-researched and “underexposed” (Nothdurfter, 2016, p.453) as a factor influencing the effectiveness of the programmes they are delivering (Dall, 2020; van Berkel, 2013). Green et al. (2013) provided a comprehensive extension to a raft of existing employability frameworks, bridging the gap between theory and practice by introducing the importance of ‘enabling support’ in guiding long-term unemployed jobseekers’ on their employability journey. Yet, they ascribe, incorrectly it has been argued, that enabling support sits at an organisational level while a contemporaneous body of policy literature emphasised the necessity of providing jobseekers with a dedicated adviser who can deliver personalised support. Both bodies of research failed to converge, and this is the substantial empirical gap this thesis sought to address.

This thesis has addressed earlier oversight by investigating the jobseeker-adviser relationship as a determinant of labour market success. As hypothesised, the jobseeker-adviser relationship plays a significant role in the attainment of an objective employment outcome by a long-term unemployment jobseeker and does so in conjunction with other well-established employability variables. Crucially, a stable

jobseeker-adviser psychological contract – one that demonstrates mutuality and fails to result in psychological contract breach – is a predictor of future employment outcomes. Therefore, introducing a well-established measure into a new, but well-established, context and discovering significant results requires interpretation and positioning of the findings within the broader literature.

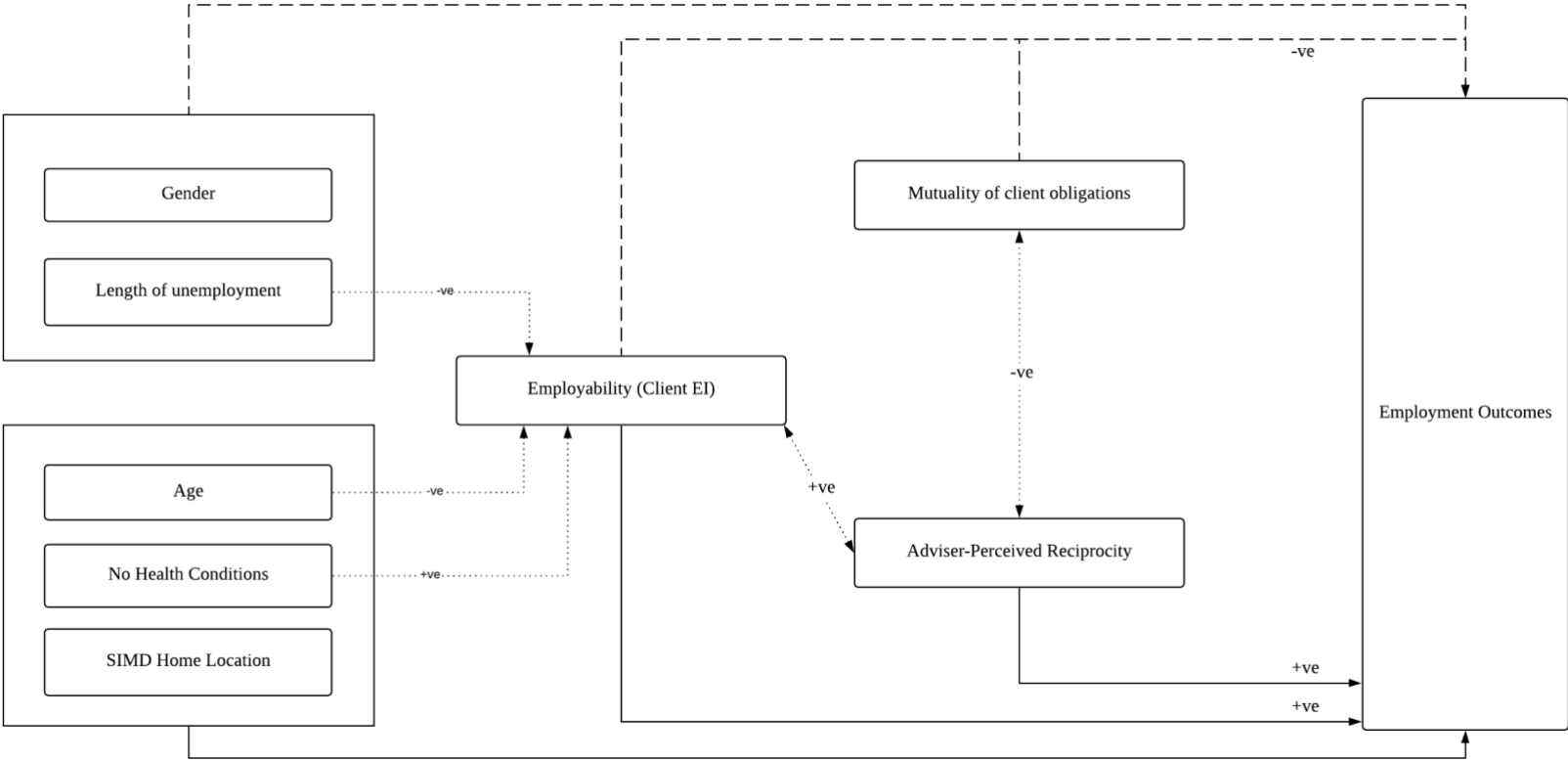
Chapters 6, 7 and 8 presented the findings aligned to the research objectives of this thesis and the associated hypotheses. Chapter 6 presented evidence that (i) employment outcomes are associated with a wide range of employability variables commensurate with existing empirical evidence (H1); (ii) employability progression occurs for jobseekers who are at the back of the ‘jobs queue’, but predominantly across transactional variables aligned with work-first-practices (H2); and (iii) a dedicated adviser is irrelevant to jobseekers’ employment outcomes (H3). Next, Chapter 7 demonstrated that (iv) the jobseeker-adviser relationship (i.e. psychological contract measures of Mutuality, Reciprocity, and Psychological Contract Breach) is significantly associated with employment and progression outcomes (H4, H5, H6). Finally, Chapter 8 presented findings that (v) employment outcomes are predicted by a combination of demographic factors (gender and length of unemployment), employability (measured via the Employability Index) and also Mutuality of jobseeker obligations (i.e. the agreement between a jobseeker and adviser as to the jobseeker’s obligations) (H4) (see Figure 9.1 for a summary of research findings).

Employment outcomes (i.e. whether a jobseeker entered employment or not) were explored across a range of employability determinants (including a composite

measure, the Employability Index), and collected from primary (questionnaire) and secondary (organisational) sources across 102 jobseekers within a six-month research duration. In this study, clients with ‘higher levels’ of employability (and thus possessing a more comprehensive range of employability factors theoretically linked to employment) were more likely to enter employment than clients at the back of the jobs queue (Beatty et al., 2000, 2009; Fugate et al., 2004) – an outcome predicted from Day 1 on the Work Programme. However, without a comprehensive body of the extant literature on employability progression, it was difficult to hypothesise with any certainty what would transpire from the analysis. That said, clients who started the Work Programme with lower levels of employability were significantly more likely to improve over the six-month research duration (supporting Hypothesis 2). What emerges is a picture of employability progression as a prelude to, and implication of, employment outcomes.

Whether a client had a dedicated adviser or not over the six-month research duration had no bearing on whether the client entered employment or not. The majority (75%) remained in the same jobseeker-adviser dyads; for the rest, there is no conclusive evidence to suggest where, when or why advisers might have moved, except that there was some adviser turnover over the six months. What this non-significant result does suggest is that it is not the presence of *any* dedicated adviser which is an important determinant of employment success; instead, subsequent significant results suggest that a positive jobseeker-adviser relationship is crucial.

Figure 9.1. Overall significant results linked to employment outcomes – from univariate and multivariate tests



Note: Dash lines represent results from binary logistic regression. Solid lines reflect results from univariate analysis. Dotted lines represent bivariate correlations. Mutuality and Reciprocity are measured by the mean difference.

The jobseeker-adviser relationship operationalised through the psychological contract is significantly related to employment and employability progression outcomes. Specifically, perceived reciprocity between clients and advisers is significantly related to objective employment outcomes, but only when it is *from* an adviser's perspective, and curiously clients are more likely to enter employment when there is a gap in reciprocity. Mutuality is also significant, but only when it is *about* the clients' obligations. This time, the greater the mutuality of client obligations, the more likely a client is to enter employment. This finding is important as mutuality is the "gold standard" within exchange relationships (Rousseau, 2004, p.123). Significant responses from Phase 1, therefore, suggest the client is the focus of the exchange, with the adviser's perception the lynchpin determining future interactions. Psychological contract breach perceived *by* the adviser *of* the client at Phase 2 is associated with Phase 1 variables, namely, greater expectations of reciprocity *from* an adviser and less mutuality *of* client obligations. Moreover, psychological contract breach from an advisers' perspective is associated with negative *employment outcomes*, while psychological contract breach from a clients' perspective is associated with negative *employability progression*. However, the sample size at Phase 2 prevents any generalisations being made.

Binary logistic regression was carried out across 102 jobseeker-adviser dyads to identify variables that predicted whether a client entered employment or did not enter employment, and tie the threads of the univariate results together. After controlling for adviser performance, gender and length of unemployment, employability and mutuality of client obligations were significant predictors of

employment success, with 80 per cent accuracy. The effects are small, but significant, giving rise to practical implications as well as policy implications.

This chapter connects the findings with existing theory and research, interpreting the results within the context of a welfare-to-work setting. Structured according to the research objectives, first, this chapter will explore the employability results, comparing and contrasting the employability findings in line with existing data, while also addressing employability progression, before exploring the importance of the client-adviser relationship on objective employment outcomes.

9.1. THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS

9.1.1. Employability and Employment

Employability frameworks and empirical evidence from the past 20 years have demonstrated the impact of knowledge, skills, attitude, ‘assets’, and socioeconomic factors on employability and employment outcomes (Berthoud, 2003, 2009; Fugate et al., 2004; Hillage & Pollard, 1998). While univariate analysis has highlighted the differences in antecedent and employability variables across jobseekers who enter employment and those who do not, across both supply- and demand-side variables, crucially, when combined and assessed through multivariate analysis these findings highlight the predictive nature of employability on employment outcomes. The significant variables presented in Chapter 6 are commensurate with a myriad of empirical evidence which identifies key employability factors important in explaining why some people are more likely to enter employment.

Younger, male clients were more likely to enter employment, while conversely, advancing age, length of unemployment and the presence of a health condition, had a negative impact on employment outcomes. These results are as expected from existing empirical data. Work Programme evaluations find the 18-24 cohort to be more likely to gain work, and do so more quickly, than their older counterparts who face a considerable disadvantage in the labour market (DWP, 2011; Foster et al., 2014; George et al., 2015; Meager et al., 2014). Work Programme statistics also demonstrate a greater proportion of male jobseekers entering employment (DWP, 2017), with the suggestion that the perennial pattern of lower female employment rates (Albanesi & Sahin, 2018; ONS, 2016a, 2019; Taylor, 2017), is, in part, due to the greater ‘difficulty’ they experience in exiting inactivity (Baussole et al., 2015). Relatedly, jobseekers with extended periods of unemployment have ‘half the chance’ of (re)entering the labour market (European Commission, 2015).

Health condition prevented employment success, a foreseeable result given the profusion of research contending that health has a detrimental impact on employability and employment outcomes (Barnes & Sissons., 2013; Beatty et al., 2009, 2010; Berthoud, 2003, 2009, 2011; DWP, 2011; ERSA, 2016; Lindsay et al., 2013; Meager et al., 2014; Williams et al., 2016). Moreover, Work Programme providers have not demonstrated a resounding success in supporting clients with health conditions into employment (Dudley et al., 2016; HCWPC, 2013; Lindsay et al., 2015). Where the results of the significant antecedents diverge from existing research is in the lack of impact of education on employment outcomes. Although, within this study, there is an over-representation of clients without qualifications (Meager et al., 2014). Similarly,

work experience or work history had no significant relationship with employment outcomes (c.f. Meager et al., 2014).

The key to entering employment was, however, associated with positive self-evaluations of employability, such as job-search self-efficacy and perceived employability were more positive for jobseekers who successfully entered employment (e.g. Berntson et al., 2008; de Grip et al., 2004; James, 2007; Kanfer et al., 2001; Martin et al., 2008; Moynihan et al., 2003; Nauta et al., 2009). Also, greater numeracy and money management skills (e.g. Blades et al., 2012; Martin et al., 2008; Parsons & Bynner, 2007; Windisch, 2015) and not time-management, IT or interpersonal skills. Yet, unemployed people generally face gaps in the latter (Bellis et al., 2011; Green et al., 2013; Hurrell et al., 2012), which is a perpetual challenge for long-term unemployed jobseekers as such skills are often only obtainable once in employment and thus could explain the lack of significant results.

Theoretically, possessing person-centred attributes and assets is worthwhile only when deployed and well-presented via job-search behaviours, for example, by leveraging social networks and being flexible regarding the geographical preference of employment (e.g. Fugate et al., 2004). Despite literature suggesting job-search behaviour is the mediator between person-centred factors and employment outcomes (Jiang, 2017; Kanfer et al., 2001; McArdle et al., 2007; Meijers & Lengelle, 2012; Vinokur et al., 2000; Wanberg et al., 2002), there was a direct relationship between person-centred factors and employment outcomes in this study. Those who were already engaged in job-search behaviours were more likely to enter employment,

completing applications and using a variety of job-search methods to source employment. Recruitment agencies, a mainstay in the labour market particularly across low-level positions in less-skilled occupations, provided clients with positive employment outcomes (Clayton & Brinkley, 2011; Countouris et al., 2016; James & Lloyd, 2008; REC, 2015).

Important in explaining why some people are at risk of finding themselves at the back of the “jobs queue”, research and empirical evidence suggest that such individual factors hold the most importance when considering individual employability (Green et al., 2013). Hence, an agentic focus within employability literature has emphasised the importance of person-centred attributes in the development of employability (DfEE, 1997a, 1997b, 1998; Forrier et al., 2018; Fugate et al., 2004; Martin et al., 2008; NIACE, 1988; Robst, 2007). As such, the significant influence of individual factors in this study could have been foreseen. However, while person-centred factors influence employability, individual employability is ‘crucially’ dependent on personal circumstances and external factors which may restrict the ability to move into employment (Canduela et al., 2015; McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005). Moreover, Berthoud (2003, 2009) and Green et al. (2013) have demonstrated that individual employability extends beyond the individual: personal circumstances, external labour market factors and enabling support from government policy and intervention suggest that an individual is as employable as the context they find themselves in (e.g. Beatty et al., 2010; Berthoud, 2003, 2009; Green & Shuttleworth, 2010; Green et al., 2013).

This study also identified barriers that precluded entrance into employment and found that personal circumstances played a role in a client's labour market success. While being a lone parent had no bearing on their employment outcome, the need for childcare negatively impacted the uptake of employment (Brewer et al., 2016; Millar & Ridge, 2017). There is, however, a limited sample of lone parents within this study, and they generally experience a lack of suitable support while on the Work Programme (Whitworth, 2013). Similarly, there are mixed results over the success of labour market activation and employment support for homeless people (Bretherton & Pleace, 2019). Here, clients who lived in unstable housing did not enter employment: unsurprising as homeless jobseekers face a multiple of disadvantages such as extended periods of unemployment, health problems and addictions, and financial concerns over a change in benefits and housing costs (Blake et al., 2008; Shelter, 2008; Quirouette, 2016). Moreover, while social housing residents are purportedly more disadvantaged than those living in other forms of accommodation, with lower employment rates (Wilson et al., 2015), the non-significant results in study were more aligned with Fletcher's (2009) findings, which suggest that social housing was neither an incentive nor a barrier to employment.

While policymakers are 'perplexed' as to why residents in deprived areas choose to remain in their local community rather than move to unfamiliar areas with a more buoyant labour market, hesitancy comes from many areas including access to transport and familiarity of social networks (Crisp & Powell, 2017; Fletcher, 2009; Green & White, 2007). Transport was not perceived to be an issue in seeking or obtaining work; unsurprising considering jobseekers predominantly lived in urban

areas (Scottish Government, 2014). However, clients' spatial mobility or 'willingness' to travel for work was, potentially, more influential than access (Crisp & Powell, 2017; Crisp et al., 2018). Trip-chaining, for example, limits an individual's ability to take on work which is too far away from non-work responsibilities, such as childcare – a factor we know to be disadvantaging in this study. Concerning social capital, in this study, clients were successful in securing employment when they had support from someone outside their household, not friends or family. If social support is a "mixed blessing" (Graham & McQuaid, 2014, p.13), these findings might suggest that client networks are insular, or else the social support provided by family and friends constrained access to a range of labour market opportunities (Andersson, 2004; Fletcher, 2009; Kearns & Parkinson, 2001; Quinn & Seaman, 2008; Smith, 2010). Hence, receiving support from someone outside of their social network to rely on to find work may have provided opportunities that did not exist within their immediate network.

It is difficult to examine personal circumstances without engaging in a discussion of broader external factors, such as the neighbourhood within which jobseekers live, and specifically, the labour market in which they seek employment. Overall, there are limited significant associations between SIMD and job density and employment outcomes. Therefore, it is possible to deduce that local labour markets are composed of individuals with similar characteristics and disadvantages, managing their job search within the same recruitment context and faced with the same transport issues (Andersson, 2004; Green et al., 2013; Lindsay, 2005). However, the impact of neighbourhoods on employability can be complex to measure due to the myriad of factors influencing employment outcomes (Green et al., 2013).

The one objective measure of external factors that is a significant determinant of employment is that for clients who reside in SIMD decile 1, they are less likely to enter employment than clients in less deprived areas (e.g. Meager et al., 2014; Tunstall et al., 2012). With geographical variations in employment rates more evident for less-skilled individuals (Green & Owen, 2006), living in a region with a high level of unemployment is more likely to disadvantage people, particularly in the absence of suitable jobs (Webster, 2000; 2005). However, clients who lived in areas with a job density ratio of .65 were more likely to enter employment, while clients who lived in an area with a job density of .67 were significantly less likely to enter employment. The ratios are too close to be able to make any strong assumptions. Therefore answers could emerge from further investigation into those Work Programme offices within those geographical areas, especially as Hamilton (job density ratio of .65) and Motherwell (job density ratio of .67) have very similar ratios but very different outcomes.

Despite an agentic emphasis in employability literature and employability programme delivery in practice, the responsibility for employability is purportedly shared with a broader network (de Bruin & Dupuis, 2008), for example, local employers and the Government (Ball, 2009; Green et al., 2013). Moreover, McVicar and Podivinsky (2009) found that the degree of positive or negative impacts attributed to the success of employability programmes is based on the individual as well as the regional labour markets. One argument might be that geographical variances in the 'success' of previous employability programmes have less to do with labour demand and more to do with a 'recycling' of jobseekers through welfare-to-work programmes

situated locally (Sunley et al., 2001). In part, positive gains to employability are rarely sufficient when structural inequalities: a lack of employment opportunities or labour market policy in practice (i.e. sanctions) can inhibit the likelihood of jobseekers entering paid employment (Kamerade & Ellis Paine, 2014). For example, the Work Programme should have a positive and developmental impact on jobseekers' employability and employment outcomes (Raffass, 2017). Paradoxically, however, punitive mechanisms (i.e. sanctions) are imposed on benefit claimants to incentivise labour market re-entry. This study supports a body of evidence which suggests the opposite is true: receiving a sanction does not incentivise clients to (re)enter the labour market (Baumberg 2014; Card et al., 2015; Dall & Danneris, 2019; HCWPC, 201; Heap, 2016; Oakley 2014; Patrick 2011, 2017; Reeves & Loopstra, 2017; Rosholm, 2014; van Berkel et al., 2018).

Hence, with a multitude of challenges and (potentially) hidden barriers to employment, it is difficult to see how anyone on their own could navigate environmental demands, never mind a long-term unemployed jobseeker further removed from labour market activation with limited knowledge of the skills they require and the barriers they must overcome to enter employment. Consequently, LMIs exist to enact government labour market policy, delivering the employability and skills support required to ensure unemployed jobseekers are meeting employer demands and successfully engaging with the labour market to progress towards sustainable employment; yet this too can be a barrier for some jobseekers. Therefore, for some Work Programme clients, the reality will be that they do not enter employment by the end of their two years journey.

9.1.2. Employability Progression

LMI exists to implement labour market policy in practice, deliver the employability and skills support required to ensure unemployed jobseekers are meeting the demands of employers and obtaining work. The focus for LMI is to determine what 'high employability' looks like and then provide pre-employment preparation and post-employment support, including training, as part of active labour market policies (Dench et al., 2006; Green et al., 2013). 'Success' for LMIs is measured predominantly as an employment outcome, as employability outcomes are generally associated with future employment (Koen, Klehe, & Van Vianen, 2013). However, an evolving, yet under-researched, interest in 'distance travelled', or 'unemployment trajectories', suggest the importance of another measure, the progression jobseekers make towards employment (Blades et al., 2012; Danneris, 2018; Dries et al., 2014). However, the demonstration of success was problematic in this thesis, as evidence of change over time was negligible, but where the changes occurred raises some concerns over IAG in practice. Therefore, this study suggests that measuring employability progression is valuable for two reasons. First, it demonstrates a clients' employment trajectory towards employment, but the second reason to measure progression is to identify where jobseekers are potentially parked.

For clients with lower levels of employability to demonstrate employability progression is unsurprising, as clients at the back of the jobs queue end to have more room to progress. Moreover, the factors which influenced employability progression were reminiscent of those significant individual factors associated with *employment*

outcomes, but the direction was the inverse. For example, where clients who entered employment demonstrated greater levels of self-efficacy, clients who progressed had lower levels of self-efficacy. Clients who progressed were similar to clients who *did not* enter employment. They had health conditions, fewer assets in their toolkit and spent less time looking for work. They also had no work history at Phase 1 and were less likely to start work by Phase 2.

Conversely, and curiously, jobseekers who entered employment did not show evidence of evidence progression across the six-month research duration. In fact, of the 20 jobseekers at Phase 2 who had entered employment, only six demonstrated employability progression. What the findings suggest, though, is that just because a client started work, it does not mean they have actively managed their barriers or developed the skills required to sustain employment. This proposition has some support from examples of where progression did occur.

Positive gains over the six-month research duration occurred across transactional work-related variables, for example, the total number of assets in the jobseeker's toolkit increased (i.e. interview clothing and a CV). Attitudes to job-search changed. Clients were more likely to believe there were jobs available where they would be willing to travel, which may have something to do with their improved knowledge of the labour market and the types of jobs opportunities available to them. Alongside an increase in self-reported job-search confidence, there was a significant increase in the frequency of applications made, with a marked shift towards weekly applications, an increase in the completion of application forms, and more frequent

attendance at job interviews. Also, the methods clients used to look for work changed: there was a substantial reduction in using the JobCentres to look for work, while the client increasingly contacted employers directly.

Furthermore, changes at Phase 2 were not always positive. First, clients were less positive about whether *local recruitment practices allow them to apply for vacancies*. A lower average across this item could have many interpretations. Clients may have struggled to obtain interviews and attributed that to recruitment practices instead of internalising any gaps in skills and experience; or they may require more time to understand how local recruitment practices are delivered and how to deploy their assets appropriately. Alternatively, employers may be recruiting beyond the entry-level position many clients are seeking (Devins & Hogarth, 2005; Newton et al., 2005). Second, clients were less positive about the impact of their health condition on their ability to find work, which was surprising considering there were significantly fewer ESA claimants and fewer clients reporting mental health conditions at Phase 2. What is not captured, however, is whether an individual's health has deteriorated over the six-month research duration, and as can be expected with the enduring nature of health impairments, some barriers require more than six months to address. The progression a jobseeker can make towards employment can be gradual, dynamic and multi-dimensional, with jobseekers restricted from the labour market due to multiple disadvantages ending up at the back of the 'jobs queue' (Beatty et al., 2000, p.961). Moreover, the development of their employability is unlikely to be linear (Crabbe, 2006) with and digressions likely to occur. It is also worth noting that a 'negative' change in the EI does not always mean that the client's employability has 'deteriorated':

it may be that with the information and support provided by the Work Programme adviser, and training attendance, the client was more self-aware and knowledgeable about the recruitment methods that will support their entry into employment.

Therefore, understanding employability progression is not only significant as a means of measuring success but also to understand the route people take to employment. The only concern from this study is where progression occurred. However, an interpretation of findings must be prefaced with the caveat that the sample size of 44 inhibits the generalisation of any results. First, positive gains over the six-month research duration mainly occurred across transactional work-related variables associated with a standardised delivery of employability programmes and the conditionality associated with being a Work Programme client. Many of these changes could be explained by a Claimant Commitment which sets out activity requirements including regular job-search activity (i.e. minimum hours and the number of applications), training, 'travel to work distances' applying for work, or 'preparation actions' required to receive benefits (DWP, 2010, 2019). For example, the minimum service levels of Organisations X and Y require advisers to support clients to accumulate material assets deemed essential to gaining employment (e.g. creating a CV or providing a bank account) within the first few weeks of being a Work Programme client (Bellis et al., 2011; Fugate et al., 2004; Tamkin & Hillage, 1999; UK Government, 2017). This is apparent in the employability progression results: changes predominantly occur over the client's toolkit and job-search behaviours. While evidently possessing these assets is an important precursor to achieving employment outcomes, it is also a necessary part of the service the advisers are obliged to deliver.

Moreover, measures of quantity say nothing about the quality of those documents or activities, nor the underlying associated psychological processes relating to seeking employment. Moreover, LMIs need to address a more comprehensive set of barriers, for example, condition management for health conditions as there is little evidence to suggest that a work-first approach supports employability progression, as a work-first approach fails to consider barriers which are not work-related (Theodore & Peck, 2001).

Second, if a work-first approach had been adopted, it would be evident that clients' considered at the front of the advisers' imaginary job queue are more likely to enter work – which is what emerges from the data. Thus, the interpretation of 'high employability' could potentially lead to pressure on the client to enter work quickly, possibly without much additional support from their advisers. Hence, just because a client enters work, it does not mean their employability has improved. This interpretation is supported by a body of work-first critique which suggests a wide range of non-work barriers may go unaddressed (e.g. Dean et al., 2005; Peck & Theodore, 2000; Richardson, 2003; van Berkel & Valkenburg, 2007). The results also contradict the edict that 'any job' or work experience is useful in improving individual employability (Dench et al., 2006; Green et al., 2013; Hasluck & Green, 2007; Jenkins & Leaker, 2010; Meijers & Lengelle, 2012; Tominey & Gregg, 2005). These findings suggest that achieving employment in and of itself, is not as crucial to the development of employability as posited by a work-first agenda, but it does, however, help an adviser to achieve their performance targets.

Third, and linked to the latter, is the offer of, and attendance at, training. Skills and employability go hand in hand under any labour market initiative (DfEE, 1997; Blades et al., 2012), but clients who entered employment did not engage in many training courses during their six months attendance on the Work Programme; while clients who progressed were more likely to have attended the training on offer. This is a logical interpretation considering that clients who remain on the Work Programme have more time to learn and progress towards employment. On the other hand, and as posited by Sol & Hootganders (2005), those clients further away from the labour market or not progressing quickly enough are often provided with opportunities for further development and training. Evident in the study, clients with low levels of employability, and perceived by their adviser to be further to the labour market, attended a greater number of training courses.

By adopting a less pessimistic interpretation than before, advisers are possibly adopting an approach more aligned to the HCD models which seek to improve employability through investment in human capital (often through education and training) (Lindsay, 2014). Positive outcomes from HCD programmes increase over time, and therefore, they may be of benefit to the clients in the long run (Card et al., 2018); this is not evident within the timescale of this study. Moreover, clients who are not ready for employment, especially those with health conditions, may not be ready to begin searching for work, and therefore advisers may be giving them space to develop their skills and knowledge. This might be evident in the fact that sanctioning was a significant enabler of employment outcomes, but not employability progression. That is, advisers might have been loath to apply punitive measures to clients who were

further from the labour market in the first instance, thus avoiding the carrot or the stick (van Berkel et al., 2010). Alternatively, perhaps clients with high levels of employability at Phase 1 were more likely to enter work quickly and therefore did not require any support or training. Moreover, these findings require a caveat: it is unclear at what stage of the client's journey training occurred, and therefore the direction of the relationship is unclear. Nevertheless, the risk is that advisers may be managing their caseloads to ensure their in-role performance is delivered, and their targets met, by working with clients that are closer to the labour market, while parking clients on training until they are ready to work with them (O'Sullivan et al., 2019; Rees et al., 2014; Rosenthal & Peccei, 2006a, 2006b; van Berkel, 2014).

Irrespective, employability programmes should deliver a holistic and personalised service to jobseekers to ensure clients leave the Work Programme more employable than when they started. However, as evidence and theory suggest, advisers act in 'functional ways' to achieve their targets (Fuentes & Lindsay, 2015). They adopt 'professional pragmatism' (van Berkel & Valkenburg, 2007) to deliver what is (a) required, (b) likely to help them achieve their target and (c) within their level of competency (Bolhaar et al., 2020; Considine et al., 2018b; Newton et al., 2012; Rice et al., 2018; Rosenthal & Peccei, 2006a, 2006b; Toerien et al., 2013; Wright, 2013). To manage workload and targets, advisers 'cream and park' their jobseekers based on their proximity to the labour market and willingness to engage (O'Sullivan et al., 2019; Rees et al., 2014; Rosenthal & Peccei, 2006a, 2006b; van Berkel, 2014), thus, working more closely and frequently with the 'creamed' job-ready participants (Rees et al., 2013; Sol & Hooglanders, 2005). This is a practice observed across Work Programme

providers (Greer et al., 2018). Yet, adopting a work-first approach to activation, emphasising intensive job-search and the edict that 'any' job is better than unemployment, applying the Claimant Commitment where required, without addressing employability barriers, does not seem to be improving individual employability (Daguerre & Etherington, 2009, 2019; Theodore & Peck, 2001).

While policymakers have prioritised the creation of a skilled workforce as a solution to unemployment (e.g. DfEE, 1998; Taylor, 2017), employability is more holistic than that. With precursors to employment including the management of health conditions and softer measures such as self-efficacy, as well as the management of personal circumstances and knowledge of external factors which inhibit the jobseeker's ability to take advantage of labour market opportunities (Blades et al., 2012; Green et al., 2013; James, 2007). Moreover, as employability progression findings in this study point to the same significant employment outcome variables, we are provided with some understanding of jobseeker's trajectory towards employment.

