

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

**PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACTS IN OIL MARKETING RETAIL
OUTLETS: A CASE STUDY IN THE GA WEST MUNICIPALITY OF
THE GREATER ACCRA REGION OF GHANA**

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A CASE STUDY IN THE GA WEST MUNICIPALITY OF THE GREATER
ACCRA REGION OF GHANA

BY

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MANAGEMENT

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DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this dissertation is the result of my own original work and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature: Date:

Name: Angela Dei Danquah

Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the dissertation were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of dissertation laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Supervisor's Signature: Date:

Name: Dr Francis Eric Amuquandoh

ABSTRACT

The study examines the psychological contracts in oil marketing retail outlets in the Ga West Municipality of the Greater Accra Region of Ghana. The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which employees' and employers' expectations in psychological contract were fulfilled in the Oil Marketing Retail outlets.

Data for the study was obtained through questionnaire survey from a sample of 15 managers and 109 employees from 15 Oil Marketing Retail Outlets in the Ga West Municipality.

The study revealed that the majority of the employees, except from two oil marketing outlets, were of the view that their expectation of the psychological contract was not being fulfilled. It was observed, however, that the expectations of the employers were being fulfilled. It was found that there was no significant difference in the expectations of male and female employees and that the sources of expectations from employees were mainly from friends. It was concluded that even though employees' expectations were not fulfilled but employers' expectations were fulfilled, job turnover was low.

It was recommended that the psychological contract process needed to start at the time of employment where expectations are clearly stated and agreed upon. It was also recommended that employers do not 'over-sell' the advertised job so as not to set up unrealistic expectations and lower commitment.

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DEDICATION

To my children Nana Kwabena Danquah and Ohene Kwame Danquah.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the study

The relationship between employers and employees occurs in many forms with psychological contract being one of the commonest. Psychological contract is one of the most well-known terms in the field of human resource management. Used by many as an analytical tool to describe the employment relationship or a theoretical platform to understand employee responses to workplace changes, it is nonetheless an intriguing theme. Broadly, the term psychological contract refers to a set of beliefs regarding what employees are to give and receive with respect to their employer. It sets the dynamics for the relationship and defines the detailed practicality of the work to be done. It is distinguishable from the formal written contract of employment which, for the most part only identifies mutual duties and responsibilities in a generalized form (Ram, 1994).

Trying to define the psychological contract, it can be seen as 'individuals' beliefs, shaped by the organisation, regarding the terms of an exchange relationship between the individual employee and the organisation (Beardwell, Holden & Claydon, 2004). The basis of this relationship is reciprocity between the organisation and employees on the perceived obligations and expectations from one another (Guest & Conway, 2002; Beardwell et al., 2004). Commonly,

the moral dimension to work has been variously defined, the most popular is the one offered by Robinson and Rousseau (1994). An individual's belief regarding the terms and conditions of a reciprocal exchange agreement between that focal person and another party - a belief that some form of a promise has been made and that the terms and conditions of the contract have been accepted by both parties.

One issue worth noting about the literature pertaining to the psychological contract and the employment relationship as a whole is that without always expressing it, the focus is on larger organisations with a large number of employees and a specialist department dealing with human resource and personnel issues (Wilkinson, 1999). Nevertheless there have been attempts to examine the employment relationship in smaller firms with 1 – 24 employees (Cully, Woodland, O'Reily, & Dix, 1999).

Oil marketing retail outlets could be regarded as small firms. Small firms are generally regarded to have some important distinctive characteristics. Ideally, due to the small size, the degree of proximity between the manager and the employees is significantly greater than in larger organisations (Goffee & Scase, 1987; Cully et al., 1999; Marsden, 2004). In larger firms, employees have little interaction with the central parts of the decision-making and therefore there is a 'cold' and impersonal environment, where issues are only transmitted to employees through the relevant manager of the section (Pohlmann, 1999). In small firms, however, employees may see or work alongside the owner/managers and may develop closer relationships with them (Eurofound, 2001).

Another important attribute in small firms is a generally acknowledged level of informality that exists. The informality is found principally in the management style and is compatible with the needs of the working environment (Ram, 1994; Marlow & Patton, 2002; Mihail, 2004). As Mihail (2004) argues, the informality that exists in small firms is what gives to the owner the capability to infuse flexibility into the business which is necessary for its viability. It is possible to discern, therefore a third viewpoint. This is a middle situation where negative aspects can rise for employees because of the closeness of the relationship, which may offer a balance for employees. They can become actively involved in the decision-making of the company, getting their views to get across much more effectively than in larger organisations and at the same time participate in the establishment of a surrounding based on the informal relationship necessary for small firms viability (MacMahon, 1996; Moule, 1998; Mihail, 2004).

On the contrary, small firms do not possess the same financial capabilities like larger organisations, or the same power to withstand competitive pressures (Pohlmann, 1999; Eurofound, 2001). The result is critical of small firms and contends that in effect this will burden the employer side as owners will try to increase labour turnover and offer lower wages/salaries than larger organisations (Brown & Medoff, 1989; Ram, 1994; Cully et al., 1999).

Ghana has a modest upstream oil industry with one onshore and five offshore sedimentary basins. The main drive behind the oil and gas industry in Ghana is the need to reduce the country's dependence and reliance on

hydroelectricity (<http://www.gnpcghana.com/aboutus>). Current consumption of petroleum products is in the region of 950,000 tons per annum. The distribution and marketing of fuels and lubricants products is carried out by several foreign and local marketing companies. Mobil has the largest share of the market (25%), followed by Shell (24%) and the state-owned company Ghana Oil Company at (22%). Other firms that have a significant share of the market are Elf Aquitaine (21%), Total (9%) and Unipetrol (4%). Besides these there are other smaller firms that exist but are not linked to any of these significantly large Oil marketing companies (<http://www.gnpcghana.com/aboutus>). These large, sometimes multilateral, oil marketing companies wholesale the bulk of their oil products to retail outlets that form a very significant part of the marketing chain to consumers.

Statement of the problem

Oil marketing retail outlets can be classified among industries with a high risk working environment. High risk industries refer to organisations that deal with dangerous substances such as explosives, inflammable materials and poisonous chemicals. The life of workers in high risk industries including the oil marketing retail outlets are often threatened by a number of events or accidents including fire, armed robbery and car related accidents.

There are numerous examples of such accidents in workers line of duty in Ghana including an explosion of high combustible low pressure gas at a gas station in Kumasi that killed and injured several workers; a case of an attack on a twenty-four hour filling station at Tantra Hill in Accra by armed robbers that left

two workers dead and another injured with huge sums of money taken away; a cargo car intending to refill its fuel failing its breaks and overrunning staff at Obuasi (<http://www.myjoyonline.com>).

Unfortunately oil marketing retail outlet workers are among the least protected workers in the country. Apart from inadequate salaries and other job benefits they do face physical risks .They often have no formal contract to protect and safeguard their lives. They work directly at the mercy of the climate and sometimes with very little structural protection in terms of shelter and appropriate clothing.

There is also the lack of quality information on the employer and employee relations in the oil marketing retail outlets in Ghana. The oil marketing retail outlets is one of the sectors in Ghana's economy where most junior staff (pump attendants, vulcanizers, and greasers) are employed without any official contract that guarantee their rights and safety. Unfortunately, no detailed study has been conducted on the nature of employer and employee relations in this sector. This study therefore seeks to address this research gap by investigating the employer and employee relationship in the oil marketing retail outlets.

Objectives of the study

The main objective of the study is to investigate the nature and operation of psychological contract in the oil marketing retail outlets in the Ga West Municipality.