9.1.3. What (should) work in welfare-to-work

The Work Programme has performed 'relatively well overall' (Suleiman, 2014, p.4). In 2013, end-to-end providers, were likely to see 30 – 39 per cent of their clients enter paid employment. Specifically, over two-thirds (67%) of generalist end-to-end providers, such as Organisations X and Y, supported over 30 per cent of their participants into employment compared to a quarter (26%) of specialist end-to-end providers (DWP, 2014). Thus end-to-end providers were overall more successful in

supporting clients into employment. Furthermore, employment outcomes were higher in larger organisations (i.e. more than 50 staff) at 71 per cent compared to 36 per cent in those with fewer than 50 staff (DWP, 2014). This finding is similar to the differences in outcomes across provider organisations in this study. However, in 2014, statistically significant differences in employment outcomes did not emerge from provider sector or size (DWP, 2014). Moreover, a subsequent evaluation of the relative effectiveness of prime providers (DWP, 2016b) found that the characteristics of providers was not associated with effectiveness, however, the types of support delivered had some association with better outcomes. Nonetheless, in general, they found that “much of the variation in provider performance remains unexplained” (DWP, 2016b, p. 12).

Nonetheless, as the nomenclature suggests, it can be challenging to support ‘hard to help’ jobseekers into employment when they have barriers that have precluded them from finding work of their own volition (Berthoud, 2003; Nothdurfter, 2016). Nevertheless, enabling support should facilitate the employability journey. Evidence is inconclusive in regard to ‘what works’ to move unemployed jobseekers closer to the labour market (Bredgaard, 2015; Dall & Danneris, 2019; Raffass, 2017). However, activation is not spontaneous: it occurs only through the implementation of policy in practice by frontline staff (Nothdurfter, 2016; van Berkel & van der Aa, 2012). Thus, Kluve et al. (2019) report that the type of intervention in and of itself is not as important as the design and delivery of the intervention. As such, programme effectiveness can be better understood by investigating the personal interactions between advisers and jobseekers (Dall & Danneris, 2019; Wright, 2013).

Attention on ‘what works’ at street level is particularly focused on the delivery of personalised services from a dedicated adviser to benefit the jobseeker (e.g. Daguette & Etherington, 2009; McNeil, 2009; Meager et al., 2014; Newton et al., 2012; van Berkel & Valkenburg, 2007). Contrary to the narrative driving the Government mandate for LMIs to ensure each Work Programme client has a dedicated named adviser is not necessarily a practice adhered to in reality (DWP, 2012; Meager et al., 2014), and the results were not significant in this study. It is probably not unexpected given research also suggests that some jobseekers work better with different advisers (van Berkel, 2013) and therefore rotating jobseekers with advisers can provide a ‘fresh pair of eyes’ (Newton et al., 2012, p.51). Besides, the delivery of ‘true’ personalisation remains problematic due to the discretionary nature of support which is often influenced by the constraints of the mandatory nature of activation services, performance expectations, as well as their knowledge and skills (Bolhaar et al., 2020; Ceolta-Smith et al., 2018; Considine et al., 2015; Dall & Danneris, 2019; Nothdurfter, 2016; Rice et al., 2018; Rosenthal & Peccei, 2006a, 2006b; Valkenburg, 2007; van Berkel & Valkenburg, 2007; Van Berkel et al., 2010). The adviser, as a representative of Organisations X and Y, plays a role in ensuring the client has access to the support required to build their employability skills and enter employment. Good advisers (i.e. one that hits their targets) should see a more significant proportion of their clients enter employment. However, adviser performance was not a significant determinant of employment outcomes. This probably should not be surprising given that targets are inadequate measures of the quality of service delivery (Burgess et al., 2017; Dunleavy, 2017; Fryer et al., 2009; Moullin, 2017). Yet, jobseekers are not

oblivious to their adviser's targets, and that their employability as a commodity for both parties (Meager et al., 2014 p.162; Newton et al., 2012).

Evaluations of welfare-to-work delivery, nonetheless, have demonstrated that more than personalisation, or targets or outcomes, the relationship between both parties is important (Meager et al., 2014). Personalisation is arguably less important than the jobseeker-adviser relationship, as that relationship determines whether a service is personalised in the first place (Newton et al., 2012). Instead, respect, commitment, trust, and failing to deliver on promises and obligations are important for both parties (Arthur et al., 1999; Haughton et al., 2000; Newton et al., 2012; Penz et al., 2017; Toerien et al., 2013). This is especially true when one has the power to apply sanctions and cut benefits (Lakey et al., 2001). Relationships 'break down' when jobseekers feel pressure to apply for unsuitable jobs, fear sanctions, or did not receive the support they expected (Meager et al., 2014, p.89). The resultant outcome is that dissatisfied jobseekers are at risk of disengagement and less likely to enter employment (Newton et al., 2012, p.6). Therefore, the jobseeker-adviser relationship is an essential factor in producing employability outcomes (Rosenthal & Peccei, 2006a; van Berkel, 2013).

Literature reviews and government evaluations describe tailored support, yet there is limited research into the impact of the relationship on employability outcomes (van Berkel & Valkenburg, 2007). Moreover, the jobseeker-adviser relationship will look different for jobseekers who obtain work and those who do not. As Van Berkel (2013) suggests, that variance in adviser effectiveness can be explained by looking at

the jobseeker-adviser relationship, as the quality of interaction between two parties guides the appropriate activities (Rosenthal & Peccei, 2006a; Toerien et al., 2013; van Berkel, 2013). However, much of the research describes what an adviser does and how they do it, without empirical evidence underpinning the mechanisms driving personalised support as an output (Rosenthal & Peccei, 2006a, 2006b; Toerien et al., 2013). Moreover, much of the literature is grounded in social policy and social work context in Scandinavian and Nordic countries (Bolhaar et al., 2020; Dall, 2020; Rosholm, 2014; Huber et al.; Nothdurfter, 2016). This thesis, however, responded to the “underexposed” social, or relational, exchange that occurs daily between an adviser and jobseeker (Nothdurfter, 2016, p.453; Dall, 2020; (Dall & Danneris, 2019; Wright, 2013) and operationalised the jobseeker-adviser relationship to predict and explain how the exchange produces employability outcomes, by way of the psychological contract.

9.1.4. Jobseeker adviser relationship

This thesis cannot speak to the motivation and decision-making processes that occurred over the six-month research duration. However, by adopting social exchange theory as the conceptual foundation by which to investigate the jobseeker-adviser relationship has provided insight into how each parties’ obligations and expectations can result in (theoretically) interdependent outcomes (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Forrier et al., 2018; Wikhamn & Hall, 2012). Perceived obligations at the formation stage of a psychological contract give rise to mutuality and reciprocity (Rousseau, 1995). This is important as the agreement between the client and adviser about one

party's specific obligations (mutuality) and the reciprocal contributions these terms oblige (reciprocity), influence the effective functioning of the client-adviser relationship which in turn influences future outcomes (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004). Furthermore, any gaps in initial mutuality or reciprocity indicate future psychological contract breach (Coyle-Shapiro, 2001; Farnese et al., 2018; Nichols & Ojala, 2009; Krivokapic-Skoko et al., 2007, p.38) suggesting that a mismatch between the most important features of an anticipated jobseeker-adviser exchange could cause "unstable psychological contracts and...relationships".

Mutuality and reciprocity

Yet, while psychological contract breach steals the limelight in empirical studies of the psychological contract (Conway & Briner, 2009; Conway et al., 2011) due to its 'explanatory power' (Guest, 1998a, p.661); psychological contract breach is captured six-months after the adviser and client's first meeting. The explanatory power of greater interest in this thesis is that of the predictions made at Day 1 through an assessment of reciprocity and mutuality. Through these measures, each party's expectations of the 'other' from day one can explain and predict future psychological contract breach and outcomes (Alcover et al., 2017; Haughton et al., 2000; Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Newton et al., 2012; Turner & McKinlay, 2000).

At the beginning of the clients' participation in the Work Programme, the onus is placed firmly on them to develop their own employability. They are expecting, and expected, to be more committed to carrying out their obligations than their adviser.

This finding reflects a plethora of research which suggests an employee is responsible for what they receive by responding to inducements with reciprocal behaviours, and a jobseeker is responsible for improving their employability (Forrier et al., 2018; Fugate et al., 2004; Martin et al., 2008; NIACE, 1988; Patrick, 2008; Robst, 2007). Reminiscent of employability literature, the responsibility for obtaining ‘investment’ lies with the employee; the employee is responsible for behaving in a way that produces the outcomes they seek.

Furthermore, perceived obligations at the formation stage of the client-adviser psychological contract – in particular, mutuality of client obligations and reciprocity as perceived by the adviser – are associated with employability outcomes. Mutuality and reciprocity are two sides of the same coin; in this thesis, both are driven by an adviser's expectation of their client. However, unlike reciprocity, mutuality was only a significant predictor of employment outcomes when entered into a regression model controlling for other factors, including employability, and adviser-perceived reciprocity. Thus, its association with other variables may be non-linear; for example, under multivariate analysis, the inclusion of socio-biological variables in the preceding steps may determine the real relationship between variables. Moreover, usually where mutuality and reciprocity ‘converge’, the interests of both parties are ‘served’ and employee and organisational benefits (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004; Farnese et al., 2018; Vandendaele et al., 2016); yet, this is not such an obvious finding in this thesis. While mutuality produces a welcome, positive outcome, it is the gap in reciprocity that drives a positive result. This contradicts the findings that mutuality and reciprocity enable better quality relationships and improved performance and outcomes (e.g.

Vandendaele et al., 2016).

This study found mutuality of client obligations (i.e. the agreement between the client and adviser about the client's commitment to their obligations) to be a significant predictor of employment outcomes; more precisely, where mutuality of client obligations exists, clients are almost three times more likely to enter employment. This is an important finding, especially as mutuality is not just perceptual, but to some degree, objective (i.e. actual mutuality), occurring concurrently across both parties and allowing for an instantaneous assessment of the disparity between expectations (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004). Essential to achieving future interdependent goals, mutuality is the "gold standard" within exchange relationships (Rousseau, 2004, p.123). Therefore, understanding mutuality across a list of potentially subjective obligations ascribed to a 'role' examining mutuality of these obligations is useful in explaining attitudes that influence future outcomes (Guest, 2004). If clients and advisers are not assessing each other's obligations with a shared understanding, it is crucial to understand what they are measuring, both in terms of different expectations but also similarities. This understanding is especially pertinent for clients who fall victim to a gap in mutuality, as studies of employee-employer social exchange have demonstrated that gaps in mutuality at the start of a relationship provide explanatory power for future attitudes and behaviours (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000; Herriot et al., 1997; Porter et al., 1998). Hence, items relating to the mutuality of client obligations were further interrogated.

Despite prioritising a commitment to relational elements (i.e. respect and

fairness) above all other obligations, above contract requirements and job-seeking activities, where mutuality coincides with employment outcomes, the terms of their psychological contract are transactional. For example, clients are obliged to apply for jobs and build their employability skills, and advisers to provide vacancies for the client. These obligations are also at the bottom of the list in regard to client and adviser commitment. Nonetheless, being at the bottom of the list for commitment is not the same as being at the bottom of the list for importance when it comes to labour market success. Where there is an agreement between clients and advisers regarding these transactional items, clients are significantly more likely to enter work. The importance of this finding is that the generation of mutual obligations shapes jobseeker and adviser behaviour, with each party generally seeking a fair balance between reciprocal inducements and contribution (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004; Rousseau, 2004; Taylor & Tekleab, 2004; Tekleab & Taylor, 2003). In this instance, those items driving such behaviours are linked to a work-first agenda.

Reciprocity is based on the assessment of expected future exchanges over time, allowing for the evaluation of any return on investment before carrying out any future actions. Thus, the perceived agreement of reciprocity by the adviser is guided by their expectations of their clients' ability to deliver on their commitments. Ultimately, an adviser adheres to two cognitive processes while trying to maintain a stable psychological contract and positive relationship: 1) 'If the client fulfils their side of the deal, I'll fulfil mine', but 2) 'if the client fails to fulfil their side of the deal, I won't fulfil mine' (Alcover et al. 2017). For example, using the obligations listed above, should an adviser provide a jobseeker with a job vacancy, they may expect jobseekers

to return the favour in the future or behave in a way that is advantageous to the adviser, maybe by applying for that job or seeking development opportunities to improve their employability. Where that jobseeker fails to reciprocate the earlier actions of their adviser, the quality of the exchange relationship weakens (Morrison & Robinson, 1997).

However, from Day 1 there was a substantial gap in the perceived reciprocity from advisers: they expect more from their client than they commit to themselves. What subsequently occurs is that clients who entered employment did so while working with advisers who perceive less reciprocity at the formation of their relationship. This result occurs only from an advisers' perspective. In the same vein, the mutuality of adviser obligations has no bearing on employment outcomes. Therefore, understanding why adviser-perceived reciprocity is linked to a client entering work adds further importance to understanding the 'power' of the adviser (e.g. Lakey et al., 2001). According to psychological contract research, advisers will act out of self-interest, with power and political interests influencing any social exchange. Advisers are the dominant force in the exchange, and while the exchange relies on reciprocity, clients are not entering the exchange on a level playing field as the advisers.

Extant research suggests that an adviser's engagement with their client is, in part, based on their perception of the clients' employability (e.g. Rosenthal & Peccei, 2006a; Toerien et al., 2013). From the individual-level analysis, we can see that advisers were committed to their obligations only to the extent they believe their clients were committed to theirs. At the dyad-level, however, a client perceived as

closer to the labour market, the less reciprocity is perceived, and the more the client is responsible for their employability. The closer a client is perceived to be to the labour market, (1) the less adviser-perceived agreement of reciprocal exchange occurs and (2) the greater the mutuality of client obligations. If adviser-perceived reciprocity is, in part, based on the adviser's expectation that clients will carry the responsibility for improving their employability, this result could suggest that clients who are closer to the labour market are considered more self-sufficient and compliant, requiring less support from an adviser. It is also probable, therefore, that clients closer to the labour market are committed to the "role" of the client, especially those items associated with active jobseekers, such as committing to working and applying for jobs. In this regard, advisers seem to be absolving themselves of responsibility, deeming the client capable of securing their own employment, expecting to offer only a light-touch service carrying out the standardised work-first tasks required to get that client into work quickly.

Consider mutuality and reciprocity in the context of a Work Programme office. An adviser sits across the table from a jobseeker. They both have an agreement (of sorts) concerning the clients' commitment to their obligations while on the Work Programme. Certainly, it is their responsibility to commit to working, build their employability skills and apply for vacancies. Of that, they are both agreed. (Even better if the client is close to entering employment). Furthermore, if there are any discrepancies, the advisers are responsible for setting out the conditions for any social exchange, for example, holding them to their Claimant Commitment and rewarding them for their engagement by offering the support they seek and require, or

discretionary effort. At the same time, the adviser expects more from the jobseeker, and because they are deemed job-ready – willing and able, perhaps – and both parties are in agreement as to the client’s commitment, the adviser takes a step back and leaves the client to it. Moreover it works because the jobseeker enters work: it is the embodiment of a work-first agenda the client enters employment (e.g. Card et al., 2010; 2018).

Dabos and Rousseau (2004, p.69) suggest that mutuality and reciprocity are fundamental to the concept of the psychological contract: “the bedrock of functional employment relationships are exchanges...characterized by mutuality or shared understanding of all parties’ obligations and reliance on their reciprocal commitments”. In this study, where mutuality occurred, a positive outcome emerged. Where reciprocity occurred, a negative outcome was more likely. To garner a bit more insight into the contradictory nature of the reciprocity findings it is helpful to look at what happens when psychological contract breach occurs. Psychological contracts are more likely to be fulfilled when there is agreement on the terms (Hannah et al., 2016; Ye, Cardon & Rivera, 2012). However, the likelihood of agreeing on specific terms of the exchange are minimal due to the subjective nature of the psychological contract (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000). Thus, discrepancies or gaps in each party’s perception of the other party’s obligations can result in breach (Coyle-Shapiro, 2001; Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Nichols & Ojala, 2009). Krivokapic-Skoko et al. (2007, p.38) suggest that a mismatch between the most important features of an anticipated employee-employer exchange cause “unstable psychological contracts and employment relationships”. For this analysis, the significant relationship between

employment and adviser-perceived reciprocity and mutual client obligations makes them important measures.

However, Mutuality and Reciprocity measures in this study could be influenced by unexplored employability factors aligned to individual differences, including personality (Fugate et al., 2004; Kanfer et al., 2001; Potgieter & Coetzee, 2013) and emotional intelligence (Creed, King, Hood & McKenzie, 2009; Wanberg, Glomb, Song & Sorenson, 2005). For example, an emerging body of empirical evidence provides (mixed) results regarding the influence of personality on psychological contract breach (Agarwal, 2017; Ho, Weingart & Rousseau, 2004; Raja, Johns, & Ntalianis, 2004; Sambrook & Wainwright 2010; Shih & Chuan, 2013; Tallman & Bruning, 2008; Tomprou & Nikolaou 2011; Zagenczyk, Smallfield, Scott, Galloway & Purvis, 2017). Also, there is evidence that emotional intelligence can buffer the negative effects of psychological contract breach, in part due to an individual's self-awareness and ability to understand and manage emotion-related information (Bal, Chiaburu & Dia, 2011; Balogun, 2017; Balogun, Oluyemi & Afolabi, 2018; Phillips & Chen, 2018; Urquijo, Extremera & Solabarrieta, 2019). However, there is limited insight into the association between emotion-regulation and psychological contract formation, specifically mutuality and reciprocity, which is the focus of this thesis (Tomprou & Nikolaou, 2011).

Psychological contract breach

The trend whereby the advisers' perception of the client is the dominant force

in this thesis emerges again with psychological contract breach findings. Psychological contract breach was only significantly associated with mutuality and reciprocity when it was perceived *of* the client, *by* the adviser. Specifically, high levels of mutuality at Phase 1 are associated with lower levels of psychological contract breach at Phase 2; conversely, high levels of reciprocity at Phase 1 were associated with higher levels of psychological contract breach at Phase 2. This finding suggests that where an agreement exists at Phase 1 apropos client obligations, the adviser was more likely to perceive them to be fulfilled at Phase 2. Conversely, where there is no agreement at Phase 1, greater psychological contract breach ensues in the future, suggesting a misalignment of the expectations of clients at the beginning of the relationship creates scope for misinterpretation throughout the jobseeker-adviser relationship. Concerning reciprocity, the more an adviser expects of their client at Phase 1, the more that client is reported to fail to live up to their obligations at Phase 2. Advisers are more likely to see psychological contracts as being met when there is agreement on the terms (Hannah et al., 2016; Ye et al., 2012). Even more than mutuality, reciprocity is based on the assessment of exchanges over time, with individual evaluating a return on their investment before carrying out any future actions (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004). Maybe as Farnese et al. (2018) suggests “you can see how things will end by the way they begin”, but maybe reciprocity, even the perception of it, is not best measured at Phase 1. Nevertheless, supporting extant literature, initial expectations of mutuality and reciprocity are predictive of future psychological contract breach as well as outcomes (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004; Farnese et al., 2018; Nichols & Ojala, 2009; Vandendaele et al., 2016).

Individual-level analysis at Phase 2 was centred on perceptions of psychological contract breach. Exchange relationships are guided by the perception of reciprocal obligations, with continual judgements made regarding the extent to which these obligations are met or breached. As one obligation is fulfilled, new ones develop and are renegotiated, therefore, the content of the contract is constantly in flux and could be limitless, making contract fulfilment unlikely (Conway & Briner, 2005; Guest, 1998a). Thus, when psychological contract breach is perceived employees will withdraw various forms of positive work behaviours to redress any imbalance (Conway & Briner, 2009). As such, it would be expected that a negative employment outcome would be associated with the perception of psychological contract. However, individual-level analysis at Phase 2 suggests that clients and advisers perceived minimal levels of psychological contract breach: with no suggestion that any relationships had irrevocably ‘broken down’. Therefore, it appears that both parties have fulfilled one or more of its obligations in a manner proportionate to their contribution (Anderson et al., 1998; Morrison & Robinson, 1997), resulting in a reasonably equitable social exchange relationship (Suazo, 2009).

While too small a sample to deduce meaningful results, the direction of the outcomes of psychological contract breach appears consistent with existing research highlighting the relationship between breach and negative outcomes (e.g. Bal et al., 2008; Sok et al., 2013; Zhao et al., 2007). Where an adviser is more likely to perceive their client to have breached their psychological contract, the client is less likely to enter employment (i.e. a negative outcome). On the other hand, when a *client* perceives their adviser to have breached their psychological contract, the client is less likely to

have demonstrated any employability progression (i.e. a negative outcome). Ultimately a negative outcome begets a negative outcome. An explanation for why a client's perception of adviser psychological contract breach is related to progression, while an adviser's perception of client psychological contract breach is linked to employment, can be specifically situated within a target-driven welfare-to-work context.

In regard the negative association between advisers' perception of client breach and employment outcomes, the resultant outcome is likely to be the display of negative attitudes and counterproductive behaviours aimed at the jobseeker in response to their failure to live up to expectations. The services they offer and level of support they provide will be reduced, in part, based on the client's 'worthiness' judged as their adherence to contractual requirements and generalised obligations (Fletcher, 2011; Hudson et al., 2010; Lipsky, 1980, 2010; Rosenthal & Peccei, 2006a; Wright, 2003). For example, Patmore (2008) suggested that if a jobseeker failed to attend appointments after a series of non-compliance (jobseeker breach), an adviser might decide to reduce support (exit) or even raise a sanction (neglect). While not immediately discernible from this thesis, discretion might once again be at the heart of psychological contract breach, whereby advisers 'manage' their caseloads to meet operational requirements. Therefore, advisers may be adopting a work-first approach, reducing support for those not 'worthy', therefore reducing their chances of entering employment (e.g. Hudson et al., 2010; Rees et al., 2013, 2014; Sol & Hoogtanders, 2005). A work-first approach is ubiquitous in welfare-to-work provision; therefore it is possible that clients who failed to fulfil their obligations over the six-month research

duration were 'parked' in training as a consequence for breach. Also, in this study, where a sanction was applied, psychological contract breach was perceived. And while sanction decisions are the responsibility of the JCP, advisers are responsible for notifying the JCP of their clients' breaches of conditionality or compliance; hence sanctions raised by advisers are always at the discretion of the adviser (Rosenthal & Peccei, 2006a). These findings also point to literature which suggests a tension exists between compulsion and personalisation (Sol & Westerveld, 2007). Specifically, a DWP evaluation referred to the point that 'relationships with advisers had broken down' for some clients due to a fear of sanctions or when advisers did not offer the support the jobseeker expected or requested (Meager et al., 2014, p.89). This tension between expectations and reality is often difficult to manage and can inhibit the delivery of effective services to jobseekers in need, particularly the most vulnerable (Rice et al., 2018).

In regard the clients' perception of adviser breach associated with employability progression, it could be deduced that clients who did not progress did not receive the support they required or expected, and thus on those occasions, clients believed their advisers had not lived up to their obligations. Patmore (2008) surmised that a perceived psychological contract breach from the jobseeker's perspective could result in lowered commitment and lack of adviser trust, which would consequently impact their intention to engage. Should an adviser fail to deliver on their promises, for example, training or work placement, the jobseeker may then lose motivation to engage in the Work Programme and potentially disengage and withdraw from any services on offer. Clients are not free to exit a mandatory Work Programme without

penalties, except through disengagement and superficial compliance. However, perceptions of psychological contract breach are not substantial in this study. Clients might actually feel their needs are being met, and thus demonstrate intentions to remain in the relationship instead of progressing towards an exit or, in workplace vernacular, ‘turnover’ into employment (e.g. Bal et al., 2008; Rousseau, 1995; Turnley & Feldman, 1998, 1999, 2000; Zhao et al., 2007).

Jobseekers might actually like their advisers. Research suggests that lower perceived employability triggers greater investment in the employment relationship: clients might be engaging with the Work Programme, and their adviser, longer than work-ready clients (e.g. Ng & Feldman, 2008); accordingly, in this study, clients who progressed had lower levels of employability at Phase 1 than clients who entered employment. Nonetheless, it is also worth noting that clients entered employment within 90 days, on average, while employability progression was measured at 180 days, suggesting that some clients may have had more time to develop a (positive) relationship with their advisers, negotiating and evaluating the terms of their contract, resulting in a clearer understanding of the each other’s role. Hence, psychological contract breach may be significantly associated with employability progression as clients are invested in a relationship which develops over time.

9.2. PULLING IT TOGETHER: A REVISED EMPLOYABILITY FRAMEWORK

Overall, these findings advance prior research by demonstrating the impact of

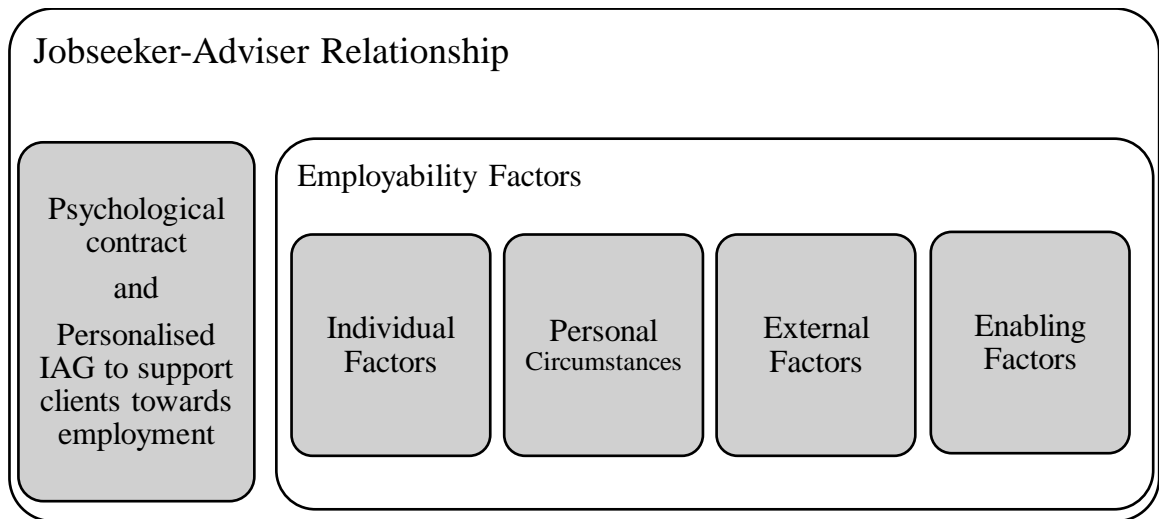
the psychological contract on employment outcomes within a welfare-to-work setting. Specifically, findings reveal that reciprocity, as perceived by an adviser, and mutuality of client obligations, are associated with employment outcomes. The evidence presented, however, suggests two trends: (1) the onus is on clients to commit to and deliver on their obligations; (2) psychological contract variables and associated behaviours and outcomes are predominantly significant when the adviser is the respondent. Employability plays a role in the client's perception of their own commitment, but an adviser's commitment is anchored in their client's commitments but not their employability. Also, employment outcomes are regularly influenced by relationship variables, but employability progression outcomes are only subject to a client's perception of their adviser's psychological contract. Overall, it does suggest that just as employers initiate the exchange relationship (Wikhamn & Hall, 2012), advisers are in charge of the interactions which occur within a Work Programme delivery office.

And while debates continue over the starting point for the development of a psychological contract (e.g. Alcover et al., 2017; Chaudhry & Song, 2014; De Vos & Buyens, 2001; Rousseau, 2001), employment outcomes can be predicted by the client-adviser exchange from the initial interaction (e.g. Bellis et al., 2011; Haughton et al., 2000; Newton et al., 2012). It is the “quality of the initial contact” – mutuality of client obligations – that drives future attitudes and behaviours of both jobseekers and advisers, which can be “enhanced” or “adversely affected” through future interactions (Newton et al., 2012, p.6, emphasis added) as demonstrated by an adviser' perception of reciprocity, and the role that plays in determining services offered, and future

psychological contract breach. As such, “initial contact” can be measured objectively from the first interaction between two exchange partners and predict future outcomes. Where mutuality exists, benefits ensue; while conversely, misalignment of adviser-perceived reciprocity leads to a client’s employment success. Advisers use their employability knowledge to ‘manage’ long-term unemployed clients back into employment, often making decisions on how to deliver services to clients, the results align themselves with the view of work-first approaches (Krebs & Scheffel, 2012; Peck & Theodore, 2000).

Taken together, the results of this study suggest that the jobseeker-adviser relationship is an essential variable influencing employment outcomes, providing some support for the revised Employability Framework set out in Chapter 4 (Figure 9.2). Enabling support factors are ostensibly entangled with jobseekers’ employment outcomes. The overarching role of employability programmes, such as the Work Programme, delivered by organisations like those investigated in this study, is to support people on their employment journey through the removal of barriers and delivery of personalised service. Even by this explanation of “enabling support factors” it is apparent that to consider the impact of such programmes at an organisational level is failing to address how labour market policy is delivered in practice. It is the adviser who enables a jobseeker to develop their employability skills or overcome barriers. More specifically, approaching the thesis from the position that employability is a ‘collective endeavour’ (Green et al., 2013), it is argued that the client-adviser relationship plays a role in the objective employment outcome of a long-term unemployment jobseeker attending the Work Programme.

Figure 9.2. *Revised Employability Framework (Butler, 2020)*



9.3. CHAPTER CONCLUSIONS

This chapter has provided an interpretation and synthesis of the research findings situated within the extant literature. In doing so, the aim was to address the three research objectives within this thesis, to: identify factors that significantly influence the employment outcomes of jobseekers attending the Work Programme; add to an emerging body of research investigating employability progression as an outcome of welfare-to-work programme delivery; and examine whether the jobseeker-adviser relationship impacts employment outcomes.

Overall, an exploration of key employability components suggests that those variables significantly associated with employment outcomes in this sample are comparable to wider employability literature, with evidence of work-first practices emerging from an investigation into employability progression. Finally, the results are

arguably consistent with prior evidence that the social exchange between two parties influence outcomes. The jobseeker-adviser relationship between the client and their adviser contributes to employment success.

In sum, this chapter argues that the jobseeker-adviser relationship, as measured through their psychological contract, is a welcome introduction to existing frameworks. Thus, extending the conceptualisation of key employability components influential in jobseekers' success in the labour market, fundamentally supporting the thesis that the jobseeker-adviser relationship is critical in producing employability outcomes and arguably as important as any other employability variable in determining employment success.

CHAPTER TEN

CONCLUSION: UNDERSTANDING THE FACTORS INFLUENCING UNEMPLOYED JOBSEEKERS' EMPLOYABILITY OUTCOMES

Evaluations of government-led employability programmes and the development of contemporaneous conceptual employability frameworks have arguably been produced in silos. A review of both avenues of research has failed to converge on one factor central to the development of a long-term unemployed jobseeker's employability; the role of an employability adviser in supporting a jobseeker to access the information, advice and guidance required to manage any employment barriers and obtain work. Thus, central to this thesis was the examination of the jobseeker-adviser relationship as a factor influencing employment outcomes, arguably as important as any other employability variable. Hence, the research objectives for this thesis were to: (1) identify factors that significantly influence the employment outcomes of jobseekers attending the Work Programme; (2) Add to an emerging body of research investigating employability progression as an outcome of welfare-to-work programme delivery; (3) Examine whether the jobseeker-adviser relationship impacts employment outcomes.

In an attempt to understand the influence of employability factors, including the role of the jobseeker-adviser relationship, on employment outcomes, two independent theoretical and conceptual domains – specifically employability and the

psychological contract – were integrated into a new context to identify whether the jobseeker-adviser relationship predicts employment success for long-term unemployed jobseekers. It is concluded that employability factors theoretically linked to job starts are more likely to determine employment outcomes. However, the most substantial contribution to come from this thesis is that it is the first to demonstrate that the psychological contract between a client and adviser in a welfare-to-work context influences objective employment outcomes. By applying psychological contract theory to jobseeker-adviser relationships, with the focus placed on obligations perceived at the beginning of the social exchange relationship, this thesis suggests that employability is a collaborative effort.

This concluding chapter will revisit the research objectives and determine the degree to which these objectives have been met before identifying the thesis' contribution. This thesis will then conclude by offering a review of where avenues of future research could further address some of the limitations and findings.

10.1. REVISITING RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

Adopting a longitudinal repeated measures research design, the impact of the jobseeker-adviser relationship, along with and key employability components was conducted across a sample of 102 jobseeker-adviser dyads set within the UK's Work Programme employability programme, Scotland. Quantitative analysis of between-group data identified the influence of client employability on objective employment outcomes, with results commensurate to existing employability literature, with few

exceptions. The analysis also considered the role of a dedicated adviser as a factor influencing employment outcomes, as this variable was heralded as a key to individual and organisational employment success.

Policymakers consider employability to be the vehicle by which individuals can successfully navigate the labour market and obtain employment, resulting in broader socioeconomic outcomes. Based on empirical evidence and conceptualised by frameworks, employability is a composite of supply- and demand-side variables each jobseeker possesses or seeks. A review of employability frameworks elucidated key factors impacting individual employability which captured in a composite Employability Index and investigated to predict employability outcomes. As hypothesised, clients possessing a range of employability factors theoretically linked to employment outcomes were more likely to enter employment. Consistent with extant evidence, the route into employment was influenced by a range of supply-side variable, including personal attributes, general skills and job-search confidence. However, an individual's ability to realise their assets and skills to some extent depended upon personal circumstances, such as childcare requirements, and demand-side factors like stable housing and a willingness to travel for work, and also whether a client lived in an area of deprivation.

What is more, instead of the contemporary focus on labour market success as an 'employment outcome', the dynamic nature of employability suggests that for long-term unemployed jobseekers, success is also their ability to take one step closer to the front of the 'jobs queue' and thus demonstrate employability progression. Progression

was analysed across a small sample, therefore only providing initial insights that may be worthy of future research. For the majority of clients in this study, progression was not substantial. Nevertheless, employability gains were evident primarily across variables associated with a work-first approach to welfare-to-work delivery, whereby activity is associated with the 'role' of being a jobseeker and the associated conditionality. Therefore, progression was evident in increased job-search activities and the acquisition of assets such as a CV, rather than those critical soft-skills and health management required to move closer to the front of the 'jobs queue' towards sustainable employment. Also, insight into the progression a client can make while attending welfare-to-work programmes suggests that employability might be a potential indicator of future employment. However, the same cannot be said of clients who entered employment – there was no evidence that they had improved their employability.

The responsibility for developing employability has been debated – ascribed to employees, employers, or both – but has settled on the notion that it is a collective effort. However, the most comprehensive and holistic framework set out by Green et al. (2013) which extended pre-existing frameworks to identify support from organisations delivering the employability programmes as an 'enabler' of employability, is presently outdated. 'Enabling' support, as insinuated by policymakers and evidence of 'what works' in welfare-to-work, instead comes from the personalised support delivered by a dedicated adviser at street level. The adviser puts policy into practice to produce positive outcomes for both the individual and the programme. While employability is, indeed, a collective endeavour, it is not the LMI

themselves, but the adviser employed to deliver the welfare-to-work policy in practice which supports a jobseeker. Thus, an adviser is a crucial enabler. More so, this thesis contends that it is less important to work with ‘any’ dedicated adviser, and more essential to work within the boundaries of a positive jobseeker-adviser relationship, which, it has been argued, is a factor that has been erroneously neglected thus far as a factor influencing employment outcomes.

To examine how the jobseeker-adviser relationship influences employability outcomes, social exchange theory and the psychological contract were adopted as theoretical and conceptual frameworks for measuring the ‘relationship’. Individual-level analysis suggests that both parties care about fair treatment and respect, but both also focus on transactional tasks that fulfil their roles of providing and applying for job vacancies.

Through dyadic analysis, findings reveal that reciprocity, as perceived by an adviser, and mutuality of client obligations, are associated with employment outcomes. Specifically, mutuality of client obligations was a significant predictor of future employment outcomes. This is an important finding considering mutuality is essential to achieving future interdependent goals; it is the “gold standard” within exchange relationships (Rousseau, 2004, p.123). By applying psychological contract theory to jobseeker-adviser relationships, with the focus placed on obligations perceived at the beginning of a relationship, this thesis accepts that employability is a ‘collective endeavour’ between the jobseeker and adviser (Green et al., 2013). On this basis, it is proposed that relationships matter in supporting a client’s employment.

The first empirical study into the jobseeker-adviser relationship as a factor influencing objective jobseeker employment outcomes; these findings advance prior research by demonstrating the impact of the psychological contract on employment outcomes within a welfare-to-work setting. The evidence presented, however, suggests two trends. First, the psychological contract variables and associated outcomes are predominantly significant when the adviser is the respondent – reinforcing the argument that advisers are influential in client employment outcomes, potentially based on a work-first approach to activation. Moreover, the onus is on the client to commit to and deliver on their obligations. Together, these results indicate that an adviser's perception of their client can drive the associated services offered to influence employment outcomes. The jobseeker-adviser relationship can be an enabler or a barrier, depending on how it is formed and perpetuated. Second, this thesis demonstrates that employment outcomes can be predicted from the first social exchange between a client and their adviser. While the majority of psychological contract research investigates the psychological contract breach that occurs as a predictor of outcomes, the results from this study suggest that expectations of a social exchange from Day 1 can predict future objective jobseeker employment outcomes, offering implications for adviser practice.

This thesis, it is suggested, has addressed the three research objectives and provided empirical evidence presenting those employability factors which influence the employment outcomes of jobseekers; it has added to an emerging body of research which considered the implications of employability progression within welfare-to-work organisations; finally identifying the impact of the jobseeker-adviser relationship

on objective employment outcomes. In sum, the psychological contract between an adviser and long-term unemployed jobseeker, in combination with a range of employability factors, can determine jobseekers' employability journey.

10.2. CONTRIBUTION

The contribution of this thesis applies to four domains: theory, methodology, practice and policy.

10.2.1. Theoretical and Empirical

First, by investigating the jobseeker-adviser relationship as an enabling support factor influencing employment success, the study contributes to employability, social policy, social exchange and psychological contract literature. Although many studies have described the importance of the adviser in helping jobseekers achieve labour market success, this study is the first to empirically test the jobseeker-adviser relationship as a factor influencing objective employment outcomes, and indeed the first to examine the psychological contract in a welfare-to-work setting. Moreover, this thesis contributes to a range of research which demonstrated the importance of the psychological contract in an environment outwith the workplace where power imbalances exist within relationships, with unspecified implicit contract terms evolving and renegotiated through a variety of interactions, such as higher education and volunteering (e.g. Blancero & Johnson, 1997; Baethge & Rigotti, 2016; Bordia et al., 2010a, 2010b; Nichols, 2013).

10.2.2. Methodology

Methodologically, this thesis adds value by (1) operationalising the jobseeker-adviser relationship through the psychological contract to predict employment outcomes, not only describe them; (2) adopting dyadic analysis utilising multisource data to measure the perception of not only the jobseeker but also the adviser – a practice often recommended, but rarely delivered; and (3) contributing to an emergent body of research which is more inclined to identify signs of future social exchange by looking at the formation of a psychological contract, specifically, initial obligations, perceived reciprocity and mutuality of obligations. In sum, this research indicated that outcomes of a two-party exchange in employability programmes can be identified from their initial interaction – a finding that evaluators of welfare-to-work programmes have described for years but had not yet operationalised.

10.2.3. Policy and Practice

The significance of this research in terms of applicability across policy and practice lies in expanding existing frameworks and adding to the current activation literature vis-à-vis strategies directed towards achieving employment and employability progression outcomes. If targets are designed to incentive work-first activation instead of HCD, the support provided to a hard-to-help jobseeker may be ineffectual at best, detrimental at worst. By targeting LMIs on employability progression instead, jobseekers who require support over a more extended period before entering employment might actually get the support they need beyond the

creation of a CV or improved job-search confidence. Hence, Government-commissioned welfare-to-work programmes may need to move towards (or back to) providing an offer of support for employability progression across a holistic set of barriers.

While the Government and LMI focus has emphasised the importance of personalised support from a dedicated adviser, this thesis suggests personalised support may not be as important as setting expectations between two parties and following through on promises. Hence, labour market policies and employability programmes could emphasise the influence of the jobseeker-advisers relationship on the delivery of services and outcomes. Activation policy can move beyond (while not neglecting) the rhetoric of personalised support and highlight the importance of the quality of interaction that occurs in the process of trying to achieve personalisation in practice.

Moreover, the trickle-down effect from activation policy is that LMIs delivering employability programmes will be guided by the same principles, driving the ‘right’ behaviours and ensuring obligations are communicated and understood, while also recognising progression. Hence, progression across a variety of employability variables should be measured and reviewed at regular intervals. If for no better reason than to identify work-first delivery which provides solely transactional support instead of addressing the specific needs of the client.

Activation work is complicated and riddled with political minefields and

constraints at street-level. Advisers are the dominant force in the exchange; however, arguably, they will act out of self-interest while clients are not entering the exchange on a level playing field. Therefore, this social exchange requires careful management. From the clients' first day on an employability programme, there is a psychological contract formed between the jobseekers and advisers which should help convey a clear message of the purpose of the programme, activity levels, and support on offer. The "quality of the initial contact" – i.e. mutuality and perceived reciprocity – can drive future engagement and behaviours of both jobseekers and advisers, which can be enhanced or adversely affected through future interactions. A 'good' adviser will clearly explain obligations and responsibilities to their clients from the offset (Bellis et al., 2011). However, this thesis suggests that understanding the content of psychological contracts from the perspective of both parties is essential for identifying how best to improve mutuality and ensure positive outcomes ensue. Advisers must provide realistic promises to the client at the induction stage, but also agree on the obligations of both parties, reviewed and explicitly renegotiated regularly to ensure psychological contracts are not inadvertently breached. Specifically, intangible relational obligations, such as fair treatment and respect, are expected as a priority from clients and advisers. These items may not be as easy to manage as they are less easy to quantify, and thus needs to be made more tangible, observable and measurable to develop a positive psychological contract and improve relations from the beginning of the relationship.

10.3. OPPORTUNITIES FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

What has emerged from the findings, and indeed the limitations, is a plan for future research. This is the first study to conceptualise the jobseeker-adviser relationship in terms of a social exchange and, specifically, psychological contract; yet some limitations need to be acknowledged.

Overall, the individual differences inherent in both the client and adviser and their subjective assessment of self and other presents a potential bias to accurate ratings. The risk of such bias is reduced by using multi-source data and involving clients and advisers in pre-testing the tool. However, as individual differences such as personality and emotional intelligence are not included in the measure of employability, some caution must be adopted when interpreting the importance of mutuality as a predictor of employment. Psychological contracts are grounded in cognitive schemas, and the cognitive processes – which are both emotional and non-emotional – on the formation of psychological contracts are under-researched (Agarwal, 2017; Coyle-Shapiro, Costa, Doden & Chang, 2019; Farnese et al., 2018; Solomon & Van Coller-Peter, 2019; Tomprou & Nikolaou, 2011). Thus, while these factors are currently under-investigated in the broader psychological contract literature, there are opportunities for future studies which could investigate the roles of personality traits and emotional intelligence as antecedents to, and interactions with, psychological contract formation (Alcover et al., 2017; Keefer, 2015).

Further empirical evidence could be captured around employability,

notwithstanding personality and emotional intelligence addressed above. The Employability Index and the advisers' perception of the jobseekers' proximity to the labour market were useful measures of clients' employability. The latter is often used within provider organisations, it aids advisers' predictions of whether that client will help them hit their target or not, and to baseline and track progression. Interestingly, the latter is also an accurate predictor of future success; however, this requires future research to offer a more robust justification for the findings, specifically those relating to adviser behaviours. Further validation is required to espouse their value.

While the sample was too small to be meaningful in the measurement of psychological contract breach, the findings did not suggest that clients or advisers perceived a great deal of breach. Conversely, they seemed quite satisfied with the quality of the exchange that had taken place over the six months they had worked together. As evaluations of the psychological contract can result in fulfilment or breach, future research should consider both ends of the continuum to investigate whether a positive (or 'fulfilled') psychological contract relates to employment success. Associated measures of the 'state of the contract' could include violation, trust and fairness. Such measures can explain, to some extent, individual differences in response to psychological contract breach.

Limiting the research to a six-months repeated-measures design may have had a solid practical rationale, it may be too short a timeframe for two reasons. First, the DWP measure LMI success as 'sustainable employment', defined as six months in employment (DWP, 2012) and ERSA (2018) report that the longer a jobseeker remains

on the Work Programme, the more likely they are to find employment. Therefore, limiting the study to six months does not allow for any evaluation of employment retention, nor potentially employability progression, instead of focusing on whether a client entered any employment, but not whether they remained in that role. That is a limitation that could, and should, be addressed in future studies. Second, more recent studies have emphasised the importance of a temporal perspective to the study of the psychological contract which pays more attention to the dynamic nature of the evolution of content over time and phases (e.g. creation, maintenance, renegotiation and repair) (Maia et al., 2019; Rousseau, Hansen & Tomprou, 2018). Therefore, there is value in making better use of a longitudinal design, adopting additional stages or conducted over a longer duration, measuring the development and change in obligations across the jobseeker-adviser relationship to understand how specific obligations are formed and evaluated; but also, to better understand the mechanisms of reciprocity and psychological contract breach.

A lack of existent adviser data means the representativeness of this particular sample is unclear. However, gaining access to dyads within the same context and governed by the same delivery model was valuable, as it inherently controlled for structural factors such as processes, milestones and targets. Future research situated in JobCentres or LMIs with different services, governance and corporate structure may offer further support for these findings, whereby any replication of this study's findings in other contexts may allow for broader generalisations to be made. Moreover, while capturing the adviser's perspective makes headway in understanding the jobseeker-adviser exchange underlying their relationship, advisers were not asked about their

psychological contract with their organisation, even though the psychological contract can be a tripartite relationship between the jobseeker (as client), the adviser (as employee), and also the employability programme provider (as employer). This thesis investigated client outcomes without thoroughly exploring the differential treatment that advisers were offered. Understanding the adviser-organisation psychological contract could present compelling findings relating to adviser discretionary behaviour in a 'customer-driven' context. Qualitative methods could also provide insight into the experiences of clients and advisers to fully explain the social exchange which occurs over time (Nichols, 2013; Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998), but also to add credence to the determinants of employment or progression outcomes (Maxwell, 2012), ultimately to understand what works and why.

Furthermore, the interpretations of social exchange are arguably socio-political (Culline & Dundon, 2006), with evaluations of the psychological contract influenced not only by the two parties to the contract but broader ideologies and schemas of how the jobseeker-adviser relationship should work (Dick & Nadin, 2011). The influence of programme governance and political rhetoric around welfare-to-work as a sector is likely to influence evaluations from both parties. Thus, Alcover et al. (2017) recommend extending the dyadic analysis of the psychological contract to a multiple-foci exchange relationships approach, integrating interpersonal, group, and organisational processes related to all stages of the psychological contract – from development to evaluation. Thus, a worthwhile change to the research design would be to adopt a one-with-many (OWM) model of analysis to explore the role that each jobseeker-adviser interaction has on any subsequent adviser interaction with their

other clients (Krasikova & LeBreton, 2012; Petrocchi et al., 2019). For example, recent research conducted within a ‘working alliance’ between homeless adults and social worker found that variance in perceived strength of alliance varied across a social workers caseload (Altena et al., 2017). Therefore, an examination of jobseeker-adviser exchange could go one step further.

Considering an adviser (the one focal point) works with a caseload of clients (the many dyadic parties), it would be unrealistic to assume that each client they saw did not affect how they engaged with the next. To truly understand the context and complexity of social exchange, understanding the non-independent nature of the social exchange between one agent with many actors can provide insight into how similarly (or not) individuals are treated outside a dyad. Thus, a picture of the impact of a jobseeker-adviser psychological contract on employment outcomes is emerging, suggesting that the social exchange between clients and advisers matter to objective employment outcomes.

REFERENCES

- Adam, D., Atfield, G. & Green, A.E. (2017). What works? Policies for employability in cities. *Urban Studies*, 54(5), 1162-1177.
- Agarwal, P. (2017). Role of Personality in the Formation of Psychological Contract. *Global Business Review*, 18(4), 1059-1076.
- Ahlstrom, L., Grimby-Ekman, A., Hagberg, M., & Dellve, L. (2010). The work ability index and single-item question: Associations with sick leave, symptoms, and health. A prospective study of women on long term sick leave. *Scandinavian Journal of Work, Environment and Health*, 36, 404–412.
- Albanesi, S. & Sahin, A. (2018). The gender unemployment gap. *Review of Economic Dynamics*, 30, 47–67.
- Alcover, C-M., Rico, R., Turnley, W.H. & Bolino, M.C. (2017). Understanding the changing nature of psychological contracts in 21st century organizations: A multiple-foci exchange relationships approach and proposed framework. *Organizational Psychology Review*, 7(1), 4–35.
- Aldridge, H., & Hughes, C. (2016). *Informal carers & poverty in the UK: An analysis of the Family Resources Survey*. London: New Policy Institute.
- Altena, A.M., Krabbenborg, M.A.M., Boersma, S.N., Beijersbergen, M.D., van den Berg, Y.H.M., Vollebergh, W.A.M., & Wolf, J.R.L.M. (2017). The working alliance between homeless young adults and workers: a dyadic approach. *Children and Youth Service Review*, 73, 368–374.
- Anderson, N. & Schalk, R. (1998). The psychological contract in retrospect and prospect. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 19(S1), 637–647.
- Andersson, E. (2004). From Valley of Sadness to Hill of Happiness: The Significance of Surroundings for Socioeconomic Career. *Urban Studies*, 41(3), 641-659.
- Appleton-Knapp, S. L. & Krentler, K. A. (2006), Measuring student expectations and their effects on satisfaction: the importance of managing student expectations. *Journal of Marketing Education*, 28(3), 254-264.
- Arain, M., Campbell, M.L., Cooper, C.L. & Lancaster, G.A. (2013). What is a pilot or feasibility study? A review of current practice and editorial policy. *BMC Medical Research Methodology*, 10(67), 1-7.
- Argyris, C. (1960). *Understanding Organizational Behavior*. Homewood, IL: The

Dorsey Press, Inc.

- Arni, P., van Ours, J. C., & Lalive, R. (2013). How Effective Are Unemployment Benefit Sanctions? Looking Beyond Unemployment Exit. *Journal of Applied Econometrics*, 28(7), 1153-1178.
- Ashforth, B. E., Sluss, D. M., & Harrison, S. H. (2007). Socialization in organizational contexts. In Hodgkinson, G.P. & Ford, J.K. (Eds.), *International review of industrial and organizational psychology*. Chichester, UK: John Wiley and Sons.
- Atwater, L.E. & Yammarino, F.J. (1992). Does Self-Other Agreement on Leadership Perceptions Moderate the Validity of Leadership and Performance Predictions? *Personnel Psychology*, 45(1), 141-165.
- Atwater, L.E., & Yammarino, F. J. (1997). Self-other rating agreement: A review and model. In G. R. Ferris (Ed.), *Research in personnel and human resources management*, 15 (p. 121–174). Elsevier Science/JAI Press.
- Avram, S., Brewer, M., Salvatori, A. (2018). Can't work or won't work: Quasi-experimental evidence on work search requirements for single parents. *Labour Economics*, 51, 63-85.
- Bach, S. & Edwards, M. (eds). (2013). *Managing Human Resources*. Malden: Blackwell.
- Baethge, A. & Rigotti, T. (2016). Are You Thinking the Same Way? Similarity and Communication Quality as Predictors of Psychological Contract Breaches in Doctoral Candidate–Supervisor Relationships. *Zeitschrift für Arbeits- und Organisationspsychologie A&O*, 60, 187-198. Retrieved from <https://econtent.hogrefe.com/doi/abs/10.1026/0932-4089/a000222>
- Bal, P.M., Chiaburu, D.S. & Diaz, I. (2011) . Does psychological contract breach decrease proactive behaviours? The moderating effect of emotion regulation. *Group & Organisation Management*, 36(6), 722–758.
- Bal, P.M., De Lange, A.H., Jansen, P.G.W., & Van Der Velde, M.E.G. (2008). Psychological contract breach and job attitudes: A meta-analysis of age as a moderator. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 72(1), 143–158.
- Balogun, A.G. (2017). Emotional intelligence as a moderator between perceived organisational injustice and organisational deviance among public sector employees. *International Journal of Management Practice*, 10(2), 175–178.
- Balogun, A.G, Oluyemi, T.S. & Afolabi, O.A. (2018). Psychological contract breach and workplace deviance: Does emotional intelligence matter?. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, 28(1), 8-14.

- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84(2), 191-215.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The Exercise of Self Control*. New York: W. H. Freeman and Company.
- Barnes, H. & Sissons, P. (2013). Redefining “Fit for work”: welfare reform and the introduction of the employment and support allowance. In Lindsay, C. & Houston, D. (eds). *Disability Benefits, Welfare Reform and Employment Policy*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Baron, J. (1997). Biases in the quantitative measurement of values for public decisions. *Psychological Bulletin*, 122, 72-88.
- Bashir, N., Crisp, R., Gore, T., Reeve, K. & Robinson, D. (2011). *Families and work: Revisiting barriers to employment. Research Report No. 729*. London: DWP.
- Baumberg, B. (2016). The stigma of claiming benefits: A quantitative study. *Journal of Social Policy*, 45(2), 181–199.
- Baussola, M., Mussida, C., Jenkins, J., & Penfold, M. (2015). Determinants of the gender unemployment gap in Italy and the United Kingdom: A comparative investigation. *International Labour Review*, 154(4), 537 – 563.
- Baussola, M. & Mussida, C. (2017). Regional and gender differentials in the persistence of unemployment in Europe. *International Review of Applied Economics*, 31(2), 173–190.
- Beatty, C. & Fothergill, S. (1994). Registered and hidden unemployment in areas of chronic industrial decline: the case of the UK coalfields. In Hardy, S. Lloyd, G. & Cundell, I. (Eds). *Tackling Unemployment and Social Exclusion: Problems for Regions, Solutions for People (pp. 38-48)*. Regional Studies Association, London.
- Beatty, C., Fothergill, S. & MacMillan, R. (2000). A theory of employment, unemployment and sickness. *Regional Studies*, 34(7), 617-630.
- Beatty, C. & Fothergill, S. (2005). The diversion from ‘unemployment’ to ‘sickness’ across British regions and districts. *Regional Studies*, 39(7), 837-854.
- Beatty, C., Fothergill, S., Houston., D., Powell, R., & Sissons, P. (2009). A gendered theory of employment, unemployment, and sickness. *Environment and Planning C: Government and Policy*, 27(6), 958-974.
- Beatty, C., Fothergill, S., Houston., D., Powell, R., & Sissons, P. (2010). Bringing Incapacity Benefit numbers down: to what extent do women need a different approach? *Policy Studies*, 31(2), 143-162.

- Beatty, C., & Fothergill, S. (2013). *Incapacity Benefits in the UK: An Issue of Health or Jobs?* Centre for Regional Economic and Social Research, Sheffield Hallam University: UK. Retrieved from <http://www.social-policy.org.uk/lincoln/Beatty.pdf>
- Beatty, C., & Fothergill, S. (2018). Welfare reform in the UK 2010-16: Expectations, outcomes and local impacts. *Social Policy and Administration*, 52 (5), 950-968.
- Behncke, S., Frolich, M., & Lechner, M. (2010). A caseworker like me – does the similarity between the unemployed and their caseworkers increase job placements? *The Economic Journal*, 120, 1430–1459. doi: 10.1111/j.1468-0297.2010.02382.x
- Behrend, H. (1957). The Effort Bargain. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, 10(4), 503-515.
- Bell, E., Bryman, A., & Harley, B. (2018). *Business research methods*. (5th ed). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bellis, A., Oakley, J., Sigala, M., & Dewson, S. (2011). *Identifying claimants' needs: Research into the Capability of Jobcentre Plus advisers*. Research Paper 43. Institute for Employment Studies (IES) for Department for Business Innovation and Skills.
- Belt, V. & Richardson, R. (2005). Social labour, employability and social exclusion: pre-employment training for call centre work. *Urban Studies*, 42(2), 257-270.
- Berntson, E., Sverke, M. & Marklund, S. (2006). Predicting perceived employability: Human capital or labour market opportunities? *Economic and Industrial Democracy*, 27(2), 223–244.
- Berntson, E., & Marklund, S. (2007). The relationship between perceived employability and subsequent health. *Work and Stress*, 21(3), 279–292.
- Berntson, E., Näswall, K., & Sverke, M. (2008). Investigating the relationship between employability and self-efficacy: A cross-lagged analysis. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 17(4), 413–425.
- Berthoud, R. (2003). *Multiple disadvantage in employment: a quantitative analysis*. York: Joseph Rowntree Foundation.
- Berthoud, R. (2008). Disability employment penalties in Britain. *Work, Employment & Society*, 22(1), 129-148.
- Berthoud, R. (2009). Patterns of non-employment, and of disadvantage, in a recession. *Economic and Labour Market Review*, 3(12), 62–73.

- Berthoud, R. (2011). *Trends in the Employment of Disabled People in Britain*. ISER Working Paper Series 2011-3. University of Essex. Retrieved from <https://www.ukdataservice.ac.uk/media/428526/berthoud>
- Blackmore, J. (2009). Academic pedagogies, quality logics and performative universities: Evaluating teaching and what students want. *Studies in Higher Education, 34*(8), 857–872.
- Blades, R., Fauth, B., & Gibb, J. (2012). *Measuring Employability Skills A rapid review to inform development of tools for project evaluation*. National Children's Bureau: Research Centre.
- Blancero, D. & Johnson, S. A. (1997). *Customer service employees and discretionary service behavior: A psychological contract model*. (CAHRS Working Paper #97-07). Ithaca, NY: Cornell University, School of Industrial and Labor Relations. Retrieved from <http://digitalcommons.ilr.cornell.edu/cahrswp/149>
- Blake, S., Fradd, A., & Stringer, E. (2008). *Lost property: Tackling homelessness in the UK*. New Philanthropy Capital.
- Blau P.M. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. New York: Wiley.
- Böckerman, P. & Ilmakunnas, P. (2009). Unemployment and self-assessed health: evidence from panel data. *Health Economics, 18*(2), 161-179.
- Bolhaar, J., Ketel, N., & van der Klaauw, B. (2020). Caseworker's discretion and the effectiveness of welfare-to-work programs. *Journal of Public Economics, 183*, 1-19.
- Bordia, S., Bordia, P. & Restubog, S.L.D. (2015). Promises from afar: a model of international student psychological contract in business education. *Studies in Higher Education, 40*(2), 212-232.
- Bordia, S. Hobman, E.V., Restubog, S.L.D., & Bordia, P. (2010a). Advisor–Student Relationship in Business Education Project Collaborations: A Psychological Contract Perspective. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 40*(9), 2360-2386.
- Bordia, P., Restubog, S.D., Bordia, S., & Tang, R.L. (2010b). Breach begets breach: trickle-down effects of psychological contract breach on customer service. *Journal of Management, 36*(6), 1578–1607.
- Bordia, P., Restubog, S.D., Bordia, S., & Tang, R.L. (2017). Effects of Resource Availability on Social Exchange Relationships: The Case of Employee Psychological Contract Obligations. *Journal of Management, 43*(5), 1447–1471.
- Bordia, P., Restubog, S.L. & Tang, R.L. (2008). When employees strike back: Investigating mediating mechanisms between psychological contract breach and

- workplace deviance. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(5), 1104–1117.
- Borghini, V. & Van Berckel, R. (2007). New modes of governance in Italy and the Netherlands: the case of activation policies. *Public Administration*, 85(1), 83–101.
- Borland, J. (2014). Dealing with unemployment: what should be the role of labour market programs? *Evidence Base*, 4(1), 1–21.
- Boss, R. W. (1985). *The psychological contract: A key to effective organization development consultation*. *Consultation: An International Journal*, 4(4), 284–304.
- Bouffard, T. & Narciss, S. (2011). Benefits and risks of positive biases in self-evaluation of academic competence: Introduction. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 50, 205–208.
- Bowling, A. (2005). Mode of questionnaire administration can have serious effects on data quality. *Journal of Public Health*, 27(3), 281–291.
- Brady, M. (2018). Targeting single mothers? Dynamics of contracting Australian employment services and activation policies at the street level. *Journal of Social Policy*, 27(4), 827–845.
- Bratton, V.K., Dodd, N.G. & Brown, F.W. (2011). The impact of emotional intelligence on accuracy of self-awareness and leadership performance. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 32(2), 127–149.
- Bredgaard, T., & Larsen, F. (2008). Quasi-Markets in Employment Policy: Do They Deliver on Promises? *Social Policy and Society*, 7(3), 341–352.
- Bredgaard, T. (2015). Evaluating what works for whom in active labour market policies', *European Journal of Social Security*, 17(4), 436–52
- Breen, L.J., & Darlaston-Jones, D. (2010). Moving beyond the enduring dominance of positivism in psychological research: Implications for psychology in Australia. *Australian Psychologist*, 45(1), 67–76.
- Bretherton, J. & Pleace, N. (2019). Is Work an Answer to Homelessness? Evaluating an Employment Programme for Homeless Adults. *European Journal of Homelessness*, 13(1), 57–81.
- Brewer, M., Cattan, S., Crawford, C., & Rabe, B. (2016). *Does free childcare help parents work?* London: The Institute for Fiscal Studies.
- Brown, A. (2014). Critical realism in social research: approach with caution. *Work, Employment and Society*, 28(1), 112–123.