The specific objectives of the study are to:

- identify the sources of expectations among oil marketing retail outlet workers in the Ga West Municipality
- examine whether the expectations of employers in oil marketing retail outlets are being met.
- examine the expectations of employees from their employers in oil marketing retail outlets.
- make recommendations for improvement in understanding the psychological contract in employer and employee relationship.

Hypothesis

Two hypotheses were formulated to guide the study:

1. Ho: There is no significance difference in the extent to which the oil marketing retail outlets fulfilled their promise to their workers.
Ha: There is a significance difference in the extent to which the oil marketing retail outlets fulfilled their promise to their workers.
2. Ho: There is no significance difference among males and females with regard to their views on the extent their employers fulfilled their promises to them.
Ha: There is a significance difference among males and females with regard to their views on the extent their employers fulfilled their promises to them.

Significance of the study

It is envisaged that the study unearths some of the grievances of workers thereby reducing labour turnover and unrest within the oil marketing retail outlet in the Ga West Municipality. Although the sector is important in the Ghanaian economy little is known about its labour issues. The study provides baseline information for monitoring the conditions of workers in the oil retail outlets overtime. Psychological contract is perceived to change over time as organisations and employees need change. Writers such as Levinson et al (1962) and Schein (1965) have confirmed that psychological contract changes overtime.

Delimitations/Limitations

The success of every organisation depends on the extent to which employees and employers agree on expectations they have of each other. This research should have covered all oil marketing retail outlets across the country. The time available for the period of this research and the financial considerations limited the study to the Ga West Municipality. It is expected that the findings and recommendations of this study would be applicable to all staff of oil marketing retail outlets in Ghana.

The data was collected using structured questionnaires, therefore the problems normally associated with all research based on the use of questionnaire could not be ruled out completely.

Organisation of the study

The report is divided into five chapters: introduction, literature review, methodology, results and findings, and finally the summary, conclusion and the recommendations. The introduction chapter tackles issues such as the background to the study, statement of the problem and objectives of the study. Significance, delimitation and limitation and organisation are catered for in the chapter.

The second chapter, which is referred to as the literature review highlights on the existing literature on the research topic as well as the theoretical framework and conceptual bases of the study. Summary of major findings of the literature are also done. The third chapter, which is the methodology, focuses on the research design, population and sampling as well as instruments and data collection procedures. It also explains how the data would be analysed. Chapter Four presents results and discussion. The last chapter deals with summary, conclusions and recommendations as well as areas for future research.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter presents the relevant literature on psychological contract and the conceptual framework guiding the study. It covered issues on definition of psychological contract, origin of the concept of the psychological contract, importance of psychological contract, types of psychological contract, violation of the psychological contract, expectation of employees, sources of employee's expectation, and finally expectation of employers.

Definition of psychological contract

Schein (1965, 47) has defined the term psychological contract as “an unwritten set of expectations operating at all times between every member of an organisation and the various managers and others in that organisation”. Meanwhile, Kotter (1973, 93) defines the psychological contract as “an implicit contract between an individual and his/her organisation which specifies what each expects to give and receive from each other in their relationship”.

According to Rousseau and Wade-Benzoni (1994), psychological contract refers to beliefs that individuals hold regarding promises made, accepted and relied upon between themselves and another. In the case of organisations, these

parties include an employee, client manager and/or organisation as a whole. Because psychological contracts represent how people interpret promises and commitments, both parties in the same employment relationship (employer and employee) can have different views regarding specific terms. Levinson, Price, Munden, Mandl, and Solley, Men, (1962, 35), defined it as, “a series of mutual expectations of which the parties to the relationship may not themselves be dimly aware but which nonetheless govern their relationship to each other”. Sparrow (1999) also defines psychological contract as an open-ended agreement about what the individual and the organisation expect to give and receive in return from the employment relationship.

Psychological contracts represent a dynamic and reciprocal deal. New expectations are added over time as perceptions about the employer’s commitment evolve. These unwritten individual contracts are therefore concerned with the social and emotional aspects of the exchange between employer and employee. Guest and Conway (2002) define psychological contract as the perceptions of the two parties, employee and employer, of what their mutual obligations are towards each other'. According to these authorities, these obligations are often informal and imprecise: they may be inferred from actions or from what has happened in the past, as well as from statements made by the employer, for example during the recruitment process or in performance appraisals. Some obligations may be seen as 'promises' and others as 'expectations'. The important thing is that they are believed by the employee to be part of the relationship with the employer”.

Origin of the concept of the psychological contract

The notion of the "psychological contract" was first coined by Argyris (1960) to refer to employer and employee expectations of the employment relationship that is mutual obligations, values, expectations and aspirations that operate over and above the formal contract of employment. Since then there have been many attempts to develop and refine this concept. Historically, the concept can be viewed as an extension of philosophical concepts of social contract theory (Roehling, 1997; Schein, 1980). The social contract, which deals with the origins of the state, supposes that individuals voluntarily consent to belonging to an organised society, with attendant constraints and rights. Argyris (1960) used the concept to describe an implicit agreement between a group of employees and their supervisor.

Writers such as Levinson, Price, Munden, Mandl and Solley (1962) used the concept to describe the set of expectations and obligations that individual employees spoke of when talking about their work experience. They identified a number of different types of employee expectations, held both consciously (for example expectations about job performance, security, and financial rewards) and unconsciously (for example being looked after by the employer). Roehling (1997) credits Levinson et al (1962) with explicitly recognising the dynamic relationship of the psychological contract: contracts evolve or change over time as a result of changing needs and relationships on both the employee's and the employer's side. Schein (1965) emphasised the importance of the psychological contract concept in understanding and managing behaviour in organisations. He argued that

expectations may not be written into any formal agreement but operate powerfully as determinants of behaviour. For example, an employer may expect a worker not to harm the company's public image, and an employee may expect not to be made redundant after many years' service. Like Levinson et al (1962), Schein (1965) emphasised that the psychological contract will change over time.

Recent developments in psychological contract theory are largely dominated by Rousseau (1989, 1995, 2001), who argues that the psychological contract is promise-based and, over time, takes the form of a mental model or schema which is relatively stable and durable. Rousseau (1989) explicitly distinguished between conceptualisations at the level of the individual and at the level of the relationship, focusing in her theory on individual employees' subjective beliefs about their employment relationship. Crucially, the employer and employee may not agree about what the contract actually involves, which can lead to feelings that promises have been broken, or, as it is generally termed, the psychological contract has been violated. Rousseau's conceptualisation of the psychological contract focuses on the employee's side of the contract so can be termed a "one-way contract".

Much recent work has focused on the employee's understanding of the explicit and implicit promises regarding the exchange of employee contributions (effort, loyalty, ability) for organisational inducements (pay, promotion, security) (Rousseau, 1995; Conway & Briner, 2002). The employer's perspective has received less attention.

Importance of psychological contract

The concept of the psychological contract has become a major analytical device that helps explain human resource management. Both academics and practitioners have a considerable amount of interest in the psychological contract as they search for factors that contribute in sustaining employee motivation and commitment. It has become very popular in organisations as a way of knowing the expectations that individual have of their relationship with their employer. The employee-employer relationship has been seen as a social exchange process based on the norms of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) and mutual support (Blau, 1964). A psychological contract creates an enduring mental model of the employment relationship. This provides an understanding of what to expect in future.