- Brown, A., Bimrose, J., Barnes, S.A., Kirpal, S., Grønning, T., & Dæhlen, M. (2010). *Changing patterns of working, learning and career development across Europe*. Coventry: Institute for Employment Research, University of Warwick.
- Brown, T. A. (2015). *Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Applied Research (2nd ed.)*. New York, NY: Guilford Publications.
- Bryman, A. (2012). *Social Research Methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bryman, B. & Bell, E. (2011). *Business Research Methods (3rd ed.)*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bunderson, J.S. (2001). How work ideologies shape the psychological contracts of professional employees: Doctors' responses to perceived breach. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 22(7), 717–741.
- Burgess, S., Propper, C., Ratto, M., & Tominey, E. (2017). Incentives in the public sector: evidence from a government agency. *The Economic Journal*, 127(605), F117–F141.
- Bynner, J. (2002). *Literacy, Numeracy and Employability*. Adult Literacy and Numeracy Australian Research Consortium (ALNARC). Queensland Centre. Retrieved from <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED473579>
- Campbell M. (2000). Reconnecting the Long Term Unemployed to Labour Market Opportunity: The Case for a Local Active Labour Market Policy. *Regional Studies*, 34(7), 655-668.
- Canduela, J., Lindsay, C., Raeside, R., & Graham, H. (2015). Employability, Poverty and the Spheres of Sociability - Evidence from the British Household Panel Survey. *Social Policy and Administration*, 49(5), 571–592.
- Card, D., Kluve, J., & Weber A. (2010). Active Labour Market Policy Evaluations: A Meta-Analysis, *Economic Journal*, 120(548), F452-77.
- Card, D., Kluve, J., & Weber, A. (2018). What works? A meta-analysis of recent active labor market program evaluations. *Journal of the European Economic Association*. *Journal of the European Economic Association*, 16(3), 894–931
- Carifio, J., & Perla, R. J. (2007). Ten common misunderstandings, misconceptions, persistent myths and urban legends about Likert scales and Likert response formats and their antidotes. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 3(3), 106-116.
- Carr, S. (2010). *Personalisation, Productivity and Efficiency*. Adults' Services SCIE Report 37. London: Social Care Institute for Excellence.
- Ceolta-Smith, J., Salway, S. & Tod, A. (2015). A Review of Health-related Support Provision within the UK Work Programme – What's on the Menu? *Social*

Policy and Administration, 49(2), 254–276.

- Ceolta-Smith, J., Salway, S.M. & Tod, A.M. (2018). Experiences from the frontline: an exploration of Personal Advisers' practice with claimants who have health-related needs within UK welfare-to-work provision. *Health and Social Care in the Community*. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.1111/hsc.12579>
- Chartered Institute of Personnel & Development (CIPD). (2018). *Factsheet: the psychological contract*. Retrieved from <https://www.cipd.co.uk/knowledge/fundamentals/relations/employees/psychological-factsheet>
- Chatterjee, S. & Simonoff, J.S. (2013). *Handbook of Regression Analysis*. London: John Wiley & Sons.
- Chaudhry, A., & Song, L. J. (2014). Rethinking Psychological Contracts in the Context of Organizational Change: The Moderating Role of Social Comparison and Social Exchange. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 50(3), 337–363.
- Chertkovskaya, E., Watt, P., Tramer, S., & Spoelstra, S. (2013). Giving notice to employability. *Ephemera: theory and politic*, 13(4), 701-716.
- Cheung, S.Y., & McKay, S. (2010). *Training and progression in the labour market*. Research Report No 680. London: DWP.
- Clarke, M. (2007). Where to from here? Evaluating employability during career transition. *Journal of Management and Organization*, 13(3), 196-211.
- Clarke, M., & Patrickson, M. (2008). The new covenant of employability. *Employee Relations*, 30(2), 121–141.
- Clayton, N. & Brinkley, I. (2011). *Welfare to What? Prospects and challenges for employment recovery*. London: The Work Foundation.
- Cole, M. (2008). Sociology contra government? The contest for the meaning of unemployment in UK policy debates. *Work, Employment and Society*, 22(1), 27–43.
- Coleman, N., & Parry, F. (2011). *Opening up work for all: The role of assessment in the Work Programme*. London: Centre for Economic and Social Inclusion.
- Conway, N. & Briner, R.B. (2005). *Understanding Psychological Contracts at Work: A critical evaluation of theory and research*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Conway, N. & Briner, R.B. (2009). Fifty years of psychological contract research: what do we know and what are the main challenges?. *International Review of*

Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 21, 71–131.

- Conway, N., Guest, D., & Trenberth, L. (2011). Testing the differential effects of changes in psychological contract breach and fulfillment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 79(1), 267–276.
- Considine, M., Lewis, J. M., O’Sullivan, S. & Sol, E. (2015). *Getting Welfare to Work: Street-Level Governance in Australia, the UK, and the Netherlands*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Considine, M., O’Sullivan, S., & Nguyen, P. (2018a). The Policymaker’s Dilemma: The Risks and Benefits of a ‘Black Box’ Approach to Commissioning Active Labour Market Programmes. *Social Policy and Administration*, 52(1), 229–251.
- Considine, M., Nguyen, P., & O’Sullivan, S. (2018b). New public management and the rule of economic incentives: Australian welfare-to-work from job market signalling perspective, *Public Management Review*, 20(8), 1186-1204.
- Cory, G. (2012). *Unfinished Business: Barriers and opportunities for older workers*. London: Resolution Foundation.
- Coyle-Shapiro, J. (2001). *Managers: caught in the middle of a psychological contract muddle*. In: Annual meeting of the Academy of Management, August 2001, Washington DC. London: LSE Research Online. Retrieved from <http://eprints.lse.ac.uk/2815/>
- Coyle-Shapiro, J. & Conway, N. (2005). Exchange relationships: Examining psychological contracts and perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(4), 774–781.
- Coyle-Shapiro, J.M., Costa, S.P., Doden, W. & Chang, C. (2019). Psychological Contracts: Past, Present, and Future. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 6, 145-169.
- Coyle-Shapiro, J., & Shore, L. (2007). The employee–organization relationship: Where do we go from here? *Human Resource Management Review*, 17(2), 166-179.
- Coyle-Shapiro, J. & Kessler, I. (2000). Consequences of the psychological contract for the employment relationship: a large-scale survey. *Journal of Management Studies*, 37(7), 903–930.
- Coyle-Shapiro, J. & Kessler, I. (2002a). Contingent and non-contingent working in local government: contrasting psychological contracts. *Public Administration*, 80(1), 77–101.
- Coyle-Shapiro, J. & Kessler, I. (2002b). Reciprocity through the lens of the psychological contract: employee and employer perspectives. *European*

Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 11(1), 69–86.

- Coyle-Shapiro, J. A. & Kessler, I. (2003). The employment relationship in the UK public sector: a psychological contract perspective. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 13(2), 213–230.
- Conway, N., & Coyle-Shapiro, J. A. (2012). The reciprocal relationship between psychological contract fulfilment and employee performance and the moderating role of perceived organizational support and tenure. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 85(2), 277-299.
- Corrigan, P., Markowitz, F., Watson, A., Rowan, D., & Kubiak, M.A. (2003). An attribution model of public discrimination towards persons with mental illness. *Journal of Health Behavior*, 44(2), 162–179.
- Countouris, N., Deakin, S., Freedland, M., Koukiadaki, A. & Prassl, J. (2016). *Report on temporary employment agencies and temporary agency work: A comparative analysis of the law on temporary work agencies and the social and economic implications of temporary work in 13 European countries*. Geneva: International Labour Office. Retrieved from http://ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_dialogue/---ed_dialogue_msu/documents/publication/wcms_541655.pdf
- Crabbe, T. (2006). *'Going the Distance': impact, journeys and distance travelled – third interim National Positive Futures case study research report*. London: Home Office. <http://drugs.homeoffice.gov.uk/young-people/positive-futures/publications>
- Creed, P.A., Bloxsome, T.D., & Johnston, K. (2001). Self-esteem and self-efficacy outcomes for unemployed individuals attending occupational skills training programs. *Community, Work and Family*, 4(3), 285-303.
- Creed, P.A., King, V., Hood, M., & McKenzie, R. (2009). Goal orientation, self-regulation strategies, and job-seeking intensity in unemployed adults. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(3), 806–813.
- Creed, P.A, Patton, W., & Prideaux, L.A. (2006). Causal Relationship Between Career Indecision and Career Decision-Making Self-Efficacy: A Longitudinal Cross-Lagged Analysis. *Journal of Career Development*, 33(1), 47–65.
- Creed, P. & Watson, T. (2003). Age, gender, psychological wellbeing and the impact of losing the latent and manifest benefits of employment in unemployed people. *Australian Journal of Psychology*, 55(2), 95-103
- Cribb, A. & Owens, J. (2010). Whatever suits you: unpicking personalization for the NHS. *Journal of Evaluation in Clinical Practice*, 16, 310–14.
- Crisp, R., Batty, E., Cole, I., & Robinson, D. (2009). *Work and worklessness in*

deprived neighbourhoods. York: Joseph Rowntree Foundation.

- Crisp, R. & Powell, R. (2017). Young people and UK labour market policy: A critique of 'employability' as a tool for understanding youth unemployment. *Urban Studies*, 54(8), 1784-1807.
- Crisp, R., Ferrari, E., Gore, T., Green, S., McCarthy, L., Rae, A., Reeve, K. & Stevens, M. (2018). *Tackling transport-related barriers to employment in low-income neighbourhoods*. York: Joseph Rowntree Foundation.
- Cropanzano, R. & Mitchell, M.S. (2005). Social Exchange Theory: An Interdisciplinary Review. *Journal of Management*, 31(6), 874-900.
- Cullinane, N. & Dundon, T. (2006). The psychological contract: A critical review. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 8(2), 113–129.
- Cutrona, C.E. & Russell, D.W. (1987). The provisions of social relationships and adaptation to stress. *Advances in Personal Relationships*, 1, 37-67.
- Dacre-Pool, L. D., & Sewell, P. (2007). The key to employability: developing a practical model of graduate employability. *Education and Training*, 49(4), 277-289.
- Dabos, G.E. & Rousseau, D.M. (2004). Mutuality and Reciprocity in the Psychological Contracts of Employees and Employers. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(1), 52–72.
- Dabos, G.E. & Rousseau, D.M. (2013). Psychological contracts and informal networks in organizations: the effects of social status and local ties. *Human Resource Management*, 52(4), 485–510.
- Daguerre A. & Etherington D. (2009). *Active labour market policies in international context: what works best? Lessons for the UK*. Department for Work and Pensions Working Paper 59. Norwich: HMSO. Retrieved from <https://www.researchonline.org.uk/sds/search/download.do?ref=B12013>
- Daguerre A. & Etherington D. (2019). *Welfare and active labour market policies in the UK: the coalition government approach*. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/334041630_Welfare_and_active_labour_market_policies_in_the_UK_the_coalition_government_approach
- Dahiru, T. (2008). P-value, a true test of statistical significance? A cautionary note. *Annals of Ibadan postgraduate medicine*, 6(1), 21–26.
- Dall, T. & Danneris, S. (2019). Reconsidering 'What Works' in Welfare-to-Work with the Vulnerable Unemployed: The Potential of Relational Causality as an Alternative Approach. *Social Policy & Society*, 18(4), 583–596. doi: 10.1017/S1474746419000186

- Dall, T. (2020). Social work professionals' management of institutional and professional responsibilities at the micro-level of welfare-to-work. *European Journal of Social Work*, 23(1), 30-42. doi: 10.1080/13691457.2018.1476330
- Danneris, S. (2018). Ready to work (yet)? Unemployment trajectories among vulnerable welfare recipients. *Qualitative Social Work*, 17(3), 355-372.
- Danson, M., & Gilmore, K. (2009). Evidence on employer attitudes and equal opportunities for the disadvantaged in a flexible and open economy. *Environment and Planning C: Government and Policy*, 27(6), 991-1007.
- Dar, A. (2016). *Work Programme: background and statistics. Report Number 6340*. London: House of Commons Library.
- De Bruin, A. & Dupuis, A. (2008). Making employability work. *Journal of Interdisciplinary Economics*, 19(4), 399-419.
- De Cuyper, N., Mauno, S., Kinnunen, U., & Mäkikangas, A. (2011). The role of job resources in the relation between perceived employability and turnover intention: A prospective two-sample study. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 78(2), 253-263.
- De Grip, A., van Loo, J. & Sanders, J. (2004). The Industry Employability Index: Taking account of supply and demand characteristics. *International Labour Review*, 143(3), 211-233.
- De Jong, J., Clinton, M., Rigotti, T., & Bernhard-Oettel, C. (2015). Nonlinear Associations between Breached Obligations and Employee Well-being. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 30(4), 374-399.
- De Witte, H. (2000). Arbeidsethos en jobonzekerheid: meting en gevolgen voor welzijn, tevredenheid en inzet op het werk (Work ethic and job insecurity: Measurement and consequences for well-being, satisfaction and performance). In R. Bouwen, K. De Witte, H. De Witte, & T. Taillieu (Eds.), *Van groep naar gemeenschap* (pp. 325-350). Liber Amicorum.
- Dench, S., Hillage, J., & Coare, P. (2006). *The impact of learning on unemployed, low-qualified adults: A systematic review*. Research Report No 375. London: DWP.
- DfEE (Department for Education and Employment). (1998). *Learning and Working Together for the Future: A Strategic Framework to 2002*. London: DfEE.
- DWP (Department for Work and Pensions). (2008). *Raising expectations and increasing support: reforming welfare for the future*. London: DWP.
- DWP (Department for Work and Pensions). (2010). *Universal Credit: welfare that works*. London: DWP.

- DWP (Department for Work and Pensions). (2011). *Work Programme: Equality Impact Assessment*. London: DWP.
- DWP (Department for Work and Pensions). (2012). *The Work Programme*. London: DWP.
- DWP (Department for Work and Pensions). (2014). *Work Programme evaluation: Operation of the commissioning model, finance and programme delivery. Research Report No 893*. London: DWP.
- DWP (Department for Work and Pensions). (2016a). *Quarterly Work Programme National Statistics to Mar 2016*. Retrieved from <https://www.gov.uk/government/statistics/work-programme-statistical-summary-data-to-31-march-2016>
- DWP (Department for Work and Pensions). (2016b). *The Work Programme: factors associated with differences in the relative effectiveness of prime providers. DWP ad hoc research report no. 26*. Retrieved from https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/542084/ad-hoc-report-26-work-programme-relative-effectiveness-of-prime-providers.pdf
- DWP (Department for Work and Pensions). (2016c). *Supervised Jobsearch Pilots trial evaluation. Research Report No 928*. London: DWP.
- DWP (Department for Work and Pensions). (2017). *National Statistics: Work Programme statistical summary: data to December 2016*. Retrieved from <https://www.gov.uk/government/statistics/work-programme-statistical-summary-data-to-december-2016>
- DWP (Department for Work and Pensions). (2018). *Official Statistics: Lone parents receiving JSA: monthly claimant count*. Retrieved from <https://www.gov.uk/government/statistics/lone-parents-receiving-jsa-monthly-claimant-count>
- DWP (Department for Work and Pensions). (2019). *Universal Credit and your claimant commitment*. Retrieved from <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/universal-credit-and-your-claimant-commitment-quick-guide/universal-credit-and-your-claimant-commitment>
- De Ruiter, M., Schalk, R., & Blomme, R.J. (2016). Manager Responses to Employee Dissent About Psychological Contract Breach: A Dyadic Process Approach. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 30(3), 188-217.
- Development Economics. (2015). *The value of soft skills to the UK economy: A report prepared on behalf of McDonald's UK*. Retrieved from

<https://pacelearning.com/wp-content/uploads/2017/10/The-Value-of-Soft-Skills-to-the-UK-Economy.pdf>

- DeVellis, R. F. (2003). *Scale development: Theory and applications (2nd Edition)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Devins, D., Bickerstaffe, T., Nunn, A., Mitchell, B., McQuaid, R., Egdell, V., and Lindsay, C. (2011). *The Role of Skills from Worklessness to Sustainable Employment with Progression*. UK Commission for Employment and Skills: Evidence Report 38.
- Devins, D. & Hogarth, T. (2005). Employing the Unemployed: Some Case Study Evidence on the Role and Practice of Employers. *Urban Studies*, 42(2), 245-256.
- De Vos, A. & Buyens, D. (2001). *Managing the psychological contract or graduate recruits: A challenge for human resource management*. Working paper No. 2001/100. Gent University.
- De Vos, A., Buyens, D. & Schalk, R. (2003) Psychological contract development during organizational socialization: Adaptation to reality and the role of reciprocity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24(5), 537–599.
- De Waele, E. & Hustinx, L. (2019). Governing Through Volunteering: The Discursive Field of Government-Initiated Volunteering in the Form of Workfare Volunteering. *Nonprofit And Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 48(2), 72-102.
- Dewson, S., Eccles, J., Tackey, N.D. & Jackson, A. (2000). *Guide to measuring soft outcomes and distance travelled*. Brighton: Institute of Employment Studies (IES).
- Diamantopoulos, A., Sarstedt, M., Fuchs, C., Wilczynski, P., & Kaiser, S. (2012). Guidelines for choosing between multi-item and single-item scales for construct measurement: A predictive validity perspective. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 40(3), 434–449.
- Dick, P. & Nadin, S. (2011). Exploiting the exploited: The psychological contract, workplace domination and symbolic violence. *Culture and Organization*, 17(4), 293-311.
- Dickens, S., Mowlam, A. & Woodfield, K. (2004). *Incapacity Benefit Reforms - the Personal Adviser Role and Practices*. London: National Centre for Social Research. Retrieved from <http://www.psi.org.uk/pdf/2004/report212.pdf>
- Dickerson, A. & Vignoles, A. (2007). *The Distribution and Returns to Qualifications in the Sector Skills Councils*. *SSDA Research Report No.21* Wath-upon-Deerne: Sector Skills Development Agency.

- Dickinson, H. O., Hrisos, S., Eccles, M. P., Francis, J., & Johnston, M. (2010). Statistical considerations in a systematic review of proxy measures of clinical behaviour. *Implementation Science, IS, 5*(20), 1-8.
- Dormann, C. & Griffin, M.A. (2015). Optimal time lags in panel studies. *Psychological Methods, 20*(4), 489-505.
- Dries, N., Forrier, A., de Vos, A., & Pepermans, R. (2014). Self-perceived employability, organization-rated potential, and the psychological contract. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 29*, 565-581.
- Duckworth, S. & Sotiropoulos, A. (2012). *Integrated Commissioning for Open Public Services: Building a better model for the delivery of social value through diverse networks of local providers*. Shrivenham: The Serco Institute.
- Dudley, C., McEnhill, L., & Steadman, K. (2016). *Is welfare to work , working well ? Improving employment rates for people with disabilities and long-term conditions*. Lancaster: The Work Foundation.
- Dulac T., Coyle-Shapiro J., Henderson D., & Wayne S. (2008). Not all responses to breach are the same: interconnection of social exchange and psychological contract processes in organizations. *Academy of Management, 51*, 1079–1098.
- Dunning, D., Heath, C., & Suls, J. M. (2004). Flawed self-assessment: Implications for health, education, and the workplace. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest, 5*, 69-106.
- Dwyer, P., & Wright, S. (2014). Universal credit, ubiquitous conditionality and its implications for social citizenship. *Journal of Poverty and Social Justice, 22*(1), 27-35.
- Eckerd, S., Hill, J., Boyer, K.K., Donohue, K. & Ward, P.T. (2013). The relative impact of attribute, severity, and timing of psychological contract breach on behavioral and attitudinal outcomes. *Journal of Operations Management, 31*(7-8), 567-578.
- Elias, P., Hogarth, T., & Pierre, G. (2002). *The wider benefits of education and training : a comparative longitudinal study*. Research Report No. 178. Coventry: Warwick Institute for Employment Research.
- Ellis Paine, A., McKay, S., & Moro, D. (2013). Does Volunteering Improve Employability? Insights from the British Household Panel Survey and Beyond. *Voluntary Sector Review, 4*(3), 335-376.
- Employment Related Services Association (ERSA). (2015). *Work Programme Performance Report (June, 2015)*. London: ERSA. Retrieved from <http://ersa.org.uk/documents/work-programme-performance-report-june-2015>

- Employment Related Services Association (ERSA). (2016). *Work Programme Performance Report: September 2016*. Retrieved from <http://ersa.org.uk/documents/work-programme-performance-report-sept-2016>
- Employment Related Services Association (ERSA). (2017). *Employment Support in the UK: Key statistics briefing, March 2017*. Retrieved from <http://www.ersa.org.uk/media/news/ersa-responds-latest-labour-market-statistics-march-may-2017>
- Employment Related Services Association (ERSA). (2018). *Work Programme Performance Report March 2018*. London: ERSA. Retrieved from <http://ersa.org.uk/documents/work-programme-performance-report-march-2018>
- Employment Related Services Association (ERSA). (2019). *About the Sector*. Retrieved from <https://ersa.org.uk/media/industry>
- European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (CEDEFOP) (ed). (2009). Terminology of European Education and Training Policy: A Selection of 100 Key Terms. *European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training: Luxembourg*. Retrieved from http://www.cedefop.europa.eu/EN/Files/4064_en.pdf
- European Commission. (2015). *Employment and Social Developments in Europe 2015*. Brussels: European Commission.
- Evans, M.E. (2001). Britain: moving towards a work and opportunity-focused welfare state. *International Journal of Social Welfare*, 10(4), 260-266.
- Evans, M. & Williams, L. (2009), *A Generation of Change, a Lifetime of Difference? British Social Policy since 1979*. Bristol: Policy Press.
- Evison, I. & Roe, N. (2009). *Funding communities, adding value: Community development approaches to grant giving*. London: Community Development Fund. Retrieved from: <https://www.bl.uk/collection-items/funding-communities-adding-value-community-development-approaches-to-grant-giving>
- Eckerd, S., Hill, J., Boyer, K.K., Donohue, K., & Ward, P.T. (2013) .The relative impact of attribute, severity, and timing of psychological contract breach on behavioral and attitudinal outcomes. *Journal of Operations Management*, 31(7-8), 567-578.
- Farnese, M.L., Livi, S., Barbieri, B. & Schalk, R. (2018). “You Can See How Things Will End by the Way They Begin”: The Contribution of Early Mutual Obligations for the Development of the Psychological Contract. *Front Psychol*, 9(543), 1-12. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2018.00543

- Farrington, J. & Farrington, C. (2005). Rural accessibility, social inclusion and social justice: Towards conceptualisation. *Journal of Transport Geography*, (13), 1-12.
- Finn, D. (2016). *The Organisation and Regulation of the Public Employment Service and of Private Employment and Temporary Work Agencies: The Experience of Selected European Countries – the Netherlands, Denmark, Germany and the United Kingdom*. Policy Research Report. London: Learning and Work Institute.
- Fletcher, D.R. (2009). Social Tenants, Attachment to Place and Work in the Post-industrial Labour Market: Underlining the Limits of Housing-based Explanations of Labour Immobility? *Housing Studies*, 24(6), 775-791. doi: 10.1080/02673030903205895
- Fletcher, D. R. (2011). Welfare Reform, Jobcentre Plus and the Street-Level Bureaucracy: Towards Inconsistent and Discriminatory Welfare for Severely Disadvantaged Groups? *Social Policy and Society*, 10(04), 445–458.
- Forrier, A., & Sels, L. (2003). The concept employability: A complex mosaic. *International Journal of Human Resources Development and Management*, 3, 102–124.
- Forrier, A., Verurrgen, M. & De Cuyper, N. (2015). Integrating different notions of employability in a dynamic chain: The relationship between job transitions, movement capital and perceived employability. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 89, 56-64.
- Forrier, A., De Cuyper, N., & Akkermans, J. (2018). The winner takes it all, the loser has to fall: provoking the agency perspective in employability research. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 28, 511–523. doi: 10.1111/1748-8583.12206
- Fransen, K., Boussauw, K., Deruyter, G., & De Maeyer, P. (2019). The relationship between transport disadvantage and employability: Predicting long-term unemployment based on job seekers' access to suitable job openings in Flanders, Belgium. *Transportation Research, Part A*(125), 268–279.
- Freese, C., & Schalk, R. (2008). How to measure the psychological contract? A critical criteria-based review of measures. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 38(2), 269–286.
- Freud, D. (2007). *Reducing Dependency, Increasing Opportunity: Options for the Future of Welfare to Work*. London: DWP.
- Freund, P. A., & Kasten, N. (2012). How smart do you think you are? A meta-analysis on the validity of self-estimates of cognitive ability. *Psychological Bulletin*, 138, 296-321.

- Foster, S., Colechin, J., Bivand, P., & Foster, R. (2014). *Employment support for unemployed older people*. London: Centre for Economic and Social Inclusion and Age UK.
- Fryer, K., Antony, J. & Ogden, S. (2009). Performance management in the public sector. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 22(6), 478-498.
- Fuchs, C. & Diamantopoulos, A. (2009). Using single-item measures for construct measurement in management research: Conceptual issues and application guidelines. *DBW*, 69(2), 195-210
- Fuertes, V. & Lindsay, C. (2015). Personalisation and street-level practice in activation: the case of the UK's Work Programme. *Public Administration*, 94(2), 526-41.
- Fugate, M., Kinicki, A. & Ashforth, B. (2004). Employability: a psycho-social construct, its dimensions, and applications. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 65(1), 14-38.
- Garthwaite, K., Bambra, C., & Warren, J. (2013). "The unwilling and the unwell"? Exploring stakeholders' perceptions of working with long term sickness benefits recipients. *Disability and society*, 28, 1104-1117.
- Gazier B. (1998). *Employability: Concepts and Policies*. Berlin: European Employment Observatory.
- Gazier, B. (2001). Employability: the complexity of a policy notion. In Weinert, P., Baukens, M., Bollerot, P., Pineschi-Gapenne, M. & Walwei, U. (eds.) *Employability: from theory to practice (pp.2-23)*. New Brunswick: Transaction.
- Genov, N. (2014). Upgrading Employability of Unemployed as Constructive Individualization. *Comparative Sociology*, 13, 162-184.
- George, A., Metcalf, H., Tufekci, L., & Wilkinson, D. (2015). *Understanding Age and the Labour Market*. York: Joseph Rowntree Foundation.
- Gore, T. (2005). Extending Employability or Solving Employers' Recruitment Problems? Demand-led Approaches as an Instrument of Labour Market Policy. *Urban Studies*, 42(2), 341-353. doi: 10.1080/0042098042000316182
- Gouldner, A. W. (1960). The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement. *American Sociological Review*, 25, 161-178.
- Gowan, M. A., Riordan, C. M., & Gatewood, R. D. (1999). Test of a model of coping with involuntary job loss following a company closing. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84(1), 75-86.
- Graham, H. & McQuaid, R. (2014). *Exploring the impacts of the UK government's*

welfare reforms on lone parents moving into work. Glasgow: Glasgow Centre for Population Health.

Green, A. E. (1994). *The Geography of Poverty and Wealth*. University of Warwick, Coventry: IER.

Green, A.E. (2017). Implications of technological change and austerity for employability in urban labour markets. *Urban Studies*, 54(7), 1638-1654.

Green, A.E. & Owen, D. (2006). *The geography of poor skills and access to work*. York: Joseph Rowntree Foundation.

Green, A.E. & White, R. (2007). *Attachment to Place: Social Networks, Mobility and Prospects of Young People*. York: Joseph Rowntree Foundation.

Green, A.E. & Shuttleworth, I. (2010). Local differences, perceptions and Incapacity Benefit claimants: implications for policy delivery. *Policy Studies*, 31(2), 223-243. doi:10.1080/01442870903429652

Green, A.E., De Hoyos, M., Li, Y., & Owen, D. (2011). *Job Search: Literature review and analysis of the Labour Force Survey*. Department for Work and Pensions Research Report 726. Leeds: Corporate Document Services. Retrieved from <http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20130125101406/http://research.dwp.gov.uk/asd/asd5/rports2011-2012/rrep726.pdf>

Green, A.E., de Hoyos, M., Barnes, S-A., Owen, D., Baldauf, B. & Behle, H. (2013). *Literature Review on Employability, Inclusion and ICT, Report 1: The Concept of Employability, with a Specific Focus on Young People, Older Workers and Migrants*. Joint Research Centre Technical Report (EUR 25794 EN), Institute for Prospective Technological Studies, Joint Research Centre, European Commission. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union.

Greer, I., Schulte, L., & Symon, G. (2018). Creaming and parking in marketized employment services: An Anglo-German comparison. *Human Relations*, 71(1), 1427-1453.

Gregg, P. (2008). *Realising Potential: A Vision for Personalised Conditionality and Support - an independent report to the Department for Work and Pensions*. London: DWP.

Griffiths, R. & Durkin, S. (2007). *Synthesising the evidence on Employment Zones*. Research Report No 449. London: DWP.

Grugulis, I., & Vincent, S. (2004). Changing Boundaries, Shaping Skills: The Fragmented Organizational Form and Employee Skills. In Marchington, M., Grimshaw, D., Rubery, J., & Wilmott, H. (eds) *Fragmenting Work: Blurring Organizational Boundaries and Disordering Hierarchies*, Oxford: Oxford

University Press.

- Grugulis, I., & Vincent, S. (2009). Whose skill is it anyway?: 'Soft' skills and polarization. *Work, Employment and Society*, 23(4), 597–615.
- Guest, D. (1998a). Is the psychological contract worth taking seriously? *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 19(S1), 649–664.
- Guest, D. (1998b). On Meaning, Metaphor and the Psychological Contract: A Response to Rousseau. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 19(S1), 673-677.
- Guest, D. (2004). The psychology of the employment relationship: an analysis based on the psychological contract. *Applied Psychology*, 53(4), 541–555.
- Guest, D. & Conway, N. (2002). Communicating the psychological contract: an employer perspective. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 12(2), 22–38.
- Hagelund, A. (2016). The activating profession: coaching and coercing in the welfare services. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 29(7), 725-739. doi: 10.1108/IJPSM-02-2016-0036.
- Haggard, D.L. & Turban, D.B. (2012). The Mentoring Relationship as a Context for Psychological Contract Development. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 42(8), 1904–1931.
- Hair, J.F. Jr., Black, W.C., Babin, B., Anderson, R.E., & Tatham, R.L. (2006). *Multivariate Data Analysis (6th ed)*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Hallier, J. & James, S. (1997). Middle managers and the employee psychological contract: agency, protection and advancement. *Journal of Management Studies*, 34(5), 703-728.
- Hannah, D., Treen, E., Pitt, L. & Berthon, P. (2016). But you promised! Managing consumers' psychological contracts. *Business Horizons*, 59, 363-368.
- Halvorsen, K. (1998). Impact of re-employment on psychological distress among long-term unemployed. *Acta Sociologica*, 41(2-3), 227 – 242.
- Hart, O., Shleifer, A., & Vishny, R.W. (1997). The Proper Scope of Government: Theory and an Application to Prisons. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 112(4), 1127–1161. doi:10.1162/003355300555448.
- Harvey, L. (2001). Defining and measuring employability. *Quality in Higher Education*, 7(2), 97–110.
- Harvey, M. W., Bauserman, A. D., & Bollinger, B. E. (2012). Pilot Test of an Employability Skills Rubric: A Component of the Summary of Performance

- Report. *Career Development and Transition for Exceptional Individuals*, 35(2), 118–128.
- Hasluck, C. & Green, A.E. (2007). *What works for whom? A review of evidence and meta-analysis for the Department for Work and Pensions*. Department for Work and Pensions Research Report 407. Leeds: Corporate Data Services. Retrieved from <http://sid.usal.es/idos/F8/FDO20341/rep407.pdf>
- Haughton, G., Jones, M., Peck, J., Tickell, A., & While, A. (2000). Labour market policy as flexible welfare: Prototype employment zones and the new workfarism. *Regional Studies*, 34(7), 669-680.
- Heap, D. (2016). Sanction-free Scotland: The case for voluntary employability programmes. A report for the Green MSPs. Retrieved from <https://greens.scot/sites/default/files/Policy/Sanctions%20Report%20for%20Scottish%20Green%20MSPs.pdf>
- Hepburn, J. (2018). *Fair Start Scotland*. Speech/Statement delivered Minister for Employability and Training. Edinburgh: Scottish Parliament. Retrieved from <https://www.gov.scot/publications/fair-start-scotland/>
- Herriot, P., Manning, W. & Kidd, J. (1997). The content of the psychological contract. *British Journal of Management*, 8(2), 151-62. doi: 10.1111/1467-8551.0047
- Herriot, P. & Pemberton, C. (1997). Facilitating new deals. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 7(1), 45–56.
- Highhouse, S., Becker, A.S. (1993). Facet measures and global job satisfaction. *Journal of Business Psychology*, 8, 117–127.
- Hillage, J. & Pollard, E. (1998). *Employability: Developing a framework for policy analysis*. London: DfEE.
- Hiltrop, J.M. (1995). The Changing Psychological Contract: The Human Resource Challenge of the 1990s. *European Management Journal*, 13(3), 286-294.
- Hiltrop, J.M. (1996). Managing the changing psychological contract. *Employee Relations*. 18(5), 36-49.
- Hirst, A., Tarling, R., Lefauchaux, M., Short, M., Rinne, S., MacGregor, A., Glass, A., Evans, M. & Simm, C. (2006) *Evaluation of Multiple Provider Employment Zones: early implementation issues*. Research Report 310. London: DWP.
- HM Government. (2011). *Building Engagement, Building Futures: Our Strategy to Maximise the Participation of 16–24 Year Olds in Education, Training and Work*. London: HMSO.

- Ho, V.T., Weingart, L.R., & Rousseau, D.M. (2004). Responses to broken promises: Does personality matter? *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 65(2), 276–293.
- Hoepfner, B.B., Kelly, J.F., Urbanoski, K.A. & Slaymaker, V. (2011). Comparative Utility of a Single-Item vs. Multiple-Item Measure of Self-Efficacy in Predicting Relapse among Young Adults. *Journal of Substance Abuse Treatment*, 41(3), 305–312.
- Hood, C. & R. Dixon. (2015). *A Government that Worked Better and Cost Less?: Evaluating Three Decades of Reform and Change in UK Central Government*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Houdmont, J., Jachens, L., Randall, R., Hopson, S., Nuttall, S. & Pamia, S. (2019). What Does a Single-Item Measure of Job Stressfulness Assess? *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 16, 1-15.
- House of Commons Work and Pensions Committee (HCWPC). (2013). *Can the Work Programme Work for All User Groups? First Report of Session 2013–14*. HC 162. London: The Stationery Office.
- House of Commons Work and Pensions Committee (HCWPC). (2014). *Employment and Support Allowance and Work Capability Assessments, First Report of Session 2014–15*. HC 302. London: The Stationery Office.
- Houston, D. & Lindsay, C. (2010). Fit for work? Health, employability and challenges for the UK welfare reform agenda. *Policy Studies*, 31(2), 133-142. doi: 10.1080/01442870903429595
- Houston, D. & Tilley, S. (2015). Fare's fair? Concessionary travel policy and social justice. *Journal of Poverty and Social Justice*, 24(2), 187–207.
- Hrisos, S., Eccles, M. P., Francis, J. J., Dickinson, H. O., Kaner, E. F., Beyer, F., & Johnston, M. (2009). Are there valid proxy measures of clinical behaviour? A systematic review. *Implementation Science*, 4, 4-37.
- Huber, M., Lechner, M., & Mellace, G. (2017). Why do tougher caseworkers increase employment? The role of program assignment as a causal mechanism. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 99(1), 180–183.
- Hudson, M., Philips, J., Ray, K., Vegeris, S. & Davidson, R. (2010). *The influence of outcome-based contracting on Provider-led Pathways to Work*. Research Report No. 638. London: DWP.
- Hughes, S. (2016). *Welfare, Work and Young People: How to improve prospects for 16-24 year olds*. London: Policy Exchange.
- Hurrell, S. A. (2016). Rethinking the soft skills deficit blame game: Employers, skills withdrawal and the reporting of soft skills gaps. *Human Relations*, 69(3), 605-

628. doi: 10.1177/0018726715591636.

- Hurrell, S., Scholarios, D., & Thompson, P. (2012). More than a ‘humpty dumpty’ term: Strengthening the conceptualization of soft skills. *Economic and Industrial Democracy*, 34(1), 161–182.
- Ilmarinen, J., Tuomi, K., & Seitsamo, J. (2005). *New dimensions of work ability. International Congress Series*. Proceedings of 2nd International Symposium on Work Ability 1280: 3-7. Retrieved from https://www.academia.edu/13017181/New_dimensions_of_work_ability
- Isaksson, K., Bernhard, C., Claes, R., De Witte, H., Guest, D., Krausz, M., Peiro, J.M., Mohr, G., & Schalk, R. (2003). Psychological Contracting across Employment Situations PSYCONES: Current Evidence concerning Employment Contracts and Employee/organizational Well-being among Workers in Europe. Retrieved from https://cordis.europa.eu/docs/publications/7077/70771191-6_en.pdf
- Ismail, N., Kichin, G., & Edwards J-A. (2018). Pilot Study, Does It Really Matter? Learning Lessons from Conducting a Pilot Study for a Qualitative PhD Thesis. *International Journal of Social Science Research*, 6(1), 1-17. doi:10.5296/ijssr.v6i1.11720
- James, R. (2007). Job capability match, adviser skills and the five self-efficacy barriers to employment. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, Employment and Disability*, 9(1), 32-40.
- Jenkins, J. & Leaker, D. (2010). The labour market across the UK in the current recession. *Economic and Labour Market Review*, 4(1), 38-48
- Jepsen, M., & Pascual, A.S. (2005). The European Social Model: an exercise in deconstruction. *Journal of European Social Policy*, 15(3), 231–245.
- Jiang, Z. (2017). Social Support and Career Psychological States: An Integrative Model of Person–Environment Fit. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 25(2), 219-237.
- Johansson, H. (2007). Placing the individual “at the forefront”: Beck and individual approaches in activation’, in van Berkel, R.& Valkenburg, B. (eds). *Making It Personal: Individualising Activation Services in the EU*. Bristol: Policy Press, pp. 67–87.
- Johns, R. (2005). One size doesn’t fit all: Selecting response scales for attitude items. *Journal of Elections, Public Opinion & Parties*, 15(2), 237-264. doi: 10.1080/13689880500178849
- Johnsen, S. (2016). *First Wave Findings: lone parents*. York: University of York.

- Jordan, J. (2018). Welfare Grunters and Workfare Monsters? An Empirical Review of the Operation of Two UK 'Work Programme' Centres. *Journal of Social Policy*, 47(3), 583-601. doi:10.1017/S0047279417000629
- Jordan, L. & Thomas, A. (2016). *The Youth Contract: Findings from research with Jobcentre Plus staff in five case study districts*: Research Report No 833. London: DWP.
- Kamerade, D. & Ellis Paine, A. (2014). Volunteering and employability: implications for policy and practice. *Voluntary Sector Review*, 5(2), 259–73.
- Kampen, T., Elshout, J., & Tonkens, E. (2013). The fragility of self-respect: Emotional labour of workfare volunteering. *Social Policy & Society*, 12(3), 427-438.
- Kanfer, R., Wanberg, C. R., & Kantrowitz, T. M. (2001). Job search and employment: A personality motivational analysis and meta-analytic review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(5), 837–855.
- Keefer, K. (2015). Self-Report Assessments of Emotional Competencies: A Critical Look at Methods and Meanings. *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment*, 33(1), 2-23.
- Keep, E. & James, S. (2010). *Recruitment and selection - the great neglected topic*. SKOPE Research Paper 88, Universities of Cardiff and Oxford.
- Kearns, A., & Parkinson, M. (2001). The significance of neighbourhood. *Urban Studies*, 38(12), 2103–2110.
- Keith Stead Associates. (2019). *The Rickter Scale*. Retrieved from <http://www.rickterscale.com/>
- Kellard, K., Francis, J., & Mitchell, L. (2007). *Supporting Sustained Entry to Work: An evaluation of the Wise Group 'Next Steps' and One Plus 'Sustainable Employment' Projections*. Edinburgh: Scottish Executive. Retrieved from <http://scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2007/06/13132143/0>
- Kessler, R. C., Price, R. H., & Wortman, C. B. (1985). Social factors in psychopathology: Stress, social support, and coping processes. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 36, 531-572.
- Kimmel, J. (1998). Child-Care Costs as a Barrier to Employment for Single and Married Mothers. *Review of Economics and Statistics* 80(2), 287-299.
- Kinicki, A. J., & Latack, J. C. (1990). Explication of the construct of coping with involuntary job loss. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 36(3), 339–360.
- Kinicki, A. J., Prussia, G. E., & McKee-Ryan, F. M. (2000). A panel study of coping

- with involuntary job loss. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43(1), 90-100.
- Klaussner, S. (2014). Engulfed in the abyss: The emergence of abusive supervision as an escalating process of supervisor-subordinate interaction. *Human Relations*, 67, 311-332.
- Kleinman, M. & West, A. (1998). Employability and The New Deals. *New Economy*, 5(3), 174 – 179.
- Kluve, J. (2010). The effectiveness of European active labour market programs. *Labour Economics*, 17, 904–18.
- Kluve, J., Puerto, S., Robalino, D., Romero, J.M., Rother, F., Stöterau, J., Weidenkaff, F., & Witte, M. (2019). Do youth employment programs improve labor market outcomes? A quantitative review. *World Development*, 114, 237–253.
- Koen, J., Klehe, U.-C., & Van Vianen, A. E. M. (2013). Employability among the long-term unemployed: A futile quest or worth the effort? *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 82(1), 37–48.
- Koskina, A. (2013). What does the student psychological contract mean? Evidence from a UK business school. *Studies in Higher Education*, 38(7), 1020–1036. doi: 10.1080/03075079.2011.618945
- Kotter, J.P. (1973). The psychological contract: Managing the joining-up process. *California Management Review*, 15(3), 91-99.
- Kraemer, H. C., Mintz, J., Noda, A., Tinklenberg, J., & Yesavage, J. A. (2006). Caution Regarding the Use of Pilot Studies to Guide Power Calculations for Study Proposals. *Archives of General Psychiatry*, 63(5), 484–489.
- Krasikova, D.V. & LeBreton, J.M. (2012). Just the Two of Us: Misalignment of Theory and Methods in Examining Dyadic Phenomena. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97(4), 739–757.
- Krebs, T., & Scheffel, M. (2012). Macroeconomic Evaluation of Labor Market Reform in Germany. *IMF Economic Review*, 61(4), 664–701.
- Kreemers, L.M., van Hooft, E.A.J., & van Vianen, A.E.M. (2018). Dealing with negative job search experiences: The beneficial role of self-compassion for job seekers' affective responses. *Journal of Vocational Behavior* 106, 165–179.
- Krivokapic-Skoko, B., Ivers, J. & O'Neill, G. (2006). *Psychological contracts: Conceptual and empirical considerations*. Working Paper Series, No. 01/06. Bathurst, NSW: Charles Sturt University, Faculty of Commerce.
- Krivokapic-Skoko, B., O'Neil, G., & Rupert, T. (2007). University academics'

- psychological contracts in Australia and New Zealand. *New Zealand Journal of Employment Relations*, 32(2), 32-52. Retrieved from http://www.nzjournal.org/past_issues.htm
- Krosnick, J. A., & Presser, S. (2010). Question and questionnaire design. In P. V. Marsden & J. D. Wright (Eds.), *Handbook of survey research* (2nd ed., pp. 263-314). Bingley, UK: Emerald.
- Lafer, G. (2004). What is 'skill'? Training for Discipline in the Low –Wage Labour Market'. In Warhurst, C., I. Grugulis & E. Keep (eds). (2004). *The Skills that Matter*, Houndmills: Palgrave MacMillan.
- Lakey, J., Barnes, H. & Parry, J. (2001). *Getting a chance: employment support for young people with multiple disadvantages*. York: Joseph Rowntree Foundation.
- Landers, R.N. (2015). Computing intraclass correlations (ICC) as estimates of interrater reliability in SPSS. *The Winnower* 2:e143518.81744. doi: 10.15200/winn.143518.81744
- Lapointe, E., Vandenberghe, C., & Boudrias, J-S. (2013). Psychological contract breach, affective commitment to organization and supervisor, and newcomer adjustment: A three-wave moderated mediation model. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 83(3), 528-538.
- Layard, R., Nickell, S., & Jackman, R. (1994). *The unemployment crises*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Layard R. (2004). *Good jobs and bad jobs. CEP Occasional Paper No 19 April 2004*. London: Centre for Economic Performance. Retrieved from <http://cep.lse.ac.uk/pubs/download/occasional/op019.pdf>
- Leana, C. R., & Feldman, D. C. (1995). Finding New Jobs After a Plant Closing: Antecedents and Outcomes of the Occurrence and Quality of Reemployment. *Human Relations*, 48(12), 1381–1401.
- Lee, J. (2010). *Labour Markets: Volunteering and Employability*. Paper presented at the. Volunteering Counts Conference, Manchester.
- Lee, N. & Sissons, P. (2016). Inclusive growth? The relationship between economic growth and poverty in British cities. *Environment and Planning A*, 48(11), 2317-2239.
- Lee, S. J., & Vinokur, A. D. (2007). Work barriers in the context of pathways to the employment of welfare-to-work clients. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 40(3–4), 301–312. doi: 10.1007/s10464-007-9144-x
- Leitch. S. (2006). *Prosperity for All in the Global Economy - World Class Skills*. London: HMT.

- Learning and Work Institute. (2013). *Work Programme Briefing (19 December)*. London: Learning and Work Institute. Retrieved from http://stats.learningandwork.org.uk/website_documents/WP_stats_briefing_Dec_2013_final.pdf
- Learning and Work Institute. (2015). *Work Programme statistics: Inclusion analysis* (September 2015). London: Learning and Work Institute. Retrieved from <https://www.learningandwork.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/2017/01/Work-Programme-statistics-Inclusion-analysis.pdf>
- Lester, S.W., Kickul, J.R., & Bergmann, T.J. (2007). Managing Employee Perceptions of the Psychological Contract over Time: The Role of Employer Social Accounts and Contract Fulfillment. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 28(2), 191-208.
- Levinson, H., Price, C., Munden, K., Mandl, H., & Solley, C. (1962). *Men, management, and mental health*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (2000). Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions, and emerging confluences. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed., pp. 163-188). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Lindsay, C. (2005). Employability, services for unemployed job seekers and the digital divide. *Urban Studies*, 42(2), 325–339.
- Lindsay, C. (2014). Work First Versus Human Capital Development in Employability. in U-C. Klehe & E. van Hooft (eds) (2014). *Oxford handbook of job loss and job search*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199764921.013.029>
- Lindsay, C., & Houston, D. (2011). Fit for Purpose? Welfare Reform and Challenges for Health and Labour Market Policy in the UK. *Environment and Planning A: Economy and Space*, 43(3), 703–721.
- Lindsay, C. & Houston, D. (2013). (eds). *Disability Benefits, Welfare Reform and Employment Policy*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Lindsay, C., Greve, B., Cabras, I., Ellison, N., & Kellett, S. (2015). Assessing the evidence base on health, employability and the labour market: Lessons for activation in the UK. *Social Policy & Administration*, 49(2), 143–60.
- Lindsay, C., Pearson, S. Cullen, A.M., & Eadson, W. (2018). Street-level practice and the co-production of third sector-led employability services. *Policy & Politics*, 46(4), 571-587.
- Lipsky, M. (1980). *Street Level Bureaucracy: Dilemmas of the Individual in Public Services*. Russell Sage Foundation. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/10.7758/9781610447713>

- Lipsky, M. (2010). *Street-Level Bureaucracy: Dilemmas of the Individual in Public Service*. Russell Sage Foundation. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/10.7758/9781610446631>
- Lloyd, R. & O'Sullivan, F. (2003). *Measuring Soft Outcomes and Distance Travelled: a Practical Guide and Existing Models*. Sheffield: DWP.
- Lo Presti, A., Ingusci, E., Magrin, M.E., Manuti, A. & Scrima, F. (2019). Employability as a compass for career success: development and initial validation of a new multidimensional measure. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 23(4), 253-275.
- Luchinskaya, D. & Dickinson, P. (2019). *The adult skills gap: is falling investment in UK adults stalling social mobility?* Institute for Employment Research, University of Warwick: Social Mobility Commission.
- Mabe, P. & West, S. (1982). Validity of self-valuation of ability: A review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 67, 280-296.
- Mai, K.M., Christian, J.S., Ellis, A.P.J., & Porter, C.O.L.H. (2016). Examining the Effects of Turnover Intentions on Organizational Citizenship Behaviors and Deviance Behaviors: A Psychological Contract Approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 101(8), 1067–1081.
- Maia, L., Bal, P. M., & Bastos, V. (2019). Changes to newcomers' psychological contract over time: The interactive effects of the fulfilment of employer and employee obligations. *Universitas Psychologica*, 18(1), 1-13.
- Martin, J. (2018). Skills for the 21st century: Findings and policy lessons from the OECD survey of adult skills. *OECD Education Working Papers*, No. 166. Paris: OECD Publishing.
- Martin, R., Villeneuve-Smith, F., Marshall, L, & McKenzie, E. (2008). *Research report: Employability skills explored*. London: Learning and Skills Network.
- Maxwell, J. A. (2012). The Importance of Qualitative Research for Causal Explanation in Education. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 18(8) 655–661.
- Maynard, D.C., Joseph, T.A. & Maynard, A.M. (2006). Underemployment, job attitudes, and turnover intentions, *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 27, 509–536.
- Maynard-Moody, S., & Musheno, M. (2003). *Cops, Teachers, Counselors: Stories from the Front Lines of Public Service*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press. Retrieved from www.jstor.org/stable/10.3998/mpub.11924
- McArdle, S., Waters, L., Briscoe, J. P., & Tim, D. T. (2007). Employability during unemployment : Adaptability, career identity and human and social capital.

Journal of Vocational Behavior, 71(2), 247–264.

- McGonagle, A.K., Fisher, G.G., Barnes-Farrell, J.L., & Grosch, J.W. (2015). Individual and work factors related to perceived work ability and labor force outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 100(2), 376–398.
- McGrath, M.L., Millward, L.J., & Banks, A.P. (2015). *Workplace emotion through a psychological contract lens. Qualitative Research in Organizations and Management*, 10(3), 206-226.
- McIntosh, S. & Garrett, R. (2009). *The economic value of intermediate vocational education and qualifications. UKCES Evidence Report*. Wath-upon-Deerne, London: University of Sheffield.
- McNeil, C. (2009). *Now it's personal: personal advisers and the new public service workforce*. Institute for Public Policy Research: London.
- McQuaid, R.W. (2006). Job search success and employability in local labor markets. *Annals of Regional Science*, 40(2), 407-421.
- McQuaid, R., Bond, S., & Fuertes, V. (2009). *Evaluation of the Working for Families Fund (2004 - 2008)*. Edinburgh: The Scottish Government.
- McQuaid, R., Green, A.E. & Danson, M. (2005). Introducing employability. *Urban Studies*, 42 (2). 191-195.
- McQuaid, R. W. & Lindsay, C. (2002). The “employability gap”: Long-term unemployment and barriers to work in buoyant labour markets. *Environment and Planning C: Government and Policy*, 20(4), 613–628.
- McQuaid, R.W. & Lindsay, C. (2005). The concept of employability. *Urban Studies*, 42(2), 197-219.
- McQuaid, R.W., Lindsay, C. & Greig, M. (2004). Re-Connecting the Unemployed: ICT and Services for Job Seekers in Rural Areas. *Information, Communication & Society*, 7(3), 364-388.
- McVicar, D., & Podivinsky, J. M. (2009). How well has the New Deal for Young People worked in the UK regions? *Scottish Journal of Political Economy*, 56(2), 167–195.
- Meager, N., Newton, B., Sainsbury, R., Corden, A., & Irvine, A. (2014). *Work Programme evaluation: the participant experience report*. DWP Research Report No 892. Retrieved from <http://www.york.ac.uk/inst/spru/pubs/pdf/rrep892sum.pdf>
- Meijers, F. & Lengelle, R. (2012). Narratives at work: the development of career identity, *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling*, 40(2), 157-176.

- Menninger, K. (1958). *Theory of Psychoanalytic Technique*. Basic Books, New York.
- Millar, J. (2000). *Keeping track of welfare reform: the New Deal programmes*. York: Joseph Rowntree Foundation.
- Millar, J., & Ridge, T. (2017). *Work and relationships over time in lone-mother families*. York: Joseph Rowntree Foundation.
- Millar, M. & Crosse, R. (2016). *Lone Parents and Activation, What Works and Why: A Review of the International Evidence in the Irish Context*. The UNESCO Child and Family Research Centre, National University of Ireland, Galway.
- Miscampbell, G. & Porter, R. (2014). *Joined Up Welfare: The next steps for personalisation*. London: Policy Exchange.
- Mitra, S. & Jones, K. (2017). The impact of recent mental health changes on employment: new evidence from longitudinal data. *Applied Economics*, 49(1), 96-109. doi: 10.1080/00036846.2016.1192274
- Molden, D.C. & Dweck, C. S. (2006). Finding “meaning” in psychology: A lay theories approach to self-regulation, social perception, and social development. *American Psychologist*, 61, 192-203.
- Morrison, E.W. & Robinson, S. (1997). When employees feel betrayed: a model of how psychological contract violation develops. *Academy of Management Review*, 22, 226–256.
- Moses, J., Hollenbeck, G.P. & Sorcher, M. (1993). Other people’s expectations. *Human Resource Management*, 32(2-3), 283-297.
- Moullin, M. (2017). Improving and evaluating performance with the Public Sector Scorecard. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 66(4), 442-458.
- Moynihan, L.M., Roehling, M.V. LePine, M.A. & Boswell, W.R. (2003). A Longitudinal Study of the Relationships among Job Search Self-Efficacy, Job Interviews, and Employment Outcomes. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 18(2), 207-233.
- NAO (National Audit Office). (2006). *Jobcentre Plus: Delivering effective services through personal advisers*. London: The Stationary Office.
- NAO (National Audit Office). (2014). *16- to 18-year-old participation in education and training*. London: Department for Education.
- Nauta, A., van Vianen, A., van der Heijden, B., van Dam, K., & Willemsen, M. (2009). Understanding the factors that promote employability orientation: The impact of employability culture, career satisfaction, and role breadth self-

- efficacy. *Journal of Occupational & Organizational Psychology*, 82(2), 233-251.
- Needham, C. (2011). Personalisation: from story-line to practice. *Social Policy and Administration*, 45(1), 54–68.
- Newton, B., Hurstfield, J., Miller, L., Page, R., & Akroyd, K. (2005). *What employers look for when recruiting the unemployed and inactive: skills, characteristics and qualifications*. Research Report 295. London: DWP.
- Newton, B., Meager, N., Bertram, C., Corden, A., George, A., Lalani, M., Metcalf, H., Rolfe, H., Sainsbury, R. & Weston, K. (2012). *Work Programme evaluation: findings from the first phase of qualitative research on programme delivery*. London: DWP.
- Nichols, G. (2013). The Psychological Contract of Volunteers: A New Research Agenda. *VOLUNTAS: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, 24(4). 986–1005.
- Nichols, G. & Ojala, E. (2009). Understanding the management of sports events volunteers through psychological contract theory. *Voluntas*, 20(4), 369–387.
- Nickson, D., Price, R., Baxter-Reid, H. & Hurrell, S. (2017). Skill requirements in retail work: the case of high-end fashion retailing. *Work, Employment and Society*, 31(4), 692-708.
- Nickson, D., Warhurst, C., Commander, J., Hurrell, S. A., & Cullen, A. M. (2012). Soft skills and employability: Evidence from UK retail. *Economic and Industrial Democracy*, 33(1), 65–84.
- Nickson, D., Warhurst, C., Cullen, A-M., & Watt, A. (2003). Bringing in the excluded? Aesthetic labour, skills and training in the ‘new’ economy. *Journal of Education and Work*, 16(2), 185–203.
- Niehoff, B. P., & Moorman, R. H. (1993). Justice as a mediator of the relationship between methods of monitoring and organizational citizenship behavior. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36, 527–556.
- Nilsen, D. & Campbell, D.P. (1993). Self-observer rating discrepancies: once an overrater, always and overrater? *Human Resource Management*, 32(203), 265-281.
- Nota, L., Ferrari, L., Scott, V., Solberg, H., & Soresi, S. (2007). Career Search Self-Efficacy, Family Support, and Career Indecision with Italian Youth. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 15(2), 181-193.
- Nothdurfter, U. (2016). The street-level delivery of activation policies: constraints and possibilities for a practice of citizenship. *European Journal of Social Work*,

19(3-4), 420-440.