Having a psychological contract helps the employer and worker functions despite having incomplete information about the other party's intentions or expectations. The psychological contract in itself is not a contract in the literal sense; it rather refers to individuals' perception of the unwritten, mutual obligations that supplement formal contracts of employment, and individual's beliefs about the terms of an exchange agreement between the individuals and the organisation (Rousseau, 1989, 1995). The psychological contract, therefore, tends to motivate workers to fulfil a commitment that has been made by their employers with the belief that their end of the bargain will be fulfilled. Employers also have their own psychological contract with workers and this depends upon the individual's trustworthiness and the importance to he firms mission.

The psychological contract has also been shown to influence key organisational outcomes. For example, research demonstrates that when the psychological contract is fulfilled, employees experience greater job satisfaction, intent to stay with organisation and trust in the organisation (Robinson, 1996; Turnley & Feldman, 2000). On the other hand, when there is a breach in the contract, employees tend to perform poorly and engage in job search activities. Organisations cannot succeed unless the people they employ agree to contribute to their mission and survival. The psychological contract is said to be a motivator due to the exchange of promises in which the individual has freely participated.

There is some debate about the usefulness of the concept. For example, Sparrow and Marchington (1998) argue that the psychological contract concept has been useful in capturing the complex changes at work in times of uncertainty. It acts as an organisation-wide framework of analysis and captures concerns over new employment practices. However, Guest (1998) argues that it is operationalised to include so many different psychological variables, with very little known about the relationships between them, that the psychological contract becomes an analytic nightmare. Guest and Conway (1998) suggest that it is best viewed as a useful metaphor for helping make sense of the state of the employment relationship and plotting significant changes in this relationship. They use the notion as a tool for change for practitioners by referring to the goal of healthy psychological contracts reflecting a range of management practices which they argue will lead to improved employee motivation and commitment.

Debates about the usefulness of the concept also focus on measurement issues. As research has tended to focus on the use of the concept of the psychological contract for explaining research findings, or for informing management practice less attention has been paid, to date, to explicitly considering how the concept is to be measured, (Roehling, 1997). Often the psychological contract is measured indirectly, for example via commitment and loyalty, which is contentious, or in terms of contract breach (Kickul, 2001; Kickul, Neuman, Parker & Finkl, 2001).

Some recent research has devised measures in which, the content of the psychological contract is typically broken down into various objective and subjective components which are then measured on survey questionnaires. For example, Westwood, Sparrow and Leung (2001) measured the promises and commitments perceived to have been made by organisations and the obligations which employees perceive they have made. Other research, especially on work-family issues, takes a more qualitative approach to this subjective concept. However, there remains a lack of agreement about how the psychological contract should be measured.

One of the major arguments in the psychological contract theory is whether it can be regarded as 'contract' in comparison to formal contracts that have a stipulated content with clear-cut parameters (Arnold, 1996). Contrary views argue that psychological contract offers a viewpoint on a more realistic base according to parties' perceptions and can have a greater influence than a formal contract (CIPD, 2003). Psychological contract is adaptive to the various

societal elements and its content can change as the elements from one society to another become different (Rousseau & Schalk, 2000; Thomas, Au & Ravlin, 2003). The latter argument involves issues such as different employment laws that affect the potential of employees to bargain and distinct cultures example Western and Japanese cultures that influence employees on their expectations from the employment relationship (Thomas & Ravlin, 2003).

Some researchers argue on the principle of mutuality in the exchange relationship. The argument raised is that in organisations there can be power differentials and therefore employees might not be able to input their expectations resulting in a bargain that is one-sided in the advantage of the employer (Lewis, Smithson & Kugelberg, 2002). It should be noted that this argument is theoretical and although it could correspond in practice, there is little empirical evidence to support their precise translation to business practices. In other words, although literature makes important conceptual observations about the psychological contract and its relation with organisations, there is little knowledge of whether organisations take the concept into account and if any apply it in practice (Conway & Briner, 2005).

The researcher proposes a view of psychological contract as an instrument to assist employers in planting the seeds of change without compromising the cooperation and support of their workforce in the process. It interprets the fluidity in modern business life as a call for organisations to take the most out of their human capital which means to know what employees expect from their employers and psychological contract offers the means to do exactly that (Guest & Conway,

2002; CIPD, 2005). Theory assumes that with the changes in the context of the psychological contract it is likely that some employees might feel that the organisation is failing to meet its obligations and view their expectations not being realized. This could affect employee's overall loyalty and performance (Rousseau, 1995; Beardwell et al., 2004). This is known as a violation of the psychological contract (Rousseau, 1995) although we can make a distinction of it in various degrees. It is possible for employees to be aware of the employers inability to meet expectations or that parts of the contract have not been fulfilled timely and thus the reaction might be mild in light of a 'perceived breach'. On the contrary, a 'violation' produces a much stronger and emotional response from the employees (Robinson & Morrison, 1997).

According to Rousseau (1995), there are three main types of contract violation:

- inadvertent, which is the result of divergent interpretations that were made in good faith;
- disruption, which is when both or at least one of the parties wants to comply with the agreement but cannot; and
- renegeing, which is when both or at least one of the parties is unwilling to comply with the agreement.

In light of trends toward globalization, restructuring, and downsizing, psychological contracts are playing an increasingly important role in contemporary employment relationships. Organisations, under pressure to make

rapid and constant changes have had to alter employment relationships and the psychological contracts that underlie them.

Psychological contracts refer to employees' perceptions of what they owe to their employers and what their employers owe to them. In this climate of change, the traditional contract of long-term job security in return for hard work and loyalty may no longer be valid (Sims, 1994), and employees and employers alike are now reconsidering their mutual obligations. More importantly, these changes have increased the likelihood of psychological contract breach. Organisations must now repeatedly manage, renegotiate, and alter the terms of the employment agreement continually to fit changing circumstances (Tichy, 1983; Altman & Post, 1996) and thus may be less willing or less able to fulfil all of their promises. In addition, constant contract change means increased opportunities for employees and employers to misunderstand the agreement and to perceive a contract breach even when an actual breach did not occur. It should not be surprising, therefore, that the majority of employees currently believe their employer has breached some aspect of their employment agreement (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994).

Given the apparent prevalence of perceived contract breach, it is imperative to develop a solid understanding of this phenomenon. Unfortunately, empirical study of psychological contract breach remains in its infancy. Prior research has thus far demonstrated that psychological contract breach and violation is relatively common (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994) and that it is associated with various negative outcomes such as a decrease in perceived

obligations to one's employer, lowered citizenship behaviour, and reduced commitment and satisfaction (Robinson, Kraatz, & Rousseau, 1994; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Robinson & Morrison, 1995). A fundamental and important unanswered question is what role trust plays in the experience and effects of psychological contract breach. Rare is the theoretical paper on psychological contracts that does not mention the word trust or note its central role in psychological contracts (Rousseau, 1989; Rousseau & McLean Parks, 1994; Morrison & Robinson, 1997).

Despite the repeated mention of trust in the psychological contract literature, however, there has been virtually no theoretical explication or empirical examination of trust in relation to the experience of psychological contract breach. This lapse of systematic attention to the function of trust is found not only in the study of psychological contracts but in organisational science in general (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). As Gambetta (1988) suggested, "scholars tend to mention (trust) in passing, to allude to it as a fundamental ingredient or lubricant, an unavoidable dimension of social interaction, only to move on to deal with less intractable matters.

The psychological contract is a useful concept for understanding what employees and employers expect of a job and a work environment, including not only expectations of tenure or promotion but also sense of entitlement to work-life benefits and flexible working arrangements. Indeed, it has recently been argued that work-life balance or integration can be a key factor in establishing a positive psychological contract (based on mutual trust) (Coussey, 2000). However,

consideration of work-life issues and policies seldom appear in psychological contract research and merit much more attention. Moreover, very little work in the work-family research area has explicitly utilized psychological contract theory.

While few studies of work-life issues explicitly use psychological contract theory, it is implicit in recent studies relating work-life policies or practices to measures of employee satisfaction, loyalty and commitment. For example, Roehling & Moen (2001) studied the relationship between work-life policies, informal support and employee loyalty over the life course, concluding that flexible time policies are consistently related to employee loyalty, and most strongly for parents of young children. Perceptions of informal support were also strongly related to employee loyalty.

Some research has begun to address the relationship between the Psychological contract and remote working (Harwood, 2003) and part time working (Conway & Briner, 2002). Recent UK research (Management Today, 2003) suggests that employees now have a higher sense of entitlement to flexible working arrangements than in the past (at least in Britain), and that they feel the psychological contract may be violated when flexible working or work-life benefits are not available to them. Smithson and Lewis (2001) looked at the impact of work-life issues on the psychological contract for younger employees, some of whom accepted a balanced lives contract in which employees accept lack of long term security and less than optimum conditions in exchange for flexibility and reasonable hours, in order to accommodate their family or personal lives.

The role of gender within psychological contract theory has received little attention, though it is sometimes suggested that women have a difference in notion of the contract than men, expecting less in terms of pay and promotion and trading these benefits for flexibility (Herriot, Manning & Kidd, 1997). However, studies of young adults have shown little gender difference in psychological contract expectations, suggesting that as women and men's expectations of work converge, so may their experiences of the psychological contract (Smithson & Lewis, 2000).

In conclusion on the state of the body of knowledge, the concept of the psychological contract has attracted considerable academic and management interest and is currently utilised in a variety of ways in a wide range of situations. Recent debates about the salience of relational versus transactional contracts, and about the existence of other forms of contracts, need to be resolved by further empirical work. Where almost all recent work on the concept is in agreement is that understandings of the content and violation or breach of the psychological contract is changing as the nature of work changes, and also due to changes across employees' life cycle and employment situations. It is possible that, in the light of social and employment trends work-life issues will become increasingly significant in contemporary understandings of psychological contracts.

Types of psychological contract

Two major types of psychological contracts have been evaluated: relational and transactional (Rousseau 1990, 1995; Herriot, Manning & Kidd,

1997; Anderson & Schalk 1998; Millward & Hopkins, 1998; Millward & Brewerton, 1999). Relational contracts characterise beliefs about obligations based on exchanges of socio-emotional factors (loyalty and support) rather than purely monetary issues. However, the level of commitment they have with their employer is so high that immediate remedies would be sought in order to maintain the relationship. If the problem is not resolved then the employee looks elsewhere or performance is reduced.

The transactional psychological contract is totally different from the relational psychological contract because the former is centred on short-term monetary agreements with very little commitment to the employer. Employees with a transactional contract are more concerned with what they would benefit from the organisation than being good employees of the organisation. Employees tend to stick fast to the employers' specific terms and to seek employment elsewhere when conditions change or when the employers fail to live up to their part of the agreement. However, the employer can also immediately terminate a transactional arrangement that fails to meet his/her needs. An example of a transactional contract would be temporary secretarial work or a job at a call centre, this is because commitment and skills developing in this area of work is insignificant and a wage rate is set with an agreed period of employment. Transactional contract is less functional when it is a by-product of violated or poorly managed relational contract. Workers and employers, therefore, have lost trust in the other, resulting in a more wary arms length relationship (Rousseau, 2004).

Rousseau and McLean Parks (1993) argue that these contract types differ with respect to focus, time frame, stability, scope and tangibility. Relational contracts can be described as perceived obligations that are emotional and intrinsic in nature. On the other hand, a transactional contract can be described as obligations that are economic and extrinsic.

Relational contracts are seen to have an open-ended, indefinite duration whilst the time frame for transactional contracts is more specific and short-term. Consequently, transactional contracts are also said to be static whilst relational contracts are dynamic and evolving. In addition, the scope of relational contracts is more general and pervasive, subject to clarification and modification as circumstances evolve. Relational contracts are, therefore, more subjective and less tangible in comparison to transactional contracts.

Millward and Herriot (2000) point out, however, that the transactional-relational divide is not necessarily an exclusive one. They suggest that the exchange relationship is better characterised as containing varying degrees of both relational and transactional elements. In other words, individuals are not one versus the other and can instead have elements of both types in their own individual psychological contract (see also Robinson, Kraatz & Rousseau, 1994).

Violation of the psychological contract

Violation of the psychological contract theory is probably one of the most important issues within the concept because violation of the Psychological contract 'makes or breaks the organisation'. This can be explained as occasions

where employees believe and perceive that their organisation has failed to fulfil their promises by failing to comply with the terms of the psychological contract and this is a very frequent occurring phenomenon. It is not strange for an organisation to make promises during the hiring process in order to attract the very competent workers. Violation of the psychological contract can lead to critical attitudinal outcomes such as lack of trust, commitment, and job satisfaction e.t.c. Some employers may consider some occurrences as trivial nature, but this may have value to the employee concerned and may be seen as a violation.

Robinson and Morrison, (1995), Robinson and Rousseau, (1994) defined the violation of the psychological contract as a failure of the organisation to fulfil one or more obligations of an individual's psychological contract. On the contrary, Morrison and Robinson (1997) argued that the above definition is focused on the rational, mental calculation of what individuals have or have not received and downplays the emotional aspect of violation and that there is a difference between a violation and a breach. As such a breach is when a perceived unmet obligation has been identified and it is seen as a short-term phenomenon, however, it may develop into a full violation. According to Morrison and Robinson (1997, 35) breach is "the cognition that one's organisation has failed to meet one or more obligations within one's psychological contract".

Violation, on the other hand, is the "emotional and affective state that may follow from the belief that one's organisation has failed to adequately maintain the psychological contract" (Morrison & Robinson, 1997, 47). Meanwhile,

Rousseau (1989) also explains that a contract violation is more than the failure of the organisation to meet expectations; responses are more intense because respect and codes of conduct are called into question because essentially a “promise” has been broken and it is more personalised. Violation in the psychological contract can bring about disappointment, frustration and distress (Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Pate & Malone, 2000). In an extreme case it could bring about anger, resentment, bitterness and indignation (Rousseau, 1989; Pate & Malone, 2000).

Violation has also been associated with behavioural outcomes such as lower organisational citizenship, reduced organisational commitment, satisfaction and trust while cynicism increases (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Robinson and Morrison, 1995, Robinson, 1996, Guest, Conway, Briner & Dickman, 1996 Herriot, Hirsh & Reilly, 1998, Pate & Malone, 2000). As a result when an individual’s psychological contract is violated the relationship becomes more calculated and transactional, but how far it moves along the continuum is dependent on the strength of the perceived violation (Kidder & McLean Parks, 1994; Pate & Malone, 2000).

Employee cynicism has been defined as a negative attitude and involves a belief that their organisation lacks integrity, negative emotions towards the organisation and a tendency for employees towards critical behaviour of their organisation (Dean, Brandes & Dharwadkar 1998; Pate et al., 2000). Therefore, breaking the psychological contract may not only affect the employee but the organisational performance as a whole.

Nicholson and Johns (1985) identified a connection between violation of the psychological contract and absenteeism at work. The psychological contract emerges from interaction and communication which effectively dictates how work culture is acted out. It is also “the psychological mechanism by which collective influence is translated into individual behaviour” (Nicholson & Johns, 1985, 402). Therefore a reasonable conclusion can be drawn from the fact that when employees are not satisfied with how their employers treat them they put up a lackadaisical attitude to business. Absenteeism is therefore one of the behaviours shown.