- Oakley, M. (2014). *Independent Review of the Operation of Jobseeker's Allowance Sanctions Validated by the Jobseekers Act 2013*. London: DWP.
- OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development). (1998). *Towards an employment-centred social policy*. OECD Employment Outlook. Paris: OECD Publishing.
- OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development). (2005). *Labour market programmes and activation strategies: Evaluating the impacts*. OECD Employment Outlook. Paris: OECD Publishing.
- OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development). (2013). *OECD Skills Outlook 2013: First Results from the Survey of Adult Skills*. Paris: OECD Publishing.
- OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development). (2014). *OECD Employment Outlook 2014*. Paris: OECD Publishing.
- OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development). (2015a). *OECD Employment Outlook 2015*. Paris: OECD Publishing.
- OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development). (2015b). *Education at a Glance Interim Report: Update of Employment and Educational Attainment Indicators*. Paris: OECD Publishing.
- OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development). (2016). *OECD Employment Outlook 2016*. Paris: OECD Publishing.
- OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development). (2019). *OECD Employment Outlook 2019: The Future of Work*. Paris: OECD Publishing.
- ONS (Office for National Statistics). (2016a). *UK labour market: Dec 2016*. Retrieved from <https://www.ons.gov.uk/employmentandlabourmarket/peopleinwork/employmentandemployeetypes/bulletins/uklabourmarket/dec2016>
- ONS (Office for National Statistics). (2016b). *Benefit Claimants – Working Age Client Group. November 2016*. Retrieved from <https://www.nomisweb.co.uk/datasets/bwa>
- ONS (Office for National Statistics). (2017). *Dataset(s): UNEM01 SA: Unemployment by age and duration (seasonally adjusted)*. [15 March 2017]. Retrieved from <https://www.ons.gov.uk/employmentandlabourmarket/peoplenotinwork/unemployment/datasets/unemploymentbyageanddurationseasonallyadjustedunem01sa/current>

- ONS (Office for National Statistics). (2019). *Employment in the UK: March 2019*. Retrieved from <https://www.ons.gov.uk/employmentandlabourmarket/peopleinwork/employmentandemployeetypes/bulletins/employmentintheuk/march2019>
- O'Donohue, W., & Nelson, L. (2009). The psychological contracts of Australian hospital volunteer workers. *Australian Journal on Volunteering, 14*(9), 1–11.
- Osborne, J.W. (2016). *Regression & Linear Modeling: Best Practices and Modern Methods*. London: Sage Publications.
- Osipow, S.H., Carney, C.G., & Barak, A. (1976). A scale of educational—vocational undecidedness: A typological approach. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 27*, 233-244.
- O'Sullivan, S., McGann, M. & Considine, M. (2019). The Category Game and its Impact on Street-Level Bureaucrats and Jobseekers: An Australian Case Study. *Social Policy & Society, 18*(4), 631–645. doi: 10.1017/S1474746419000162
- O'Toole, P., & Prince, N. (2015). The psychological contract of science students: social exchange with universities and university staff from the students' perspective. *Higher Education Research and Development, 34*(1), 160-172.
- Parsons, A. (1978). Interpretive Sociology: The Theoretical Significance of Verstehen in the Constitution of Social Reality. *Human Studies, 1*(2), 111-137. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/20008676>
- Parsons, S. & Bynner, J. (2007). *Illuminating Disadvantage: Profiling the experiences of adults with Entry Level Literacy or Numeracy over the life course*. London: NRDC.
- Patmore, S. (2008). Can the Psychological Contract Theory explain non-engagement to attend Work Focused Interviews? *Journal of Occupational Psychology, Employment and Disability, 10*(1), 5-11.
- Patrick, H. A. (2008). Psychological contract and employment relationship. *The Icfai University Journal of Organizational Behavior, 7*(4), 7-24.
- Patrick, R. (2011). Disabling or Enabling: The Extension of Work-Related Conditionality to Disabled People. *Social Policy and Society, 10*(3), 309-20.
- Patrick, R. (2017). Wither Social Citizenship? Lived Experiences of Citizenship In/Exclusion for Recipients of Out-of-Work Benefits. *Social Policy & Society, 16*(2), 293–304. doi:10.1017/S147474641600049X
- Paul, K.I. & Moser, K. (2009). Unemployment impairs mental health: Meta-analyses. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 74*(3), 264 – 282.

- Payne, S.C. Culbertson, S.S., Lopez, Y.P., Boswell, W.R. & Barger, E.J. (2015). Contract breach as a trigger for adjustment to the psychological contract during the first year of employment. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 88(1), 41–60
- Peck, J., & Theodore, N. (2000). Beyond ‘employability’. *Cambridge Journal of Economics*, 24(6), 729–749.
- Peck, J. & Theodore, N. (2001). Exporting workfare/importing welfare-to-work: exploring the politics of Third Way policy transfer. *Political Geography*, 20(4), 427-460.
- Peduzzi, P., Concato, J., Kemper, E., Holford, T.R., & Feinstein, A.R. (1996). A simulation study of the number of events per variable in logistic regression analysis. *Journal of Clinical Epidemiology*, 49(2), 373– 1379.
- Penz, O., Sauer, B., Gaitsch, M., Hofbauer, J., & Glinsner, B. (2017). Post-bureaucratic encounters: Affective labour in public employment services. *Critical Social Policy*, 37(4), 540–561. doi: 10.1177/0261018316681286
- Perkins, R., Farmer, P., & Litchfield, P. (2009). *Realising ambitions: better employment support for people with a mental health condition*. London: DWP.
- Peters, M. & Joyce, L. (2006). *A Review of the JSA Sanctions Regime: Summary Research Findings*. London: Department for Work and Pensions.
- Petrocchi, S., Iannello, P., Lecciso, F., Levante, A., Antonietti, A. & Schulz, P.J. (2019). Interpersonal trust in doctor-patient relation: Evidence from dyadic analysis and association with quality of dyadic communication. *Social Science & Medicine*, 235, 1-8.
- Petrongolo, B. (2014). *Tackling long-term unemployment*. CentrePiece - The Magazine for Economic Performance, Paper No. 416. London: Centre for Economic Performance, LSE.
- Philippaers, K., De Cuyper, N., Forrier, A., Vander Elst, T., & De Witte, H. (2016). Perceived Employability in Relation to Job Performance: A Cross-lagged Study Accounting for a Negative Path via Reduced Commitment. *Scandinavian Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 1(1), 1–15.
- Phillips, P. & Chen, H. (2018). Emotional Intelligence and the Role of Motivation Within the Context of Career Guidance Counselling for Those Experiencing Unemployment. *Irish Journal of Applied Social Studies*, 18(1), 1-14.
- Piacentini, L., Weaver, B. & Jardine, C. (2018). *Employment and Employability in Scottish Prisons: A Research Briefing Paper*. School of Social Work & Social Policy, University of Strathclyde: Scottish Centre for Crime and Justice Research. Retrieved from <https://www.sccjr.ac.uk/publications/employment->

and-employability-in-scottish-prisons-a-research-briefing-paper-feb-2018/

- Pickles, C., Holmes, E., Titley, H. & Dobson, B. (2016). *Working welfare: a radically new approach to sickness and disability benefits*. Reform, February. Retrieved from <https://reform.uk/research/working-welfare-radically-new-approach-sickness-and-disability-benefits>
- Ployhart, R. E., & Vandenberg, R. J. (2010). Longitudinal research: The theory, design, and analysis of change. *Journal of Management*, 36(1), 94-120.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Leadership Quarterly*, 1, 107-142.
- Pollet, T.V. & van der Meij, L. (2017). To Remove or not to Remove: the Impact of Outlier Handling on Significance Testing in Testosterone Data. *Adaptive Human Behavior and Physiology*, 3, 43-60.
- Pohl, S., Bertrand, F. & Ergen, C. (2016), Psychological Contracts and Their Implications for Job Outcomes: A Social Exchange View. *Military Psychology*, 28(6), 406-417. doi: 10.1037/mil0000127
- Ponto, J. (2015). Understanding and evaluating survey research. *Journal of Advanced Oncology*, 6, 168-171.
- Porter, L. W., Pearce, J. L., Tripoli, A. M., & Lewis, K. M. (1998). Differential perceptions of employers' inducements: Implications for psychological contracts. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 19, 769- 782.
- Portes, J. & Reed, H. (2018). *The cumulative impact of tax and welfare reforms. Equality and Human Rights Commission Research Report no. 112*. London: EHRC. Retrieved from <https://www.equalityhumanrights.com/en/publication-download/cumulative-impact-tax-and-welfare-reforms>
- Postmes, T., Haslam, S.A. & Jans, L. (2013). A Single-Item Measure of Social Identification: Reliability, Validity, and Utility. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 52, 597-617.
- Potgieter, I., & Coetzee, M. (2013). Employability attributes and personality preferences of postgraduate business management students. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 39(1), 1-10. doi: <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v39i1.1064>
- Powell, A. (2019). *People with disabilities in employment*. Briefing Paper, Number 7540. London: House of Commons Library.
- Preston, C.C., & Colman, A.M. (2000). Optimal number of response categories in rating scales: reliability, validity, discriminating power, and respondent

- preferences. *Acta Psychologica*, 103, 1-15.
- PSYCONES (Psychological Contracts Across Employment Situations). (2005). *European Union Project*. Retrieved from <https://cordis.europa.eu/project/rcn/67449/factsheet/en>
- PSYCONES (Psychological Contracts Across Employment Situations). (2006). *EU Research on Social Sciences and Humanities*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities. Retrieved from <https://Cordis.Europa.Eu/Project/Rcn/67449/Reporting/En>
- Purvis, A., Lowrey, J. & Dobbs, L. (2006). *WORKSTEP evaluation case studies: Exploring the design, delivery and performance of the WORKSTEP Programme, Research Report No. 348*. London: DWP.
- Quinn, P., & Seaman, P. (2008). Social networks and employability. *Networks*, 49, 50. Retrieved from http://www.gcph.co.uk/assets/0000/0437/SocialNetworks_Employability_Jan08.pdf
- Quirouette, M. (2016). Managing Multiple Disadvantages: The Regulation of Complex Needs in Emergency Shelters for the Homeless. *Journal of Poverty*, 20(3), 316-339.
- Radford, L.M.& Larwood, L. (1982). A field study of conflict in psychological exchange: the California taxpayers' revolt. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 12(1), 60–69.
- Raffass, T. (2017). Demanding Activation. *Journal of Social Policy*, 46(2), 349-365.
- Rahim, N., Kotecha, M., Chanfreau, J., Arthur, S., Mitchell, M., Payne, C., & Haywood, S. (2012). *Evaluation of Support for the Very Long-Term Unemployed Trailblazer. Research Report No 824*. London: DWP.
- Raja, U., Johns, G. & Ntalianis, F. (2004). The impacts of personality on psychological contracts. *Academy of Management Review*, 47(3), 3350–3367.
- Ranganathan, P., Pramesh, C.S. & Aggarwal, R. (2017). Common pitfalls in statistical analysis: Logistic regression. *Perspect Clinical Research*, 8(3), 148-151.
- Ray, K., Hoggart, L., Vegeris, S. & Taylor, R. (2010). *Better off working? Work, poverty and benefit cycling*. York: Joseph Rowntree Foundation.
- Recruitment & Employment Confederation (REC). (2015). *Recruitment Industry Trends Survey 2014/15*. Retrieved from <https://www.rec.uk.com/?a=380692&now=1499428874>
- Rees, J. Taylor, R. & Damm, C. (2013). *Does sector matter?: Understanding the*

experiences of providers in the Work Programme, Working Paper 92.
Birmingham: Third Sector Research Centre.

- Rees, J., Whitworth, A. & Carter, E. (2014). Support for all in the UK Work Programme? Differential payments, same old problem. *Social Policy and Administration*, 48(2), 221–239.
- Reeve, K. (2017). Welfare conditionality, benefit sanctions and homelessness in the UK: ending the 'something for nothing culture' or punishing the poor? *Journal of Poverty and Social Justice*, 25(1), 65-78.
- Reeves, A. & Loopstra, R. (2017). “Set up to Fail?” How Welfare Conditionality Undermines Citizenship for Vulnerable Groups’. *Social Policy and Society*, 16(2), 327–338.
- Reid, J. (2015). Redefining “Employability” as something to be achieved. Utilising Tronto’s conceptual framework of care to refocus the debate. *Higher Education, Skills and Work-Based Learning*, 6(1), 55-68.
- Rice, D., Fuertes, V. & Monticelli, L. (2018). Does individualized employment support deliver what is promised? Findings from three European cities. *International Social Security Review*, 71(4), 91-109.
- Riley, R.D., Snell, K., Ensor, J. Burke, D.L., Harrell, F.E., Moons, K.G.M & Collins, G.S. (2018). Minimum sample size for developing a multivariable prediction model: PART II – binary and time-to-event outcomes. *Statistics in Medicine*, 38(7), 1-21.
- Rinaldi, M., Montibeller, T. & Perkins, R. (2011). Increasing the employment rate for people with longer-term mental health problems. *The Psychiatrist*, 35(9), 339–343.
- Ringle, C.M., Wende, S., & Becker, J-M. (2015). SmartPLS 3. Bönningstedt: SmartPLS. Retrieved from <http://www.smartpls.com>
- Robinson, M.A. (2018). Using multi-item psychometric scales for research and practice in human resource management. *Human Resource Management*, 57(3), 739-750.
- Robinson, S.L. (1996). Trust and breach of the psychological contract. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 41(4), 574–599.
- Robinson, S. L., Kraatz, M. S., & Rousseau, D. M. (1994). Changing obligation and the psychological contract: A longitudinal study. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 37(1), 137-152.
- Robinson, S. L. & Morrison, E. W. (2000). The development of psychological contract breach and violation: a longitudinal study. *Journal of Organizational*

Behavior, 21(5), 525-46.

- Robinson, S.L. & Rousseau, D.M. (1994). Violating the psychological contract: not the exception but the norm. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 15(3), 245-59.
- Rocket Science. (2015). *Work Programme: Customer Insights. Final report*. Retrieved from:
http://www.employabilityinscotland.com/media/519765/rocket_science_ingeus_client_report_dec_15_final.pdf
- Rodríguez-Muñoz, A., Baillien, E., De Witte, H., Moreno-Jimenez, B., & Pastor, J. C. (2009). Cross-lagged relationships between workplace bullying, job satisfaction and engagement: two longitudinal studies. *Work Stress*, 23(3), 225–243.
- Rosenbaum, J. (2002). *Beyond Empty Promises: Policies to Improve Transitions into College and Jobs*. Washington, DC: Office of Vocational and Adult Education, US Department of Education.
- Rosenthal, P. & Peccei, R. (2006a). Consuming work: front-line workers and their customers in Jobcentre Plus. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 19(7), 659–672.
- Rosenthal, P., & Peccei, R. (2006b). The customer concept in welfare administration: Front-line views in jobcentre plus. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 19(1), 67-78.
- Rosholm, M. (2014). Do case workers help the unemployed? *IZA World of Labor*, 72, 1-10. doi: 10.15185/izawol.72
- Rosso, A., Gaffney, D. & Portes, J. (2015). *What explains the growth in 'never-worked' households*. York: Joseph Rowntree Foundation.
- Rousseau, D. (1989). Psychological and implicit contracts in organizations. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 2(2), 121–139.
- Rousseau, D. (1990). New hire perceptions of their own and employer's obligations: a study of psychological contracts. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 11, 389–400.
- Rousseau, D.M. (1995). *Psychological contracts in organizations: Understanding written and unwritten agreements*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Rousseau, D.M. (1998). The 'problem' of the psychological contract considered. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 19, 665–672.
- Rousseau, D.M. (2000). *Psychological Contract Inventory*. Technical report No.

- 2000-02. Pittsburgh, PA: Heinz School of Public Policy and Management, Carnegie Mellon University Press. Retrieved from http://vodpppl.upm.edu.my/uploads/docs/dce5634_1298965643.pdf
- Rousseau, D.M. (2001). Schema, promise and mutuality: the building blocks of the psychological contract. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 74, 511-542.
- Rousseau, D.M. (2004). Research Edge: Psychological Contracts in the Workplace: Understanding the Ties That Motivate. *The Academy of Management Executive (1993-2005)*, 18(1), 120-127.
- Rousseau, D.M., Hansen, S.D., & Tomprou, M. (2018). A dynamic phase model of psychological contract processes. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 39(SI), 1081–1098.
- Rousseau, D. & Tijoriwala, S. (1998). Assessing psychological contracts: issues, alternatives and measures. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 19, 679–696.
- Rubery, J., Earnshaw, J., Marchington, M., Cooke, F.L. & Vincent, S. (2002). Changing organisational forms and the employment relationship. *Journal of Management Studies*, 39(5), 645-672.
- Sambrook, S. & Wainwright, D. (2010). *The psychological contract: Who's contracting with whom? Towards a conceptual model*. Bangor Business School working papers series BBSWP/10/013. Retrieved from <http://www.bangor.ac.uk/business/docs/BBSWP10013.pdf>
- Saunders, M.N.K, Lewis, P, & Thornhill, A. (2012). *Research Methods for Business Students* (6th ed.). Harlow: Pearson Custom Publishing.
- Scarpello, V., & Campbell, J.P. (1983). Job satisfaction: Are all the parts there? *Personnel Psychology*, 36, 577–600.
- Schein, E.H. (1965). *Organizational psychology*. London: Prentice Hall.
- Scottish Executive. (2006). *Workforce Plus an Employability Framework for Scotland*. Retrieved from <http://www.gov.scot/Publications/2006/06/12094904/0>
- Scottish Government. (2005). *Employability Framework for Scotland: Report of the Interventions Workstream Final Report*. Retrieved from www.gov.scot/Publications/2005/08/11113257/32596
- Scottish Government. (2014). *Scottish Government Urban Rural Classification 2013-2014*. Edinburgh: The Scottish Government. Retrieved from <https://www2.gov.scot/Publications/2014/11/2763>

- Scottish Government. (2016). *The Scottish Index of Multiple Deprivation*. Retrieved from <https://www2.gov.scot/Topics/Statistics/SIMD>
- Scottish Government. (2017). *The life chances of young people in Scotland: evidence review*. Directorate: Housing and Social Justice. Edinburgh: The Scottish Government. Retrieved from <https://www.gov.scot/about/how-government-is-run/directorates/housing-and-social-justice/>
- Scottish Government. (2018). *Social tenants in Scotland 2016*. Directorate: Housing and Social Justice. Edinburgh: The Scottish Government. Retrieved from <https://www.gov.scot/publications/social-tenants-scotland-2016/>
- Seale, E., Buck, A., & Parrotta, K. (2012). Who's to blame? The identity talk of welfare-to-work program managers, *Sociological Perspectives*, 55(3), 501–527.
- Serrano Pascual, A. & Magnusson, L. (Eds). (2007). *Reshaping Welfare States and Activation Regimes in Europe*. Brussels: Peter Lang.
- Shaheen, G. & Rio, J. (2007). Recognizing Work as a Priority in Preventing or Ending Homelessness. *The Journal of Primary Prevention*, 28(3-4), 341-358.
- Shih, C-T. & Chuang, C-H. (2013). Individual differences, psychological contract breach, and organizational citizenship behavior: A moderated mediation study. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 30(1), 191–210.
- Shore, L.M. & Tetrick, L.E. (1994). The psychological contract as an explanatory framework in employment relationship. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 1, 91-109.
- Shuttleworth, I., & Green, A. (2009). Spatial mobility, workers and jobs: perspectives from the Northern Ireland experience. *Regional Studies*, 43(8), 1105-1115.
- Smith V. (2010). Review Article: Enhancing employability: Human, cultural, and social capital in an era of turbulent unpredictability. *Human Relations*, 63(2), 279-300.
- Sok, J., Blomme, R., & Trompa, D. (2013). The use of the psychological contract to explain self-perceived employability. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 34, 274-284.
- Sol, E. & Hoogtanders, Y. (2005). Steering by Contract in the Netherlands: New Approaches to Labour Market Integration in Sol E. & Westerveld M. (eds) (2005). *Contractualism in Employment Services: A New Form of Welfare State Governance*. Kluwer Law International, Aspen Publishers
- Sol, E. & Westerveld, M. (2007). The individual job seeker in the sphere of contractualism. *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, 27(7/8),

301–310.

- Solberg, V.S., Good, G.E. & Nord, D. (1994). Career search self-efficacy: Ripe for applications and intervention programming. *Journal of Career Development* 21(1), 63-71.
- Solomon, C. & van Coller-Peter, S. (2019). How coaching aligns the psychological contract between the young millennial professional and the organisation. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 17, 1-11.
- Spermann, A. (2016). How can temporary work agencies provide more training?. *IZA World of Labor*, 251. doi: 10.15185/izawol.251
- Suazo, M. M. (2009). The mediating role of psychological contract violation on the relations between psychological contract breach and work-related attitudes and behaviors. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 24(2), 136–160.
- Suleiman, R. (2014). *Stepping Stones: The role of the voluntary sector in future welfare to work schemes*. London: National Council for Voluntary Organisations.
- Sunley, P., Martin, R., & Nativel, C. (2001). Mapping the New Deal: local disparities in the performance of Welfare-to-Work. *Transactions of the Institute of British Geographers*, 26(4), 484–512. doi:10.1111/1475-5661.00036
- Tallman, R.J., & Bruning, N.S. (2008). Relating employees' psychological contracts to their personality. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 23(6), 688–712.
- Tamkin P. & Hillage, J. (1999). *Employers and Employability: The Missing Piece of the Jigsaw*. Brighton, Sussex: Institute for Employment Studies. Retrieved from <https://www.employment-studies.co.uk/system/files/resources/files/361.pdf>
- Taylor, M.F. (ed), with Brice, J., Buck, N., & Prentice-Lane, E. (2010). *British Household Panel Survey User Manual Volume A: Introduction, Technical Report and Appendices*. Colchester: University of Essex.
- Taylor, M. (2017). *Good Work: The Taylor Review of Modern Working Practices*. Retrieved from <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/good-work-the-taylor-review-of-modern-working-practices>
- Taylor, M.S. & Tekleab, A.G. (2004). Taking stock of psychological contract research: assessing progress, addressing troublesome issues, and setting research priorities. In J. A-M. Coyle-Shapiro, L.M. Shore, M. S. Taylor, and L.E. Tetrick, (eds.) *The Employment Relationship: Examining Contextual and Psychological Perspectives*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. (pp 253-283).
- Tomprou, M., & Nikolaou, I. (2011). A model of psychological contract creation upon

- organizational entry. *The Career Development International*, 16(4), 342–363.
- Tekleab, A. & Taylor, S. (2003). Aren't there two parties in the employment relationship? Antecedents and consequences of organization–employee agreement on contract obligations and violations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24(5), 585–608.
- Tekleab, A. G., Takeuchi, R., & Taylor, M. S. (2005). Extending the chain of relationships among organizational justice, social exchange and employee reactions: The role of contract violations. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48, 146–157.
- Theodore, N. & Peck, J. (2001). Searching for best practice in welfare-to-work: The means, the method and the message. *Policy and Politics*, 29(1), 81-94.
- Thijssen, J. G., Van der Heijden, B. I., & Rocco, T. S. (2008). Toward the employability—link model: current employment transition to future employment perspectives. *Human Resource Development Review*, 7(2), 165-183.
- Tilley, S. & Houston, D. (2016). The gender turnaround: Young women now travelling more than young men. *Journal of Transport Geography*, 54, 349-358.
- Tinson, A., Aldridge, H. & Whitham, G. (2016). *Women, work and wages in the UK Understanding the position of women in the UK labour market and the need for an effective policy response*. London: New Policy Institute.
- Toerien, M., Sainsbury, R., Drew, P., & Irvine, A. (2013). Putting Personalisation into Practice: Work-Focused Interviews in Jobcentre Plus. *Journal of Social Policy*, 42(2), 309-327.
- Tominey, E., & Gregg, P. (2005). The wage scar from male youth unemployment. *Labour Economics*, 12(4), 487.
- Tunstall, R., Green, A., Lupton, R., Watmough, S. & Bates, K. (2014). Does Poor Neighbourhood Reputation Create a Neighbourhood Effect on Employment? The Results of a Field Experiment in the UK. *Urban Studies*, 51(4), 763-780.
- Tunstall, R., Lupton, R., Green, A.E., Watmough, S., & Bates, K. (2012). *A Job In Itself? The Task for Disadvantaged Young Job Seekers*. York: Joseph Rowntree Foundation.
- Tuomi, K., Ilmarinen, J.A., Jahkola, A., Katajarinne, L., & Tulkki, A. (1998). *Work Ability Index*. Helsinki: 2nd edition Finnish Institute of Occupational Health.
- Turner, J.J. & McKinlay, J.W. (2000). Learning to labour: an exploratory analysis of

- the "New Deal". *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 24(2/3/4), 199-208.
- Turnley W.H. & Feldman D.C. (1998). Psychological contract violations during organisational restructuring. *Human Resource Management*, 37(1), 71-83.
- Turnley W.H. & Feldman D.C. (1999). The impact of psychological contract violations on exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect. *Human Relations*, 52(7), 895–922.
- Turnley, W.H. & Feldman, D.C. (2000). Re-examining the effects of psychological contract violations: unmet expectations and job dissatisfaction as mediators. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21, 25-42.
- Turnley, W.H., Bolino, M.C., Lester, S.W. & Bloodgood, J. (2003). The impact of psychological contract fulfillment on the performance of in-role and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Management*, 29(2), 187-206.
- UK Commission for Employment and Skills (UKCES). (2009). *The Employability Challenge*. UK Commission for Employment and Skills. Retrieved from <http://www.ukces.org.uk/publications/employabilitychallenge-full-report>
- UK Commission for Employment and Skills (UKCES). (2010). *Review of the Customer Experience in the Employment and Skills System*. UK Commission for Employment and Skills. Retrieved from <https://dera.ioe.ac.uk/1302/>
- UK Government. (2017). *Work Programme Minimum Service Delivery Standards*. Retrieved from https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/588013/work-programme-minimum-service-delivery-standards.pdf
- UK Parliament. (2013). Jobseeker's Allowance Regulations 2013. Social Security: No. 378. Retrieved from <https://www.legislation.gov.uk/uksi/2013/378/regulation/1/made>
- Urquijo, I., Extremera, N. & Solabarrieta, J. (2019). Connecting Emotion Regulation to Career Outcomes: Do Proactivity and Job Search Self-Efficacy Mediate This Link? *Psychology Research and Behavior Management*, 12, 1109-1120.
- Valkenburg, B. (2007). Individualising activation services: thrashing out an ambiguous concept. In Van Berkel, R. and Valkenburg, B. (Eds), *Making it Personal. Individualising Activation Services in the EU*. Bristol: Policy Press.
- van Berkel, R. (2013). Triple activation: introducing welfare to work into Dutch Social Assistance. In E. Brodtkin & G. Marston (Eds.), *Work and the welfare state: Street-level organizations and workfare politics*. (pp. 87-103). Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Press.
- van Berkel, R., Larsen, F., & Caswell, D. (2018). Introduction: Frontline delivery of

- welfare-to-work in different European contexts. *International Social Security Review*, 71(4), 3-11.
- van Berkel, R. & Valkenburg, B. (Eds). (2007). *Making it Personal. Individualising Activation Services in the EU*. Bristol: Policy Press.
- van Berkel, R. & van der Aa, P. (2012). Activation work: Policy programme administration or professional service provision? *Journal of Social Policy*, 41(3), 493–510.
- van Berkel, R., van der Aa, P. & van Gestel, N. (2010). Professionals without a profession? Redesigning case management in Dutch local welfare agencies. *European Journal of Social Work*, 13(4), 447–463.
- Vandendaele A., Bruyer T., & Jacobs G. (2016). “We Never Even Wondered Whether We Trusted Them or Not”: From Freedom to Mutuality in a Student Research Project. In: Alessi G.M., Jacobs G. (eds). *The Ins and Outs of Business and Professional Discourse Research. Communicating in Professions and Organizations*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Van der Heijden, B.I.J.M., Notelaers, G., Peters, P., Stoffers, J.M.M., De Lange, A., Froehlich, D.E., & Van der Heijde, C.M. (2018). Development and validation of the short-form employability five- factor instrument. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 106, 236-248.
- Van Ginneken, J.K. & Groenewold, G. (2012). A Single- vs. Multi-Item Self-Rated Health Status Measure: A 21-Country Study. *The Open Public Health Journal*, 5, 1-9.
- Vanhercke, D., De Cuyper, N., Peeters, E., & Witte, H. D. (2014). Defining perceived employability: A psychological approach. *Personnel Review*, 43(4), 592–605.
- Van Hooff, E. A. J., Born, M. P., Taris, T. W., Van der Flier, H., & Blonk, R. W. B. (2004). Predictors of Job Search Behavior Among Employed and Unemployed People. *Personnel Psychology*, 57(1), 25–59.
- Van Stolk, C., Rubin, J., & Grant, J. (2006). *Benchmarking of the Use of Personal Advisers in Jobcentre Plus*. Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation. Retrieved from https://www.rand.org/pubs/technical_reports/TR374.html
- Van Stolk, C., Hofman, J., Hafner, M., & Janta, B. (2014). *Psychological Wellbeing and Work: Improving Service Provision and Outcomes*. London: RAND Europe.
- Van Teijlingen, E. R., & Hundley, V. (2001). The importance of pilot studies. *Social Research Update*, (35). Retrieved from <https://aura.abdn.ac.uk/handle/2164/157>

- Vinokur, A. D., & Caplan, R. D. (1987). Attitudes and social support: Determinants of job seeking behavior and well-being among the unemployed. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 17*, 1007-1024
- Vinokur, A. D., & Schul, Y. (1997). Mastery and inoculation against set-backs as active ingredients in the JOBS intervention for the unemployed. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 65*(5), 867–877.
- Vinokur, A. D., & Schul, Y. (2002). The web of coping resources and pathways to reemployment following a job loss. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 7*(1), 68–83.
- Vinokur, A. D., Schul, Y., Vuori, J., & Price, R. H. (2000). Two years after a job loss: Long term impact of the JOBS program on reemployment and mental health. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 5*(1), 32-47.
- Viola, S., & Moncrieff, J. (2016). Claims for sickness and disability benefits owing to mental disorders in the UK: trends from 1995 to 2014. *British Journal of Psychiatry Open, 2*(1), 18-24.
- Vogt, W.P. (2011). *SAGE quantitative research methods*. London: SAGE.
- Wanberg, C. R. (1997). Antecedents and outcomes of coping behaviors among unemployed and reemployed individuals. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82*(5), 731–744.
- Wanberg, C.R. (2012). The individual experience of unemployment. *Annual Review of Psychology, 63*, 369–96.
- Wanberg, C.R., Glomb, T.M., Song, Z. & Sorenson, S. (2005). Job-Search Persistence During Unemployment: A 10-Wave Longitudinal Study. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*(3), 411-430.
- Wanberg, C. R., Hough, L. M., & Song, Z. (2002). Predictive validity of a multidisciplinary model of reemployment success. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(6), 1100–1120.
- Wanberg, C .R., Watt, J.D., & Rumsey, D.J. (1996). Individuals Without Jobs: An Empirical Study of Job-Seeking Behavior and Reemployment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81*(1), 76-87.
- Wang, M., Beal, D. J., Chan, D., Newman, D. A., Vancouver, J. B., & Vandenberg, R. J. (2017). Longitudinal research: A panel discussion on conceptual issues, research design, and statistical techniques. *Work, Aging and Retirement, 3*(1), 1-24.
- Wanous, J.P. & Reichers, A.E. (1996). Estimating the reliability of a single-item measure. *Psychological Reports, 78*, 631-634.