With the ageing of the workforce recent research has also focused on generational differences in the psychological contracts. There is evidence that older members of the workforce feel that the psychological contract, as they understand it, has been violated, and have lost trust in their organisations (Herriot et al, 1997) while younger workers may have different expectations (Turnley & Feldman, 1999; Smithson & Lewis, 2001).

The assumptions feeding into the psychological contracts perceived by these young adults thus appear to reflect the changing realities of the labour market and the employment relationship (Brannen, Lewis, Nilsen & Smithson, 2002). Supporting this view, there is some evidence that perceptions of contract violations have decreased, as people have more "realistic" expectations, and more is communicated (Harwood, 2003). Alternatively, it could be argued that sense of violation is related to different expectations or perceived promises. There may, for example, be less sense of violation if people lose their jobs or job descriptions

change, and a higher sense of violation for omission of quick advancement or challenging work (Turnley & Feldman, 1999) or for lack of support for work-life needs (Brannen et al, 2002).

Expectations of employees

Psychological contract originated with certain questions that are found to be present in the minds of virtually all employees. These questions involve the concerns that employees have with the profitability of their giving up such large portions of their time and talents for the benefit of an organisation. They ask the particularly human question of, "what and how am I expected to contribute to this company"? They are subsequently prompted also to ask, "what can I hope to receive in return"? In other words, "what is in it for me"? Whenever such questions are answered in the mind of the employee, what results is a psychological contract (Armstrong, 2004). Employees therefore, often expect to be treated fairly as human beings by their employers and also to be given the use of specific skills, have job security, rewards and opportunities for training development.

Sources of employee's expectations

Psychological contracts, comprising perceived obligations, must be distinguished from expectations, which are general beliefs held by employees about what they will find in their job and the organisation. For example, a new manager may expect to receive a high salary, to be promoted, to like his job, or to

find the walls of his office painted a neutral color. These expectations emanate from a wide variety of sources, including past experience, social norms, observations by friends, and so forth. According to Schein (1965), individual employees make up their expectations from their inner needs, what they have learned from others, from traditions and norms which may be operating, from their past experiences, and a host of other sources.

Expectations of employers

Employers are often aware that the compensation they offer is expected to match the efforts made by the workers in their employment. Yet, the need for fairness exists on both levels, as employees are also expected to do the best job they can, and to demonstrate their ability to adequately handle the situations required by the position that they hold within the company. Employers therefore expect employees to show commitment and loyalty to the organisation, obey its policies and practices, help the organisation to positively promote its values with their customers, clients and suppliers. These expectations of the employer are described as arising out of the company's history in the business environment.

Conceptual frameworks on psychological contract:

A number of theories and models have been put forward to help explain the role of the psychological contract in the employer and employee relationship. Among the models that have been used and suggested are: Iceberg model, Input and outcome model by Levinson et al (1962), Integrative model, and Operational

model of the psychological contract by Guest et al (1996). Based on their popularity and frequent used Input and outcome model, and integrative model are discussed in detailed in this section.

Input and outcomes of psychological contract

The inputs and outcomes model of psychological contract developed by Levinson et al (1962) Figure 1 shows that psychological contract is a product of mutual expectations and has two characteristics:

- They are largely implicit and unspoken, and
- They frequently antedate the relationship of person and company.

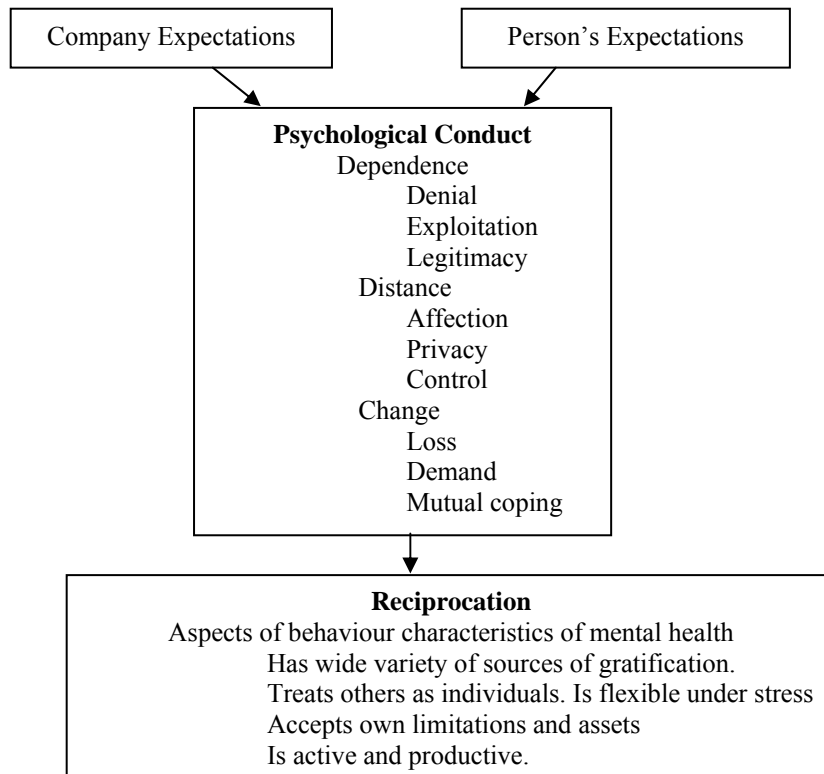


Figure 1: Input and outcomes of psychological contract

Source: Levinson et al. (1962)

It is clear from the model that a psychological contract is formed from mutual expectations of the employees and the employer. Each employee brings a set of expectations to the organisation regarding how his/ her psychological needs are going to be met in the organisational context. These needs include dependence need, need for affection, privacy, control of ones own life, and expectations that allow for changing self-identity and continuing growth into new occupational roles and responsibilities and all other related needs.

The company also has expectations regarding the behaviour and performance of the employee. An unwritten contract results when the employee and the employer achieve a mutually beneficial working organisation that satisfies both the parties' expectations. It entails:

- Incorporation of beliefs, values, needs, aspirations, and expectations of employees and employers
- There must be mutual satisfaction on the part of both employees and employer vis-à-vis their expectations
- Since the contract is dynamic in nature , it can constantly be changed based on an individual's socio-economic situations and clear context as well as the organisation's business situation

Once the employee feels that the employers side of the psychological contract has been fulfilled he/she reciprocates by playing their part well and increasing productivity.

The integrative model

The integrative model of psychological contract was used to guide the research. The integrative model is a combination of both Banard (1938) and Rousseau (1995) theories of the psychological contract approach to employees' commitment. Banard's (1938) theory sheds light both into the nature of incentives provided to an employee and into the effect that such sort of incentive may cause in terms of personal satisfaction (efficiency) and organisational productivity (effectiveness).

Rousseau (1995) characterises psychological contract from a cognitive approach. He stated that they are organized into individual's mental model acting as a catalyser of motivation, performance and commitment. The contract is therefore supplied from two main sources of information: our perceptions of the organisation and social clues coming from cultural context and organisational norms. These two theories have culminated into the integrative model as represented in Figure 2. The integrated model suggests that the employees establish a transactional relation with the company, in that the performance of their professional function forces them to subordinate their personal interest to the achievement of business results. The different types of incentives act as the main organisational input. From these inputs the individual elaborates a model of the value of such incentives and on that basis he/she constitutes his/her own psychological contract. There are other factors outside the individual which may strongly influence this mental model and therefore modify the contract: corporate policies and organisational norms.

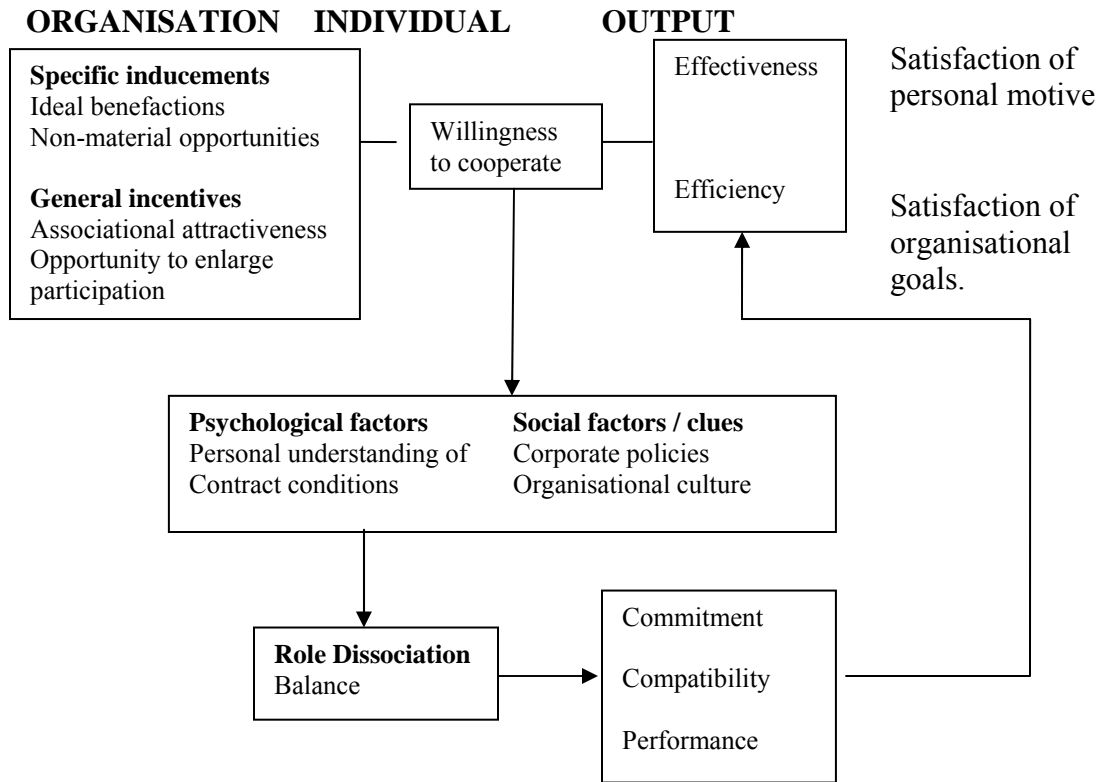


Figure 2: An integrative model for exploring employees’ willingness to cooperate

Source: Barnard (1938), Rousseau (1995)

Conceptual framework of the study

After assessing the strengths and weaknesses of the various models available, this study considered Guest et al., (1996) model as the most appropriate framework for developing an understanding of the psychological contract breached or otherwise in the oil marketing retail outlets. Hence, Guest et al’s. (1996) Figure.3 model was adopted and modified to guide the study.

Guest et al's model (1996) suggests that the core of the contract can be measured in terms of fairness of treatment, trust and the extent to which the explicit deal or contract is perceived to be delivered.

Inputs	Content	Outputs
Employee characteristics	Fairness	Employee behaviour
Organisation characteristics	Trust	Performance
Human resource practices	Delivery	

Figure 3: A model of the psychological contract

Source: Guest et al., 1996

The model suggests that the extent to which employers adopt people management practices will influence the state of psychological contract. The contract is based on employee sense of fairness and trust and their belief that the employer is honouring the 'deal' between them. Where the psychological contract is positive increased employee commitment and satisfaction will have a positive impact on business performance.

While employees may want what they have always wanted, example, security, a career fair reward, interesting work and so on employers no longer feel able or obliged to provide these. Instead, they have been demanding more of their employees in terms of greater input and tolerance of uncertainty and change, while providing less in return, in particular less security and more limited career prospects.

This framework is preferred over other competing models such as the Levinsons model and Integrative model because of its popularity, flexibility, versatility and suitability in making comparison and ability to incorporate a large set of data. The model elaborates on major issues regarding employee's psychological contract in an organisation.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter deals with the method used for the data collection on this study. It involves the selection of the study area, the research design, population for the study, sampling methods, research instrument, field work and data analysis.

Study area

The Ga West Municipality of the Greater Accra Region of Ghana (Figure 4) was selected as the study area. It is the second largest of the six municipalities and districts in the Greater Accra Region. It occupies a land area of approximately 710.2 square kilometres with about 1028 communities. The estimated population of the municipality is 426,439 and a growth rate of 3.4 per cent. (Ministry of local Government website). This study area was chosen because it is representative of a high growth rate and located close to the capital of Ghana, Accra where there are a lot of migrant workers and a possible recipe for labour abuse. The municipality has oil businesses on both major roads that lead out of the capital (Accra – Kumasi, Accra – Takoradi) and smaller interlinking roads.