- Wanous, J. P., Reichers, A. E., & Hudy, M. J. (1997). Overall job satisfaction: How good are single-item measures? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82(2), 247–252.
- Weber, M.R., Crawford, A., Lee, J. & Dennison, D. (2013). An Exploratory Analysis of Soft Skill Competencies Needed for the Hospitality Industry. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality and Tourism*, 12(4), 313-332.
- Webster, D. (1997). *The L-U curve: on the non-existence of a long-term claimant unemployment trap and its implications for policies on employment and area regeneration, Occasional Paper 36*. University of Glasgow Department of Urban Studies, Glasgow: University of Glasgow.
- Webster, D. (2000). The geographical concentration of labour market disadvantage. *Oxford Review of Economic Policy*, 16(1), 114-128.
- Webster, D. (2005). Long-term unemployment, the invention of “hysteresis” and the misdiagnosis of structural unemployment in the UK. *Cambridge Journal of Economics*, 29(6), 975–995.
- Webster, D., Brown, J., Macdonald, E. & Turok, I. (2013) The interaction of health, labour market conditions and long-term sickness benefit claims in a post-industrial city: a Glasgow case study’ in C. Lindsay & D. Houston (eds). *Disability Benefits and Employment Policy*. Baskingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Weir, D.R., Faul, J.D. & Langa, K.M. (2011). Proxy interviews and bias in cognition measures due to non-response in longitudinal studies: a comparison of HRS and ELSA. *Longitudinal and Life Course Studies*, 2(2), 170–184.
- Welander, J., Blomberg, H. & Isaksson, K. (2020). Exceeded expectations: building stable psychological contracts among newly recruited social workers in a Swedish context. *Nordic Social Work Research*, 10(1), 66-79.
- Weston, K. (2012). Debating conditionality for disability benefits recipients and welfare reform: Research evidence from Pathways to Work. *Local Economy*, 27(5-6), 514-528.
- Wikhamn, W. & Hall, A.T. (2012). Social Exchange in a Swedish Work Environment. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 3(23), 56-64.
- Willcoxson, L., Cotter, J., & Joy, S. (2011). Beyond the first year experience: the impact on attrition of student experiences throughout undergraduate degree studies in six diverse universities. *Studies in Higher Education*, 36(3), 331-352.
- Williams, G. M., & Smith, A. P. (2016). Using Single-Item Measures to Examine the Relationships between Work, Personality, and Well-Being in the Workplace.

Psychology, 7, 753-767.

- Williams, M. (2015). *Delivering change: What Housing Associations can tell us about employment and skills*. London: Centre for Cities.
- Williams, S., Dodd, L. J., Steele, C., & Randall, R. (2016). A systematic review of current understandings of employability. *Journal of Education and Work*, 29(8), 877–901.
- Wilson, T., Bivand, P., Rahman, A., & Hoya, C. (2015). *Worklessness, welfare and social housing: a report for the National Housing Federation*. London: Centre for Economic and Social Inclusion.
- Windisch, H. C. (2015). *Adults with low literacy and numeracy skills: A literature review on policy intervention*. OECD Education Working Papers, No. 123. Paris: OECD Publishing.
- Wittekind, A., Raeder, S., & Grote, G. (2010). A longitudinal study of determinants of perceived employability. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 31(4), 566–586.
- Wright, S.E. (2003). *Confronting unemployment in a street-level bureaucracy: jobcentre staff and client perspectives*. PhD thesis, University of Stirling. Retrieved from <http://hdl.handle.net/1893/259>
- Wright, S. (2013). On ‘Activation Workers’ Perceptions’: A Reply to Dunn (2). *Journal of Social Policy*, 42(4), 829–837. Cambridge University Press.
- Yammarino, F.J. & Atwater, L.E. (1993). Understanding self-perception accuracy: implications for human resource management. *Human Resource Management*, 32(2-3), 231-247.
- Ye, J., Cardon., M.S., & Rivera, E. (2012). A mutuality perspective of psychological contracts regarding career development and job security. *Journal of Business Research*, 65, 294–301.
- Zagenczyk, T.J., Smallfield, J., Scott, K.L., Galloway, B. & Purvis, R.L. (2017). The Moderating Effect of Psychological Contract Violation on the Relationship between Narcissism and Outcomes: An Application of Trait Activation Theory. *Front. Psychol.* 8, 1113. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2017.01113
- Zhao, H., Wayne, S. J., Glibkowski, B., & Bravo, J. (2007). Impact of psychological contract breach on work-related outcomes: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, 60(2), 647-680.
- Zimet, G. D., Dahlem, N. W., Zimet, S. G., & Farley, G. K. (1988). The Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 52(1), 30-41.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1. *Twenty Years of Welfare-to-Work Policy and Employability (UK)*

Date	Changes/Introductions/Contract
1997	<p>New Deal for Lone Parents (NDLP)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The target group is lone mothers (aged 16 or over) on Income Support for six months or more and with a youngest child aged 5 years 3 months or over. They must be unemployed or working less than 16 hours per week. • NDLP consists of support while looking for work - advice on jobs, skills and required training, childcare, benefits – as well as in work support.
1998	<p>New Deal for Young People (NDYP)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Aged 18-24 and claiming Jobseeker’s Allowance continuously for six months • Mandatory; First enter a ‘Gateway’ period lasting up to four months with a view to improving employability and intense job searching. For those who do not enter employment they will move onto one of the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ 1 – subsidised employment lasting six months ○ 2 – a job with an Environmental Task Force ○ 3 – work in voluntary sector ○ 4 – full time education/training <p>New Deal for Long Term Unemployed (NDLTU)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mandatory participation for 25+ unemployed for 12/18/24 months (area dependent) • Personal Advisers offer advice and support and there are two main options (subsidised employment and education/training). <p>New Deal for Disabled People (NDDP)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Voluntary participation • Access to a Personal Adviser for IAG, advice on benefits they are entitled
1999	<p>New Deal for Partners of the Unemployed</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Voluntary participation with the option of joining NDYP or 25+ • Extends job search assistance and training opportunities to partners of unemployed <p>New Deal 50+</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Voluntary Participation for over 50s claiming JSA, IS or IB for at least 26 weeks. • Access to a Personal Adviser: Information and advice, training grants, benefit advice.
2000	<p>Employment Zone (EZ)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mandatory participation for clients receiving Income-Based Jobseeker’s Allowance (JSA-IB) who have been unemployed for 12 or 18 months (depending on the zone). • Participants work with a Personal Adviser to develop a SMART action plan of developmental needs while continuing to sign on at the Jobcentre. The total potential time on the contract is 52 weeks. Personal Advisers will advise on training, labour market and access employer services.

Appendix 1 continued.

Date	Changes/Introductions/Contract
2001	Job brokers introduced for NDDP to support clients in finding work
2002	JCP as 'one stop shop' not just benefit administrators, but WFIs for IS claimants
	New deal 25+ replaces NDLTU <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Those aged 25+ who have been claiming JSA 18 out of the last 21 months • Mandatory; Follows the NDYP model
2003	Pathways to Work <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Support for those on incapacity benefits • Work-focused interviews with trained Personal Advisers • Condition management programmes and work preparation programmes
	Job Retention and Rehabilitation pilots to offer In Work Support, or aftercare, to those with health conditions
	Employment Retention and Advancement to offer in work support, or aftercare, to lone parents and the long term unemployed
2004	Working Neighbourhood <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Within local areas often aligned with EZ. Various benefit claimants • Intensive support for job seeking
	New Deal for Skills: Support for skills development for 16-19 year olds – mainly England
2005	Children's Workforce Strategy <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work skills development for children
2007	Welfare Reform Act Passed
	Pathways to Work extended to other areas Proposals for contracting out Employability Programmes to private and voluntary companies (Freud, 2007)
2008	Employment and Support Allowance (ESA) introduced to replace Incapacity Benefit and Income Support (based on the grounds of disability)
	Work Capability Assessment introduced (in conjunction with ESA) to assess ability of individuals claiming health related benefits to work.
2009	Flexible New Deal goes live
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • FND is a 'black box' replacement for all New Deal provisions except NDDP & NDLP. • Providers are paid on sustained job entries and have the freedom to decide what their clients will do.
2011	Work Programme launched <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clients claiming JSA, ESA and IS are required to attend depending on entry criteria • Mandatory, tailored personalised support driven by activities to support a client to sustainable employment. Payment by results financial model.
2013	Welfare Reform The Coalition Government devised a system intended to encourage people into work by 'making work pay'. Welfare Reform introduced four main changes: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Universal credit (UC): single payment for individuals on low income, or unemployed 2. Benefit cap: placed on the total amount working-age people receive: £500/week for couples/single parent; £350/week for single adult households without children. 3. Bedroom Tax: helps bring stability to the housing market and improve incentives for people to find work / increase their hours. Aimed to ensure housing support is fair. 4. Personal Independence Payment (PIP): PIP will replace Disability Living Allowance; designed to be a more sustainable benefit and make sure support continues for those who face the greatest challenges

Appendix 2

The Work Programme (WP)

Launched in 2011, the Work Programme (WP), a mandatory employability programmes, was commissioned to support and progress long-term benefit claimants towards employment (DWP, 2012). Nationally commissioned and delivered locally through specialist supply chains comprised of private, voluntary and public-sector providers, the WP was managed by HM Government but delivered by 18 ‘prime’ contractors (DWP, 2012). Some of the primes further subcontracted service delivery to smaller, local ‘providers’.

The Conservative-led Coalition Government placed the WP at the heart of its plans to tackle unemployment, with a commitment to supporting sustainable employment for all jobseekers – but particularly those deemed ‘hard to help’ (DWP, 2012). Unlike previous contracts, the WP claimed to support a wide range of claimants with differing needs and circumstances: for example, Employment and Support Allowance (ESA), Jobseeker’s Allowance (JSA), Income Support (IS) and Incapacity Benefits (IB). Participation on the WP was primarily mandatory, and sanctions were raised if claimants did not adhere to their claimant commitment.

The DWP (2008) marketised the WP by allowing end-to-end contracts to be managed and delivered by a small number of ‘prime’ providers over 104 weeks. Should the jobseeker enter work, there is then a subsequent 104-week period of in-work support they are offered to ensure they have a point of contact if there are any issues. A payment-by-results (PbR) financial model linked performance and differentiated payments for client groups with ‘harder to help’ claimants providing greater financial reward. PbR also generated competition through market split with providers in each geographical area. In addition, payment markers focused on job outcomes (six months sustained employment) rather than job starts, to ensure clients were supported into sustainable employment, reducing the likelihood of a return to benefits.

The DWP (2012) addressed weaknesses in past programmes through the WP. For example, they provided a longer period of time to deliver the contracts and allowed more freedom and flexibility – ‘black box’ approach – to working with claimants. However, one of the key principles of the WP was that a personalised service should be delivered to all clients with a named adviser as their main point of contact.

The WP performed ‘relatively well overall’ (Employment Related Services Association (ERSA), 2018; Suleiman, 2014, p.4). For those claiming JSA, the WP has proved effective compared to predecessor programmes (Learning and Work Institute, 2013; 2015). However, this success is not evident for harder-to-help jobseekers (e.g. Ceolta-Smith, Salway & Tod, 2015; Considine, O’Sullivan & Nguyen, 2018a; Dudley, McEnhill & Steadman, 2016; House of Commons Work and Pensions Committee (HCWPC), 2013, 2014; Meager, Newton, Sainsbury, Corden & Irvine, 2014; National Audit Office (NAO), 2014; Newton et al., 2012; Rees, Taylor & Damm, 2013; Rees, Whitworth & Carter, 2014).

Appendix 3

Participant information sheet and consent form



Participant Information Sheet

Department of Human Resources

Title of Study: The impact of the customer/personal adviser relationship on employability outcomes in the welfare-to-work sector.

This research is being carried out by Joanna Butler, a student of Strathclyde University, as part of a PhD Qualification and is not connected to, or commissioned by, ORGANISATION X/Y. Any participation in this study does not affect the services provided to you by ORGANISATION X/Y. Similarly, if you choose not to participate, this will not affect the services provided to you by ORGANISATION X/Y.

Why have I been asked to participate?

This research is looking at how to better deliver employability services to individuals receiving employability support, by considering their relationship with their consultants and their progression towards employment. You have been asked to participate as you match the aforementioned criteria.

What will I have to do?

You will be asked to take part in a survey considering your current employability and expectations of your consultant. This is expected to last approximately 30 minutes and you are free to finish at any stage without giving a reason. This will then be repeated in 6 months to measure your progress and whether expectations have been met.

Do I have to take part?

No. Your participation is entirely voluntary and even if you do agree, you can withdraw from the study at any time without giving a reason.

Who will you pass the information on to?

- No one. The information you give me is anonymous and no one will know that it is from you. We will not record your name or national insurance number, or any other identifying features in the data.
- None of the information you tell me will be passed to your consultant or ORGANISATION X/Y without your consent.

- ORGANISATION X/Y will receive a report with the findings from all surveys, for example, areas of progression over a 6-month period, and the link between you and your consultant, but will not know who the information comes from.
- Anything you tell me will be kept confidential and will not be passed on to any third party unless it is perceived as a threat or harm to yourself or others.

Will you answer any questions I may have?

Yes. You can ask me questions any time before the surveys starts. Also, at the end of the survey you will be given the opportunity to ask any questions you may have, and you can contact me after the study as well.

Thank you for reading this information – please ask any questions if you are unsure about what is written here.

Researcher: *Joanna Butler, University of Strathclyde, Dept of Human Resource, Sir William Duncan Building, 130 Rottenrow, Glasgow, G4 0GE, T: (mobile phone purchased for research). E: joanna.butler@strath.ac.uk*

Supervisor: *Dr Colin Lindsay, University of Strathclyde, Dept of Human Resource, Sir William Duncan Building, 130 Rottenrow, Glasgow, G4 0GE; t: 0141 548 3976, E: colin.lindsay@strath.ac.uk*

Ethical Representative: *Dr Pauline Anderson, University of Strathclyde, Dept of Human Resource, Sir William Duncan Building, 130 Rottenrow, Glasgow, G4 0GE t: 0141 548 3071, E: pauline.anderson@strath.ac.uk*



Participant Consent Form

Department of Human Resources

Title of Study: The impact of the customer/personal adviser relationship on employability outcomes in the welfare-to-work sector.

- I have read the information sheet and have had the opportunity to ask any further questions about the study.
- I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet for the above project and the researcher has answered any queries to my satisfaction.
- I understand that my participation is entirely voluntary and that I may withdraw from the study at any time without giving a reason.
- I understand that all data will be anonymous and nothing which can identify me will be included in any publication or presentation.
- I understand that this research is for a PhD and is not commissioned by ORGANISATION X/Y.
- I understand that participating, or not participating, in this study does not affect the services provided to me by the provider.
- I understand that none of the information I provide will be passed on to my consultant.
- I understand that any information I disclose will not be passed on to a third party unless it is seen as a perceived threat or harm to myself or others.
- I understand that at any time after the study, I can contact the researcher to ask further questions.

I, _____ hereby agree to take part in the above project

(Print Name)

(Signature of Participant)

Date

Appendix 4

Client Questionnaire (Phase 1)

For each of the following sections please tick the box that best represents your situation.

Individual Circumstances

What is your current marital status?

- Single (or engaged but not living with a partner as a couple)
- Married or in a Civil Partnership
- Divorced
- Living with partner (cohabiting)
- Separated
- Widowed
- Refuse to Answer
- Don't Know

Regarding your housing status... is it?	Social Housing	Private Rental
Do you live alone?	Yes	No
Do you have any current addictions or dependencies?	Yes	No
Do you provide care to someone sick, disabled or elderly?	Yes	No
Are any of the members of your household in employment?	Yes	No

Skills

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I have problems with numeracy or maths.					
I have problems with reading and/or writing in English.					
My health condition does not impact my ability to find or keep a job					
I have good money management skills and am able to work to a budget					
I have good time management skills					
I have the interpersonal skills required for a work environment					
I have a lack of IT and Computer Skills					
My qualifications and skills are relevant to the current labour market					

Confidence in your own employability

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
It is important for me to find a job					
I am confident in my ability to find a job					
I know what my main challenges are in relation to getting and keeping a job					
I believe there are jobs available that I am able to apply for					
I believe I have barriers stopping me from staying in a job					
I am prepared to take on additional training to develop new skills if it will increase my chances of getting work					
I am prepared to take a job in a different industry or role					
I believe I am ready to work					
I am confident that I could successfully complete a job interview					
I am confident communicating with a future potential employer					
I'll never find someone who will employ me					
I can't/won't ever work					
I can keep a job when I get it					

Your commitment

To what extent have you made the following commitments or obligations to your adviser? Please tick the box that best matches your answer.

	Not at All	Slightly	Somewhat	A Lot	To a Great Extent
Adhere to DWP conditionality and jobseeker's contract					
Attend all appointments and courses with your provider					
Attend all appointments and courses with support providers					
Complete tasks as required on action plan					
Make adviser aware of any changes to circumstances					
Respect for adviser and other members of staff and customers					
Disclose barriers					
Honesty					
Build employability skills					
Seek out development opportunities					
Apply for jobs					
Commit to working					
Other: Please detail below					

Your adviser's commitment

To what extent has your adviser made the following commitment or obligation to you? Please tick the box that best matches your answer.

	Not at All	Slightly	Somewhat	A Lot	To a Great Extent
Help with writing a CV, job applications or interview skills					
Drawing up an action plan					
An assessment of your skills					
Financial support to help cover the costs associated with looking for work (e.g. travel expenses or childcare costs)					
A session on motivation or confidence					

Financial advice of some sort					
Referral to a careers adviser					
A place on a training course					
A work experience placement or voluntary work					
Support or training in maths, reading, writing or English language					
Support or advice on becoming self-employed					
Advice or support relating to your health or a disability					
Help with housing issues					
Help or advice related to having a criminal record					
Help or advice in relation to looking after children or adults					
Help with drug or alcohol problems					
Any other type of assessment, support, training or advice					
Fair treatment					
To provide you with job vacancies					
To help you obtain a further qualification					
Other: Please detail below					

Overall, to what extent has your adviser promised to provide you with support you need to move towards employment?					
Overall, to what extent have you promised to work with your adviser to progress towards employment?					

Thank You.

Appendix 5

Adviser Questionnaire (Phase 1)

For each of the following sections please tick the box that best represents your situation.

About You

Age	18-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65+
Gender	Male	Female	Prefer not to say			
Disability Status	Male	Female	Prefer not to say			
Ethnicity (free text):						
First language (free text):						
What is the highest level of qualification you have achieved?						
<input type="checkbox"/> No qualifications <input type="checkbox"/> Level 1: O Grade, Standard Grade or equivalent (SVQ level 1 or 2) <input type="checkbox"/> Level 2: Higher, A level or equivalent (SVQ Level 3) <input type="checkbox"/> Level 3: HNC/HND or equivalent (SVQ Level 4) <input type="checkbox"/> Level 4: Degree, Professional qualification (Above SVQ Level 4) <input type="checkbox"/> Other qualifications						
Duration at ORGANISATION X/Y (free text):						
Duration in Employability Sector (free text):						
Work Pattern	Full time		Part time			
Do you see ORGANISATION X/Y's role as being similar to the government or JobCentre?	Yes		No		Unsure	
Do you consider yourself to be:	A public sector employee		A private sector employee		Unsure	
					Prefer not to say	

Current Performance Rating

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I always achieve my job target				
I always achieve my compliance target				
I always score satisfactory or above in observations				
I have never received a complaint				

Your customer's employability

On a scale of 0-10 how close do you think your customer is to gaining employment? (circle a number below)												
Not at all Likely											Extremely Likely	
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		

Your customer's commitment

To what extent has your customer made the following commitment or obligation to you? Please tick the box that best matches your answer.

	Not at All	Slightly	Somewhat	A Lot	To a Great Extent
Adhere to DWP conditionality and jobseeker's contract					
Attend all appointments and courses with your provider					
Attend all appointments and courses with support providers					
Complete tasks as required on action plan					
Make adviser aware of any changes to circumstances					
Respect for adviser and other members of staff and customers					
Disclose barriers					
Honesty					
Build employability skills					
Seek out development opportunities					

Apply for jobs					
Commit to working					
Other: Please detail below					

Your commitment to your customer

To what extent have you made the following commitment or obligation to your customer? Please tick the box that best matches your answer.

	Not at All	Slightly	Somewhat	A Lot	To a Great Extent
Help with writing a CV, job applications or interview skills					
Drawing up an action plan					
An assessment of your skills					
Financial support to help cover costs associated with looking for work (e.g. travel expenses or childcare costs)					
A session on motivation or confidence					
Financial advice of some sort					
Referral to a careers adviser					
A place on a training course					
A work experience placement or voluntary work					
Support or training in maths, reading, writing or English language					
Support or advice on becoming self-employed					
Advice or support relating to your health or a disability					
Help with housing issues					
Help or advice related to having a criminal record					
Help or advice in relation to looking after children or adults					
Help with drug or alcohol problems					
Any other type of assessment, support, training or advice					
Fair treatment					
To provide you with job vacancies					

To help you obtain a further qualification					
Other: Please detail below					

Overall, to what extent have you promised your customer to provide them with support they need to move towards employment?					
Overall, to what extent has your customer promised to work with you to progress themselves towards employment?					

Thank You

Appendix 6

Client Questionnaire (Phase 2)

You may recognise the following questions. Six months ago, you were asked these questions about your skills and confidence. This section is asking the same questions again to look at any changes that have occurred. Please mark in the box of the most accurate response.

Please tick the box that best matches your answer.

Which of the following do you have? (tick all that apply):	CV References	Bank account Driver's licence	Birth certificate	Interview clothing		
Are you actively seeking employment?	Yes	No				
How many hours a week do you spend looking for work?	Up to 5 hours	Between 5 to 10 hours	Between 10 - 16 hours	16 hours +		
How often do you apply for work?	Weekly	Monthly	Every couple of months			
Where are you currently looking for work? (tick as many as apply):	Newspapers	Internet	JobCentre	Through friends and family	Direct contact with employers	Job agencies
Which of the following have you completed in the last 6 months? (select both if applicable):	Application form (written or online)	Job interview				

	Yes	No
Do you consider that transport may be an issue in getting to work or getting a job?		
Do you think there are jobs available where you would be willing to travel to work?		
Do you think you would be better off financially in work?		
Do you have a criminal conviction?		

Do you provide care to someone sick, disabled or elderly?			
Are any of the members of your household in employment?			
Have you participated in voluntary work or work placements in the last 6 months?			
Have you obtained a work-related/vocational qualification?			
Do you have a long-term career goal?			
If you have children, are you a single parent?			
If you have children, do you require childcare?			
If you have children, would they affect you being able to work?			

How confident are you with the following?

	Not at All Confident	Somewhat Confident	Confident	Very Confident
Job searching				
Completing application forms				
Job Interviews				
Using a computer				
Accessing the Internet				
Sending and receiving mail				
Word Processing documents				

Employability: *as per Appendix 3*

Commitments: *as per Appendix 3, with the introduction reworded (see Chapter 5): “Six months ago, you were asked about your commitment to your adviser, and their commitment to you. The next section will ask to what extent these expectations have been met”*

Psychological Contract Breach

Please answer how you have felt over the past 6 months in regard to your adviser's promises, commitments and obligations. Please tick the box that best matches your answer.

	Not at All	Slightly	Somewhat	A Lot	To a Great Extent
Almost all the promises made by my adviser have been kept so far					
My adviser has come through in fulfilling the promises made to me when I started					
So far my adviser has done an excellent job of fulfilling their promise to me					
I have not received everything promised to me in exchange for my contributions					
My adviser has broken many of their promises to me even though I've upheld my side of the deal					

Psychological Contract Violation – *excluded from analysis*

Please tick the box that best matches your answer.

	Not at All	Slightly	Somewhat	A Lot	To a Great Extent
I feel a great deal of anger toward my adviser					
I feel betrayed by my adviser					
I feel that my adviser has violated the contract between us					
I feel extremely frustrated by how I have been treated by my adviser					

Section 6: Perceived Procedural Justice and Trust – *excluded from analysis*

Given your efforts and contributions, when thinking about how well you and your adviser delivered on promises, commitments and obligations, to what extent do you agree with the following statements?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree / Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Decisions are made by my adviser in a fair manner.					
My adviser makes sure my concerns are heard before decisions are made.					
To make decisions, my adviser collects accurate and complete information.					

My adviser clarifies decisions & provides additional information when requested.					
All decisions are applied consistently to all of my adviser's customers.					
Customers are allowed to challenge or appeal decisions made by their adviser					
I am not sure I fully trust my adviser.					
My adviser is open and upfront with me.					
I believe my adviser has high integrity.					
In general, I believe my adviser's motives and intentions are good.					
My adviser is always honest and truthful.					
I consider what is expected of me from my adviser to be fair.					
I can expect my adviser to treat me in a consistent and predictable fashion.					

Section 7: Organisational Citizenship Behaviours– *excluded from analysis*

Given your efforts and contributions, when thinking about how well you and your adviser delivered on promises, commitments and obligations, to what extent do you agree with the following statements?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree /Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
My attendance is above the norm.					
I obey the rules and regulations even when no one is watching.					
I attend appointments that are not mandatory, but considered important.					
I attend meetings & appointments that are not required, but help the adviser help me.					
I give advance notice when I am unable to come in.					
I am always punctual.					
I always find faults with what the adviser is doing.					
I tend to make a “mountain out of molehills”.					
I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.					

Thank you for your time

Appendix 7

Adviser Questionnaire (Phase 2)

You may recognise the following questions. This survey is designed to assess any changes in your customers' employability within the last 6 months and should take 6 minutes. While some questions may seem like they are repeated, they are measuring different constructs, so please answer all as best you can. Please mark in the box of the most accurate response.

Section 1: About you

Only answer once and skip if completing more than one survey.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I always achieve my job target					
I always achieve my compliance target					
I always score satisfactory or above in observations					
I have never received a complaint					

Section 2: Your customer's employability

Did your customer always have the same adviser?	Yes	No										
On a scale of 0-10 how close do you think your customer is to gaining employment? (circle a number below):												
Not at all Likely	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Extremely Likely

Since your customer first started on the Work Programme, to what extent...

	Not at All	Slightly	Somewhat	A Lot	To a Great Extent
... has your customer's ability to job search increased?					
... has your customer's attitude to working improved?					
... have your customer's chances of employment increased?					

Section 3: Your customer's commitment – as per appendix 4, with question reworded (See Chapter 5)

Section 4: Psychological Contract Breach

Please answer how you have felt over the past 6 months in regard to your customer's promises, commitments and obligations. Please tick the box that best matches your answer.

	Not at All	Slightly	Somewhat	A Lot	To a Great Extent
Almost all the promises made by my customer have been kept so far					
I feel that my customer has come through in fulfilling the promises made to me when I started					
So far my customer has done an excellent job of fulfilling their promise to me					
I have not received everything promised to me in exchange for my contributions					
My customer has broken many of their promises to me even though I've upheld my side of the deal					

Section 5: Trust – excluded from analysis

Given your efforts and contributions, when thinking about how well your customer delivered on their promises, commitments and obligation to you, over the last 6 months, to what extent do you agree with the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am not sure I fully trust my customer.					

My customer is open and upfront with me.					
I believe my customer has high integrity.					
In general, I believe my customer's motives and intentions are good.					
My customer is always honest and truthful.					
I consider what is expected of me from my customer to be fair.					
I can expect my customer to treat me in a consistent and predictable fashion.					

Section 6: Organisational Citizenship Behaviours – *excluded from analysis*

Considering your customer's participation over the past 6 months, please select the most accurate response.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree / Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Their attendance is above the norm					
They obey the rules and regulations even when no one is watching					
They attend appointments that are not mandatory, but considered important					
They attend meetings and appointments that are not required, but help them					
They give advance notice when unable to come in					
They are always punctual					
They always find faults with what I am doing.					
They tend to make a “mountain out of molehills”.					
They consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.					