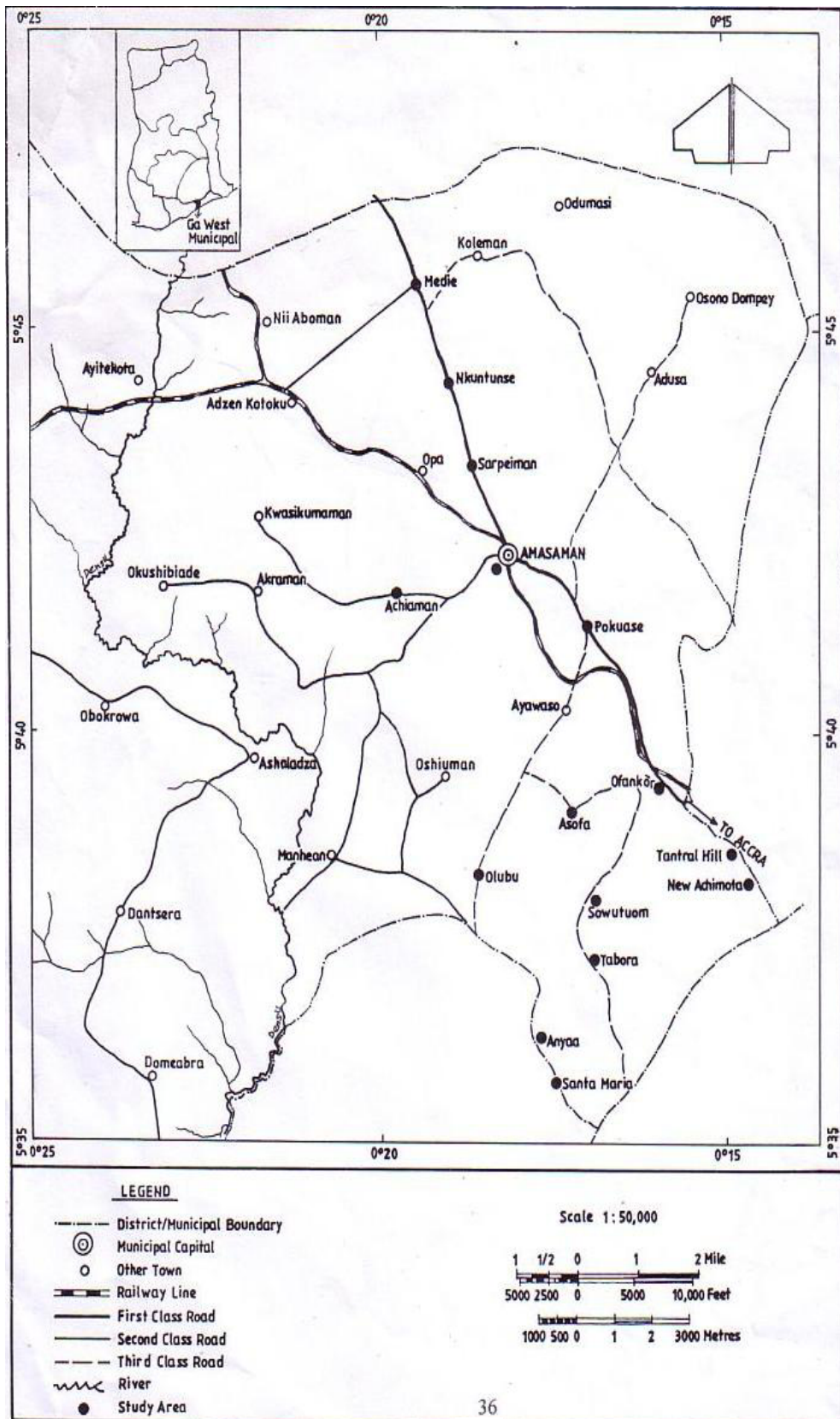


FIGURE 4 : GA WEST MUNICIPAL ASSEMBLY SHOWING STUDY AREAS

Source: Department of Geography and Regional Planning, University of Cape Coast

The municipality is largely urban and has most of the major markets including the Achimota and Santa Maria markets where this study was conducted. There are fifteen filling stations located in the municipality. Most of these filling stations are located along the major roads namely. Accra - Pokuase and Achimota road and Sapeiman - Medie on the Accra – Nsawam road. The major oil marketing retail outlets include Total, Shell, Excel, Goil, Glory Oil, Fraga Oil, Sonnidom, Star Oil and Alied Oil.

Research design

The study made use of the cross-sectional study design. According to Kumar (2005), this design is best suited to studies aimed at finding out the prevalence of a phenomenon, situation, problem, attitude or issue by taking a cross-section of the population. This design has the advantage of its simplicity in nature. The researcher decides what he/she want to find out, identify the population, select a sample and contact the respondents to find out the required information. In most cases, the cross-sectional designs make use of questionnaire to solicit information from respondents.

Sampling procedure and sample size

With respect to the managers, the census method was used where all the fifteen managers of the oil marketing outlets in the municipality were selected for the study. The sampling unit consisted of station managers. Thus, all station

managers were purposively selected. Table 1 gives a presentation of the filling stations and the number of employees selected for the study.

Table 1: Filling stations and number of employees selected for the study

Filing Station	Number of Employees	Number of Employees Selected
Alied Oil	10	6
Excel Oil	12	6
Fraga oil	40	6
Glory Oil 1	12	6
Glory Oil 2	10	6
Goil 1	37	6
Goil 2	24	6
Goil 3	12	6
Goil 4	50	6
Sonnidom 1	10	6
Sonnidom 2	15	6
Star Oil 1	10	6
Star Oil 2	19	6
Shell Oil	10	6
Total Oil	10	6

Source: Oil Marketing Retail Outlets in Ga West Municipality

In the selection of attendants, simple random sampling was used. Six attendants at each filling station were selected to be part of the study. This is dependent on the availability of employees at the filling station at a point in time and the total number of employees at particular oil marketing retail outlets. It was realised that in most of the station, usually a maximum of 20 employees are full time workers. Table 1 shows the number of employees that were selected at each filling station for the study. Kumar, (2005) suggested that a sample size of 25 percent of the population is a good representation for social science survey.

In all, a minimum of ninety (90) respondents were expected to respond to the questionnaire. At the end of the data collection, 107 questionnaires were administered for the study.

Sources of data

The study made use of basically two sources of data; primary and secondary data. Primary data were obtained from the field while secondary data were obtained from document from the various filling stations in the study area. Data on the study were obtained through primary source with the use of questionnaire.

Research instrument

The research instrument for the study was questionnaire. Although the questionnaire is expensive in terms of cost and time, it is known to help build rapport, create a relaxed and healthy atmosphere in which the respondent can

cooperate, answer questions and clear misapprehensions about any aspect of the study (Kumekpor, 2002). Again questionnaire was used because it is considered as a standardized tool for data collection and also for maximization of quality and productive value of respondents.

Two different questionnaires were used for the data collecting. One for management (senior staff) and another one for attendants (junior staff). The management questionnaire consisted of three sections and these were general issues such as position, number of staff and length of position held. Human resource issues were also considered and here some of the questions include involvement in recruitment and selection of staff, contractual agreement with staff, types of contract with staff, reasons for high turnover, incentive programmes, assessment of performance, sponsorship for further training and others. The last section on the management questionnaire deals with management expectations from staff. Some of the questions under this section include staff indulging in unionist activities, staff loyalty and commitment, obedience to the policies and practice of the oil marketing retail outlets and how staff handle customers.

The junior staff questionnaire also consisted of three section, general issues, human resource issues and socio-demographic issues of respondents. Some of the questions for the junior staff included length of time employee has worked with the oil marketing retail outlet, position at the filling station, number of hours worked per day, working environment, relationship with management, feeling about job and the future of the job. Both instruments consisted of open

ended, closed ended and likert scale questions. In the case of open-ended questions, respondents were free to formulate their own answers the way they considered to be the most appropriate. For example, respondents were asked what attracted them to that particular oil marketing retail outlet. The main advantage of asking open ended questions was to allow for clarity of data, and to allow for fresh insight or new information (Merriam, 1998).

For the closed-ended questions, the responses were fixed and respondents were expected to choose the option within which the respondent agreed most (Sarantakos, 1997). It was realized that some questions required particular answers. For example, questions relating to marital status of respondents fell within specific category of responses. Questions of this nature were close-ended questions. Human resource issues for junior staff were measured with the 5-point likert scale. The five-point likert scale was in the range of one (1) being strongly agree and five (5) being strongly disagree. Multi-scale items were employed to measure constructs relating to working environment, relationship with management, what junior staffs feel about their job and the future of the junior staff in particular oil marketing retail outlets.

Pre-test

There was a pre-test of the questionnaire before the actual data was collected. The oil marketing retail outlets that were involved in the pre testing include Oando, Goil and Total all located in Madina which is outside the study area. In each oil marketing retail outlet, the manager and three junior staffs were

selected to participate in the exercise. The pre-test helped the researcher to assess the viability of the survey instrument and the necessary modifications were made before the actual fieldwork. It also threw light on some of the problems that are likely to be encountered during the main survey.

Field work and research challenges

The field work was undertaken in April and May 2009. The instruments were administered at the various filling stations. Permission was first sorted from management to carry out the research work. Objectives and rationale for the study were explained to management so as to allow the researcher continue the study. Questions that were difficult or needed some clarifications were all done on the field for respondents to provide quality and correct answer to the questions. Attendants who were not busy at a particular time were engage to answer the questionnaire.

There were some few research challenges that the researcher faced during the fieldwork. On the part of management, some managers were suspicious of what the information would be use for and for that matter were reluctant in providing some important management information. The researcher had to re-assure those managers of the confidentiality of the information that they were providing and also explained the objectives of the research to those managers.

High cost in the administration of the questionnaire. This was due to the fact that the filling stations were scattered in the municipality and for the matter the researcher had to move to almost every corner in the municipality.

Data analysis

The field data were checked for accuracy and completeness. The questionnaires were numbered serially, edited, coded and fed into the computer. The Statistical Product for Service Solutions (SPSS) software (Version 12) was used for the analysis. Both descriptive and inferential statistics techniques were used. With regard to descriptive analysis, percentages were used to describe the individual characteristics.

Apart from this, two main analyses were followed. First, the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) technique was used to test whether there was any significant difference in the extent the oil marketing retail outlet fulfilled their promise. The ANOVA statistics was used because of its proven ability identify accurately differences among more than two groups. Secondly, the t- test statistics was also used for a similar purpose, specifically to examine the extent to which male and female perceive their expectations being fulfilled by their employers.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter discusses the results of the study. It covers the socio-demographic characteristics of respondents, expectations of employees from management, sources of expectation, extent of fulfilment of workers' expectations by type of organisation, assessment of workers satisfaction and expectations of management from employees.

Socio-demographic profile of respondents

One particular characteristic of surveys are the description of the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents. Although, surveys are not geared towards socio-demographic characteristics of respondents, however, this information may help understand some of the trends in the result from the survey. The socio-demographics that were discussed include sex, age, level of education and monthly income. These are likely to influence respondents' judgments on some of the issues under consideration.

Sex of respondents

Sex is an important issue in psychological contract. Sex of respondents may affect the kind of contract an employee may have with an employer. Table 2 present the sex distribution of respondents.

Table 2: Sex of junior staff respondents

Sex	Frequency	Percentage
Male	82	76.6
Female	25	23.4
Total	107	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2009

Table 2, reveals that over three quarters (76.6%) of the respondents were males and their female counterpart constituting 23.4 percent. The distribution suggests that the sex ratio of employees in the industry is tilted in favour of males. This could be attributed to the nature of the work at the filling station. Most of these work require strength and energy and as such it is been dominated by males who are perceived to have the required energy and strength for the job.

Ages of respondents

Ages of employees usually depicts a number of characteristics about a particular firm or company. The younger the age group the more likely the firms' job may require more strength and energy to perform. The age category of respondents has been presented in Table 3. The ages of the respondents ranges

from 20 years to 42 years with the mean age of 27 years. Table 3 shows that most of the employees are young and are within the 20 and 34 age bracket.

Table 3: Age distribution of junior staff respondents

Age (years)	Frequency	Percentage
20 – 24	30	28.0
25 – 29	51	47.7
30 – 34	21	19.9
35 – 39	3	2.8
40 and above	2	1.9
Total	107	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2009

Level of education

Educational level of employees has been found to influence turnover in a firm, performance of workers, output and sustainability. Table 4 presents education attainment of workers in the oil marketing retail outlet in the Ga west district.

Table 4: Educational level of junior staff respondents

Education	Frequency	Percentage
Junior High School	30	28.0
Senior High school	75	70.1
Tertiary	2	1.9
Total	107	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2009

Table 4 shows that, most of the employs were largely Senior High school (SHS) (70%) This was followed by Junior High School (JHS) (28%) and tertiary holder (1.9%) in that order. The high dependent on school levers by the oil marketing retail outlet in the Ga West District has implication for larger turnover as these groups have the potential of leaving for further education.

Monthly income

Income of employees is one of the important issues employees consider in looking for job Normally, the higher the income, the more likely people will look for that particular job and prefer to remain in that establishment. The monthly income of employees at oil marketing retail outlets in the district is displayed in Table 5.

Table 5: Income distribution of junior staff respondents

Monthly Income (GH¢)	Frequency	Percentage
50 – 99.99	104	97.2
100 – 140.99	3	2.8
Total	107	100.0

Source: Field work, 2009

Table 5 shows that 97 percent of the respondents at the oil marketing retail outlets in the district receive a monthly income of between 50 and 100 Ghana Cedis. This amount is considered to be low on the part of the employees to survive on this till the end of the month.

Expectations of junior staff employees from management

Traditionally, employees have multiple and varied notions about what their establishment or firm should be providing them with. This may include, for example, job security, training and development, rewards and benefits, and future career prospects. Table 6 presents the expectations of employees from oil marketing retail outlets in the Ga West Municipality and the extent to which they are fulfilled.

The results indicate that over 60 percent of the employees were in agreement that they get up to date training and development relating to their work. (80.4%), they feel motivated (66.3%), get support when want to learn new skills (65.4%), and get fair treatment as all their colleagues (64.5%).

Table 6: Extent to which junior staff workers expectations are fulfilled

Expectations	Number	Percentage in Agreement	Mean	Standard Error
I expect up to date training and development program from my employers	107	80.4	2.215	0.0808
I am happy with my salary package	107	11.2	3.813	0.0931
I am involved in decisions that affect me	107	44.9	2.813	0.0912
I get pay increase to maintain my standard of living	107	13.1	3.720	0.0879
I get fair pay compared to employees in other jobs	107	37.4	3.000	0.1020
I get fair treatment as all my colleagues do	107	64.5	2.551	0.0903
I get support when I want to learn new skills	107	65.4	2.504	0.0979
I get information on development that affect me	107	55.1	2.644	0.0903
I get fair fringe benefits compared to other employees	107	8.4	3.673	0.0760
I have long term job security	107	29.9	3.196	0.1024
Table 6 contd.				
I feel motivated in my job	107	66.3	2.495	0.0904
I feel valued by management	107	66.4	2.383	0.0964
Overall expectation of employees	107	43.33	2.917	0.0741

Source: Fieldwork, 2009

These findings suggests that the oil marketing retail outlets try to provide some form of training to enable them deliver the necessary services. In contrast only few people confirm that they were happy with their salary package (11.2%, mean = 3.813), obtain regular pay increase (13.1%, mean = 3.720), get fringe benefits (8.4%, mean = 3.673) and have long term security (29.9%, mean = 3.196).

Respondents were also asked whether they obtain information on development that affect them (55.1%, mean = 2.644) and were involved in decisions that affect them (45%, mean = 2.813). It can be seen therefore that employers put in more effort into the technical issues that equip employees to deliver quality service, like training and other staff development issues. Employers, however, have lower levels of effort on paying realistic salaries and benefits to employees.

Sources of expectations from junior staff

The sources of junior staff workers expectations from management were also examined Table 7 indicates workers in oil marketing retail outlet obtained their expectation from three main sources namely Relatives, Friends, and Past Experience. According to Schein (1965), individual employees make up their expectations from their inner needs, what they have learned from others, from traditions and norms which may be operating, from their past experiences, and a host of other sources.

Table 7: Introduction of prospective junior staff workers to oil marketing retail outlets

Source	Frequency	Percentage
Friends	49	45.7
Relatives	38	35.5
Past Experience	18	16.8
Total	105	100.0

Source: Field work, 2009

Table 7 shows that most junior staff workers' obtain their expectations came from friends (45.8%) and relatives (35.5%). Other sources include past experience (16.8%). The study indicates that the expectations of workers of the oil marketing retail outlets originated from three main sources namely relatives(35.5%), friends(45.7%), and past experience (16.8%). This suggests that information relating to employment in the oil marketing retail outlet and its expectations is spread by word of mouth. The information spread mainly from the contact person to their friend's relatives.

Extent of fulfilment of workers' expectations by organisation and sex

Both T- test and One Way Analysis of Variance were performed in order to assess whether the extent of fulfilment of workers expectation were influence by type of organisation and sex of respondents. T-test Statistical Analysis was employed on the sex variable which was measured along the dichotomous scale while one way Analysis of Variance was used to analyse the effect of

organisations which involved more than two categories. Table 8 presents the mean response of the extent of fulfilment of workers expectation by type of organisation and sex.

The results of the Analysis of