Appendix 8

Table 1. Differences in adviser characteristics across provider organisations (frequency) (N = 27)

Category	Characteristics	Org X (n = 23)	Org Y (n = 4)	Inferential	p Value
Age Range	Aged 18-24	2	0	3.314	.506
	Aged 25-34	8	1		
	Aged 35-44	7	3		
	Aged 45-54	4	0		
	Aged 55-64	2	0		
Gender	Male	9	0	2.348	.125
	Female	14	4		
Education	Level 1: Standard Grade/Equivalent	3	0	2.375	.498
	Level 2: Higher, A Level /Equivalent	4	1		
	Level 3: HNC/HND Or Equivalent	6	0		
	Level 4: Degree, Professional Qual	10	3		
	No Qualifications	0	0		
Work Pattern	Part-Time	3	1	.386	.534
	Full Time	20	3		
Tenure (M, SD)	Provider	3.79 (2.22)	3.43 (2.38)	.296	.769
	Sector	5.33 (5.94)	6.13 (1.43)	-.264	.794
Organisation Type	Public	7	3	5.077	.079
	Private	14	0		
	Unsure	2	1		
Organisation Similar To JCP Or Government	No	9	2	.827	.661
	Yes	11	1		
	Unsure	3	1		

Table 2. Differences in adviser self-reported performance across provider organisations (frequency) (N = 27)

Item	Rating	Org X (n = 23)	Org Y (n = 4)	Inferential	P Value
I Always Achieve My Job Target	Strongly Disagree	1	0	2.379	.498
	Disagree	8	0		
	Agree	11	3		
	Strongly Agree	3	1		
I Always Achieve My Compliance Target	Strongly Disagree	1	0	.894	.827
	Disagree	3	0		
	Agree	13	3		
	Strongly Agree	6	1		
I Always Score Satisfactory Or Above In Observations	Strongly Disagree	1	0	.437	.933
	Disagree	1	0		
	Agree	14	3		
	Strongly Agree	6	1		
I Have Never Received A Complaint	Strongly Disagree	3	0	1.039	.792
	Disagree	16	3		
	Agree	1	0		
	Strongly Agree	3	1		
Adviser Performance (adviser hit target) (CEO)	Yes	14	4	2.348	.125
	No	9	0		

Appendix 9

Differences in client characteristics across provider organisations (%) (N = 102)

Characteristics	Org X (n = 84)	Org Y (n = 18)	Inferential	p Value
Employability Index	113.88 (15.9)	111.72 (22.66)	.482	.631
Age Mean (SD)	34.16 (13.2)	38.11 (14.56)	-1.134	.260
Gender			.001	.975
Male	60.7	61.1		
Female	39.3	38.9		
Benefit Type			10.905	.012
Jobseekers Allowance (JSA)	77.4	50	5.580	.018
Employment Support Allowance (ESA)	16.7	22.2	.315	.575
Universal Credit (UC)	4.8	27.8	9.761	.002
No health condition	61.8	55.6	.251	.617
Length of Unemployment			4.008	.947
Less than 3 months	3.6	5.6		
3-6 months	2.4	5.6		
6-12 months	10.7	11.1		
12-18 months	22.6	11.1		
18-24 months	3.6	0		
24-36 months	11.9	11.1		
3 – 4 years	6	5.6		
4-5 years	1.2	5.6		
5-6 years	3.6	5.6		
> 6 years	16.7	16.7		
Never Worked	17.9	22.2		
Highest Level of Qualification			5.589	.348
No Qualifications	33.3	33.3		
level 1: SQA1/2 Equivalent	22.6	44.4		
level 2: SQA3 Equivalent	11.9	0		
level 3: SQA4 Equivalent	13.1	5.6		
level 4: Degree	7.1	5.6		
Unknown	11.9	11.1		
SIMD Ranking			8.300	.504
SIMD 1	31	61.1	5.833	.016
Labour Demand /Jobs Density Ratio			10.200	.001
.58	20.2	0		
.65	11.9	0		
.66	2.4	0		
.67	0	100		
.79	9.5	0		
.81	16.7	0		
1.02	8.3	0		
1.06	31	0		

Appendix 10

Employability Index Components, Scaling, Reliability, Source and Phase

			Scale		Cronbach Alpha	Data Source		Phase	
Variable category or scale	Question / item	Type of data measurement scale and response	Min	Max	α	Org.	Survey	1	2
Presentation and deployment of assets	Do you have a: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CV • Driving License • References • Birth Certificate • Bank Account • Interview Clothing • No Criminal Conviction 	Nominal (dichotomous): yes (1), no (0)	0	7	-	x		x	x
	Actively seeking employment?	Nominal (dichotomous): yes (1), no (0)	0	1	-	x		x	x
	How many hours a week do you spend looking for work?	Nominal: no hours (0) /up to 5 hours (1) / between 5 to 10 hours (2) / between 10 to 16 hours (3) / 16 hours + (4)	0	4	-	x		x	x
	How often do you apply for work?	Nominal: Never (0) / Every couple of months (1) / Monthly (2) / Weekly (3)	0	3	-	x			
	In the last 3 months have you: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • completed any application forms (written or online)? • attended any job interviews? 	Nominal (dichotomous): yes (1), no (0)	0	2	-	x		x	x
Knowledge of recruitment practices; use of information sources	Where are you currently looking for work?	Nominal (multi-selection): newspapers / internet / job centre / through family & friends (word of mouth) / direct contact with employers / recruitment agencies	0	6	-	x		x	x

			Scale		Cronbach Alpha	Data Source		Phase	
Variable category or scale	Question / item	Type of data measurement scale and response	Min	Max	α	Org.	Survey	1	2
Impact of health condition	My health condition does not impact my ability to find or keep a job	4-point scale: strongly disagree (1) / disagree (2) / agree (3) / strongly agree (4).	1	4	-		x	x	x
General skills: Basic and key transferable skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I have problems with reading and/or writing in English • I have problems with numeracy or maths • I lack IT skills • I have good money management skills and am able to work to a budget • I have good time management skills • I have the interpersonal skills required for a work environment 	4-point scale: strongly disagree (1) / disagree (2) / agree (3) / strongly agree (4).	6	24	.72	x	x	x	x
IT Skills Confidence	Are you confident with using: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A computer? • The internet? • Email? • Word processing? 	4-point scale: not at all confident (1) / not very confident (2) / confident (3) / very confident (4)	4	16	.96				
Job-search confidence	Are you confident: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Searching for work? • Completing application forms? • Attending job interviews? 	4-point scale: not at all confident (1) / not very confident (2) / confident (3) / very confident (4)	3	12	.85				

			Scale		Cronbach Alpha	Data Source		Phase	
Variable category or scale	Question / item	Type of data measurement scale and response	Min	Max	α	Org.	Survey	1	2
Education and qualifications	Do you have any work-related qualifications?	Nominal (dichotomous): yes (1) or no (0).	0	1	-			x	x
Overall work history	Do you have a work history?	Nominal (dichotomous): yes (1) / no (0)	0	1	-	x		x	x
Attitudes to unpaid work/volunteering	I have participated in voluntary work or work placements in the last 6 months.	Nominal (dichotomous): yes (1), no (0)	0	1	-	x		x	x
Career identity: goals	Do you have a long-term job goal or aspiration?	Nominal (dichotomous): yes (1), no (0)	0	1	-	x		x	x
	I wish to participate in voluntary work or work placements.	Nominal (dichotomous): yes (0), no (1)	0	1	-	x		x	x
Attitudes to paid employment, self-employment	How interested are you in exploring self-employment?	Nominal: no interest (1) / some interest (2) / interested (3) / very interested (4)	1	4	-	x		x	x
Safe, secure, affordable and appropriate housing	Housing categorise as 'risky' or 'unstable'	Nominal - 1 if any of the below are selected: live with friends or relatives / supported housing / traveller / temporary / at risk of losing home / homeless	0	1	-				
Direct caring responsibilities	Would your children or other dependents affect you being able to work?	Nominal (dichotomous): yes (0), no (1)	0	1	-	x	x	x	x
	Do you require childcare?	Nominal: yes (0), no (1); maybe/unsure (0.5)	0	1	-			x	x

			Scale		Cronbach Alpha	Data Source		Phase	
Variable category or scale	Question / item	Type of data measurement scale and response	Min	Max	α	Org.	Survey	1	2
Access to transport:	Do you consider that transport may be an issue in getting to work or getting a job?	Nominal (dichotomous): yes (0), no (1)	0	1	-	x	x	x	x
Location of jobs and local transport networks	Do you think there are jobs available where you would be willing to travel to work?	4-point scale: strongly disagree (1) / disagree (2) / agree (3) / strongly agree (4).	1	4	-		x	x	x
Access to social capital / support	In relation to looking for and obtaining employment... <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • My family is supportive of me • My friends are supportive of me • I have someone to rely on from outside my household. 	4-point scale: strongly disagree (1) / disagree (2) / agree (3) / strongly agree (4).	3	12	-		x	x	x
Access to financial capital	Do you think you would be better off financially in work?	Nominal: yes (0), maybe (1); no (2)	0	2	-	x		x	x
Local labour market	I am confident that my qualifications and skills are relevant to the current labour market	4-point scale: strongly disagree (1) / disagree (2) / agree (3) / strongly agree (4).	1	4	-	x	x	x	x
Recruitment norms	I believe that local recruitment practices allow me to apply for vacancies	4-point scale: strongly disagree (1) / disagree (2) / agree (3) / strongly agree (4).	1	4	-	x	x	x	x
Work incentives	The government provides adequate support and incentives to support me in improving my employability	4-point scale: strongly disagree (1) / disagree (2) / agree (3) / strongly agree (4).	1	4	-		x	x	x

Appendix 11

Tests of multicollinearity as demonstrated by VIF scores at final iteration

Variable	VIF
<i>Control</i>	
Adviser Performance	1.11
<i>Antecedents</i>	
Age	1.39
Gender	1.13
Health	1.80
Length of unemployment	1.23
SIMD Decile	1.10
<i>Independent Variables</i>	
Employability Index	1.90
Reciprocity(C)	1.47
Reciprocity(A)	2.15
Mutuality(C)	1.98
Mutuality(A)	1.43

Appendix 12

Factor Analysis of Measures used in regression: Antecedents, Employability Index, Mutuality and Reciprocity

	Loadings			
	Component 1	Component 2	Component 3	Component 4
Employability Index	.879			
No health conditions	.805			
Age	-.515			
Mutuality _(C)		-.852		
Reciprocity _(A)		.816		
Mutuality _(A)			.848	
Reciprocity _(C)			-.824	
Gender				.649
Length of Unemployment				-.599
SIMD				.585
Eigenvalue	1.92	1.79	1.49	1.37
% Of total variance	19.18	17.85	14.90	13.68
Total variance	19.18	37.02	51.92	65.61

The determinant at .129 was greater than .01 and all communalities were greater than 0.4. The KMO was .546, and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance (189.85, df=45, $p < .001$). Using Varimax with Kaiser Normalization rotation converged in five iterations, producing three components with eigenvalues greater than 1, explaining 65.61 per cent of the variance. Therefore, relationship factors contribute to employability, making up, according to PCA, a substantial amount of variance, following employability and two significant antecedents. Thus, the range of employability factors were analysed through binary logistic regression to identify specific predictors of employment outcomes.

Appendix 13

Table 1. *Employment outcomes for the client sample: Phases 1 Antecedents (N=102)*

	All Clients (N = 102)	Entered Employment (n = 54)	Did Not Enter Employment (n = 48)	Inferential Test		
	<i>Freq (%)</i>	<i>Freq (%)</i>	<i>Freq (%)</i>	<i>Chi-Square</i>	<i>T-test</i>	<i>p value</i>
Age (Mean, SD)	34.85 (13.46)	32.04 (12.74)	38.02 (13.66)		2.28	.024
18-24	32 (31.4)	22 (31.4)	10 (20.8)	4.68		.031
25-49	50 (49)	24 (44.4)	26 (25.5)	.96		.327
50+	20 (19.6)	8 (14.8)	12 (25)	1.67		.196
Gender						
Male	62 (60.8)	42 (77.8)	20 (41.7)	13.90		.000
Female	40 (39.2)	12 (22.2)	28 (58.3)			
Nationality				6.37		.384
White British	92 (90.2)	50 (92.6)	42 (87.5)	.75		.388
White Other	3 (2.9)	0	3 (6.3)	3.48		.062
Australian	1 (1)	0	1 (2.1)	1.14		.286
Asian/Asian British	2 (2)	1 (1.9)	1 (2.1)	.01		.933
European	4 (4)	3 (5.7)	1 (2.1)	.90		.343
Marital Status				4.98		.418
Single	69 (76.6)	39 (72.2)	30 (62.5)	1.10		.295
Married/Civil Partnership	7 (6.9)	4 (7.4)	3 (6.3)	.05		.817
Living / partner	12 (11.8)	4 (7.4)	8 (16.7)	2.10		.147
Separated	6 (5.9)	4 (7.4)	2 (4.2)	.48		.487
Divorced	6 (5.9)	3 (5.6)	3 (6.3)	.02		.882
Widowed	2 (2)	0	2 (4.2)	2.30		.130
Care for sick /disabled Children (< 18)	10 (9.8)	6 (11.1)	4 (8.3)	0.22		.638
Single parent (n=31)	31 (30.4)	17 (31.5)	14 (29.2)	0.06		.800
Other members / household employed	14 (45.2)	8 (57.1)	6 (42.9)	0.06		.815
	30 (29.4)	16 (29.6)	14 (29.2)	.003		.959
Benefit Type				3.41		.332
JSA	74 (72.5)	41 (75.9)	33 (68.8)	.66		.418
ESA	18 (17.6)	7 (13)	11 (22.9)	1.73		.188
Universal Credit	9 (8.8)	6 (11.1)	3 (6.3)	.75		.388
Income Support	1 (1)	0	1 (2.1)	1.14		.286
Health / well-being +						
Physical Condition	5 (4.9)	0	5 (10.4)	5.92		.015
Sensory condition	3 (2.9)	0	3 (6.3)	3.48		.062
Mental health	18 (17.6)	5 (9.3)	13 (27.1)	5.56		.018
Learning Disability	11 (10.8)	6 (11.1)	5 (10.4)	0.01		.910
Long-standing condition	16 (15.7)	6 (11.1)	10 (4.8)	1.82		.178
No health condition	62 (60.8)	41 (75.9)	21 (43.8)	11.04		.001
No. of conditions (Mean, SD)	0.55 (0.79)	0.31 (0.64)	0.81 (0.87)		3.32	.001

Data Source: Provider data and Survey of clients. +multiple response question

Table 1 continued.

	All Clients (N = 102)	Entered Employment (n = 54)	Did Not Enter Employment (n = 48)	Inferential Test		
	<i>Freq (%)</i>	<i>Freq (%)</i>	<i>Freq (%)</i>	<i>Chi-Square</i>	<i>T-test</i>	<i>p value</i>
Length of Unemployment				26.34		.001
Less than 3 months	4 (3.9)	4 (7.4)	0	3.70		.054
3-6 months	3 (2.9)	2 (3.7)	1 (2.1)	.23		.629
6-12 months	11 (10.8)	8 (14.8)	3 (6.3)	1.94		.164
12-18 months	21 (20.6)	14 (25.9)	7 (14.6)	2.00		.157
18-24 months	3 (2.9)	3 (5.6)	0	2.75		.097
24-36 months	12 (11.8)	6 (11.1)	6 (12.5)	.05		.828
3 – 4 years	6 (5.9)	4 (7.4)	2 (4.2)	.48		.487
4-5 years	2 (2)	1 (1.9)	1 (2.1)	.01		.933
5-6 years	4 (3.9)	0	4 (8.3)	4.68		.030
6 years +	17 (16.7)	2 (3.7)	15 (31.3)	13.88		.000
Never Worked	19 (18.6)	10 (18.5)	9 (18.8)	.001		.976
Highest Level of Qualification				5.11		.402
No Qualifications	34 (33.3)	17 (31.5)	17 (35.4)	.18		.674
level 1: SQA1/2 Equivalent	27 (26.5)	14 (25.9)	13 (27.1)	.02		.895
level 2: SQA3 Equivalent	10 (9.8)	8 (14.8)	2 (4.2)	3.26		.071
level 3: SQA4 Equivalent	12 (11.8)	7 (13)	5 (10.4)	.16		.690
level 4: Degree	7 (6.9)	4 (7.4)	3 (6.3)	.05		.817
Unknown	12 (11.8)	4 (7.4)	8 (16.7)	2.10		.147
Office location				.03		.861
Paisley	14 (13.7)	8 (14.8)	6 (12.5)	.12		.735
Ayr	8 (7.8)	5 (9.3)	3 (6.3)	.32		.573
Kilmarnock	2 (2)	0	2 (4.2)	2.30		.130
Irvine	17 (16.7)	10 (18.5)	7 (14.6)	.28		.595
Airdrie	6 (5.9)	2 (3.7)	4 (8.3)	.98		.321
Kirkcaldy	1 (1)	0	1 (2.1)	1.14		.286
Dunfermline	4 (3.9)	4 (7.4)	0	3.70		.054
Glasgow	26 (25.5)	13 (24.1)	13 (27.1)	.12		.728
Motherwell	11 (10.8)	2 (3.7)	9 (18.8)	5.98		.014
Edinburgh	7 (6.9)	4 (7.4)	3 (6.3)	.05		.817
Craigneuk	1 (1)	1 (1.9)	0	.90		.343
Hamilton	5 (4.9)	5 (9.3)	0	4.67		.031

Data Source: Provider data and Survey of clients.

Table 1 continued.

	All Clients (N = 102)	Entered Employment (n = 54)	Did Not Enter Employment (n = 48)	Inferential test		
	<i>Freq (%)</i>	<i>Freq (%)</i>	<i>Freq (%)</i>	<i>Chi-Square</i>	<i>T-test</i>	<i>p value</i>
Home Location / SIMD				15.13		.087
1	37 (36.3)	13 (24.1)	24 (50)	7.39		.007
2	21 (20.6)	12 (22.2)	9 (18.8)	.19		.665
3	17 (16.7)	13 (24.1)	4 (8.3)	4.53		.033
4	8 (7.8)	5 (9.3)	3 (6.3)	.32		.573
5	6 (5.9)	2 (3.7)	4 (8.3)	.98		.321
6	5 (4.9)	4 (7.4)	1 (2.1)	1.55		.214
7	1 (1)	0	1 (2.1)	1.14		.286
8	3 (2.9)	3 (5.6)	0	2.75		.097
9	2 (2)	1 (1.9)	1 (2.1)	.01		.933
10	2 (2)	1 (1.9)	1 (2.1)	.01		.933
Housing Situation						
Shared Rental	6 (5.9)	1 (1.9)	5 (10.4)	3.37		.067
Rent on Own	37 (36.3)	21 (38.9)	16 (33.3)	.34		.560
Homeowner	6 (5.9)	4 (7.4)	2 (4.2)	.48		.487
Live with Friends/Relatives	31 (30.4)	19 (35.2)	12 (25)	1.25		.264
Supported Housing	5 (3.9)	2 (3.7)	3 (6.3)	.35		.552
Temporary	3 (2.9)	2 (3.7)	1 (2.1)	.23		.629
At risk of losing home	1 (1)	0	1 (2.1)	1.14		.286
Homeless	2 (2)	0	2 (4.2)	2.30		.130
Other	11 (10.8)	5 (9.3)	6 (12.5)	.28		.598
Housing Type				.01		.921
Private	28 (27.5)	16 (29.6)	12 (25)	.27		.601
Social	57 (55.9)	28 (51.9)	29 (60.4)	.76		.385
Other / Live with Parents	9 (8.8)	6 (11.1)	3 (6.3)	.75		.388
Unknown	8 (7.8)	4 (7.4)	4 (8.3)	.03		.862
Labour Demand				13.11		.070
.58	(17) 16.7	10	7	.283		.595
.65	(10) 9.8	9	1	6.11		.013
.66	2 (2)	0	2	2.30		.130
.67	18 (17.6)	5	13	5.56		.018
.79	8 (7.8)	5	3	.32		.573
.81	14 (13.7)	8	6	.12		.735
1.02	7 (6.9)	4	3	.05		.817
1.06	26 (25.5)	13	13	.12		.728
<1	33 (32.4)	17	16	.040		.842
>1	69 (67.6)	37	32			

Data Source: Provider data and Survey of clients.

Table 2. *Employment outcomes for the client sample: Phase 1 Employability Index (N=102) (M, SD)*

	All Clients (N = 102)	Entered Employment (n = 54)	Did Not Enter Employment (n = 48)	T- test	p value
Employability Index	113.5 (17.7)	120.67 (14.24)	105.44 (16.72)	- 4.97	<.001
Health NOT a barrier	2.57 (1.04)	2.76 (1.13)	2.35 (0.89)	- 1.99	.049
Personal Attributes	3.19 (0.52)	3.38 (0.55)	2.97 (0.52)	- 4.30	<.001
Employment Orientation	3.51 (0.53)	3.63 (0.42)	3.37 (0.61)	- 2.55	.012
Perceived Employability	3.03 (0.73)	3.31 (0.63)	2.73 (0.71)	- 4.32	<.001
Job Search Self- Efficacy	2.97 (0.72)	3.19 (0.62)	2.74 (0.75)	- 3.32	.001
Immediacy of Employment	3.14 (0.68)	3.37 (0.59)	2.88 (0.68)	- 3.93	<.001
General Skills Average	3.04 (0.52)	3.18 (0.51)	2.88 (0.49)	- 3.07	.003
Issues with Maths (rev)	2.98 (0.81)	3.13 (0.78)	2.81 (0.82)	2.01	.047
Issues with English (Rcv)	3.30 (0.77)	3.41 (0.81)	3.19 (0.70)	- 1.45	.150
Good money/budget skills	2.88 (0.84)	3.09 (0.81)	2.65 (0.81)	- 2.78	.006
Good time management skills	3.15 (0.76)	3.28 (0.76)	3.00 (0.74)	- 1.86	.066
Good interpersonal skills	3.05 (0.75)	3.19 (0.75)	2.90 (0.72)	- 1.97	.051
Lack IT / computer skills (Rev)	2.87 (0.92)	3.00 (0.95)	2.73 (0.87)	1.49	.138
IT Confidence Average	2.84 (0.86)	2.98 (0.85)	2.68 (0.86)	- 1.74	.086
Confident using a computer	2.96 (0.87)	3.11 (0.86)	2.79 (0.85)	- 1.88	.063
Confident accessing internet	2.94 (0.91)	3.11 (0.88)	2.75 (0.91)	-2.03	.045
Confident sending / receiving emails	2.88 (0.92)	3.02 (0.90)	2.73 (0.92)	- 1.61	.111
Confident word processing	2.57 (0.98)	2.67 (0.99)	2.46 (0.97)	- 1.07	.286
Job Search Confidence	2.54 (0.72)	2.74 (0.65)	2.31 (0.74)	- 3.16	.002
Confident job searching	2.6 (0.84)	2.78 (0.74)	2.40 (0.89)	-2.36	.020
Confident completing application forms	2.58 (0.86)	2.81 (0.80)	2.31 (0.85)	- 3.06	.003
Confident attending job interviews	2.43 (0.80)	2.63 (0.76)	2.21 (0.80)	- 2.72	.007

Data Source: Survey of clients.

Table 2 continued.

	All Clients (<i>N</i> = 102)	Entered Employment (<i>n</i> = 54)	Did Not Enter Employment (<i>n</i> = 48)	Inferential Test		
	<i>Freq</i> (%)	<i>Freq</i> (%)	<i>Freq</i> (%)	<i>Chi-Square</i>	<i>T-test</i>	<i>p value</i>
Long-term career goal	50 (49)	32 (59.3)	18 (37.5)	4.81		.028
Volunteering Goal	8 (7.8)	0	8 (6)	9.77		.002
Interest in Self-employment				6.76		.009
No interest	40 (39.2)	14 (25.9)	26 (54.2)	8.50		.004
Some interest	37 (36.3)	23 (42.6)	14 (29.2)	1.98		.159
Interested	19 (18.6)	13 (24.1)	6 (12.2)	2.25		.134
V. interested	6 (5.9)	4 (7.4)	2 (4.2)	.48		.487
Work Qualifications	41 (40.2)	28 (51.9)	13 (27.1)	6.46		.011
Work History	78 (76.5)	43 (79.6)	35 (72.9)	0.64		.425
Volunteering 6 months prior	22 (21.6)	12 (22.2)	10 (20.8)	0.03		.865
Toolkit Total + (Mean, SD)	4.07 (1.28)	4.44 (1.06)	3.65 (1.38)		-3.31	.001
Interview clothing	71 (69.6)	43 (79.6)	28 (58.3)	5.45		.020
Employment references	47 (46.1)	30 (55.6)	17 (35.4)	4.15		.042
Driver's licence	29 (28.4)	21 (38.0)	8 (16.7)	6.17		.013
CV	83 (81.4)	47 (87)	36 (75)	2.43		.119
Birth Certificate	92 (90.2)	49 (90.7)	43 (89.6)	0.04		.844
Bank Account	93 (91.2)	50 (92.6)	43 (89.6)	0.29		.593
Criminal Conviction	20 (19.6)	6 (11.1)	14 (29.2)	5.26		.022
Currently looking for work	89 (87.3)	50 (92.6)	39 (81.3)	2.94		.086
No. of job search methods + (M, SD)	3.2 (1.74)	3.54 (1.76)	2.81 (1.66)		-2.14	.035
Newspaper	47 (53.4)	25 (51)	22 (56.4)	.25		.615
Internet	83 (94.3)	47 (95.9)	36 (92.3)	.53		.467
Jobcentre	63 (71.1)	36 (73.5)	27 (69.2)	.19		.661
Friends and Family	55 (62.5)	31 (63.3)	24 (61.5)	.03		.868
Direct to Employer	34 (38.6)	23 (46.9)	11 (28.2)	3.22		.073
Recruitment agencies	32 (36.4)	24 (49)	8 (20.5)	7.61		.006

Data Source: Provider data and Survey of clients. +multiple response question

Table 2 continued.

	All Clients (N = 102)	Entered Employment (n = 54)	Did Not Enter Employment (n = 48)	Inferential Test		
				<i>Freq (%)</i>	<i>Freq (%)</i>	<i>Freq (%)</i>
Hours spent looking for work				7.31		.120
None	11 (10.8)	25 (51)	31 (79.5)	1.36		.244
Up to 5 hours	16 (15.7)	4 (7.4)	7 (14.6)	3.58		.058
Between 5-10 hours	31 (30.4)	5 (9.3)	11 (22.9)	.03		.859
Between 10-16 hours	19 (18.6)	16 (29.6)	15 (31.3)	2.25		.134
16 hours +	25 (24.5)	13 (24.1)	6 (12.5)	1.63		.202
How often apply				2.45		.117
Never	41 (40.2)	18 (33.3)	23 (47.9)	2.25		.134
Every couple of months	7 (6.9)	4 (7.4)	3 (6.3)	.05		.817
Monthly	17 (16.7)	9 (16.7)	8 (16.7)	0.00		1.000
Weekly	37 (36.3)	23 (42.6)	14 (29.2)	1.98		.159
Recently completed application forms	67 (65.7)	42 (77.8)	23 (47.9)	7.44		.006
Recently completed job interviews	30 (29.4)	21 (38.9)	9 (18.8)	4.96		.026
Childcare Not Required	15 (48.4)	9 (52.9)	6 (42.9)	.31		.576
Childcare Required	11 (35.5)	3 (17.6)	8 (57.1)	5.23		.022
Childcare: Unsure	5 (16.1)	5 (29.4)	0 (0)	4.91		.027
Children/deps affect you being able to work (rev)	7 (22.6)	2 (11.8)	5 (35.7)	2.51		.112
Housing Stability	79 (77.5)	46 (85.2)	33 (68.8)	3.93		.047
Friends are supportive in job search (M, SD)	3.18 (0.55)	3.22 (0.54)	3.13 (0.57)		-0.89	.378
Family is supportive in job search (M, SD)	3.25 (0.75)	3.22 (0.82)	3.27 (0.68)		0.33	.746
Someone to rely on from outside household to find a job (M, SD)	2.85 (0.67)	3.00 (0.61)	2.69 (0.69)		-2.42	.017

Data Source: Provider data and Survey of clients. +multiple response question

Table 2 continued.

	All Clients (N = 102)	Entered Employment (n = 54)	Did Not Enter Employment (n = 48)	Inferential Test		
	<i>Freq (%)</i>	<i>Freq (%)</i>	<i>Freq (%)</i>	<i>Chi-Square</i>	<i>T-test</i>	<i>p value</i>
Believe financially better off in work						
Not financially better off	7 (6.9)	2 (3.7)	5 (10.4)	1.79		.181
Maybe financially better off	22 (21.6)	11 (20.4)	11 (22.9)	.10		.755
Yes financially better off	73 (71.6)	41 (75.9)	32 (66.7)	1.07		.301
Transport an issue in getting to work or getting a job	23 (22.5)	9 (16.7)	14 (29.2)	.10		.752
Jobs available where willing to travel (M, SD)	2.68 (0.80)	2.85 (0.63)	2.48 (0.92)		- 2.41	.018
Local recruitment practices allow me to apply for vacancies (M, SD)	2.96 (0.64)	3.04 (0.55)	2.88 (0.73)		- 1.27	.206
I have qualifications and skills relevant to the labour market (M, SD)	2.89 (0.70)	2.98 (0.74)	2.79 (0.65)		- 1.37	.174
Govt provides support/incentives to improve employability (M,SD)	2.64 (0.76)	2.74 (0.78)	2.52 (0.71)		- 1.48	.143

Data Source: Provider data and Survey of clients.

Appendix 14

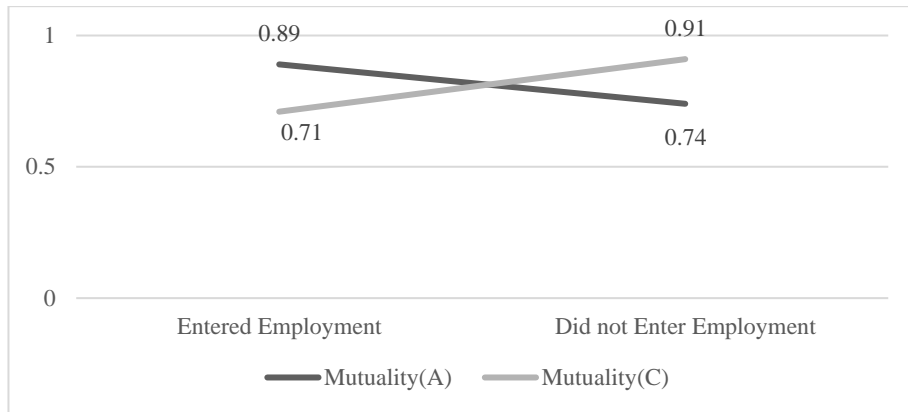
Bivariate Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients (r) matrix for variables across adviser sample (N=27)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1 Employment Outcome	1												
2 Progression Outcome	-.37*	1											
3 Same adviser	-.06	.00	1										
4 Age	.10	-.05	.06	1									
5 Gender	-.10	.09	-.01	.12	1								
6 Education	-.01	-.05	-.08	.18	.09	1							
7 Duration at provider	-.01	-.04	-.03	.46**	.06	.25*	1						
8 Duration in sector	-.01	.08	-.26**	.41**	.24*	-.12	.33**	1					
9 Work pattern	-.08	-.13	-.16	-.13	.29**	.29**	.11	-.04	1				
10 Org type	-.16	.17	.11	-.27**	.24*	.02	-.50**	-.29**	.26**	1			
11 Provider like govt	.17	-.11	.13	.17	-.15	-.12	-.11	-.22*	-.25*	-.11	1		
12 Performance (P1)	-.17	.26	.17	-.49**	.12	-.30**	-.30**	-.28**	.25*	.57**	-.10	1	
13 Performance (P2)	-.18	.20	.10	.06	.38**	-.11	-.23*	.05	.10	.46**	-.08	.40**	1

Note. Data Source: Provider data and Survey of clients. Adviser, N = 27; *p<.05, **p<.01. P1= Phase 1, P2= Phase 2

Appendix 15

Employment Outcomes across mutuality (reported as the mean differences)



Appendix 16

Employment Outcomes across reciprocity (reported as the mean differences)

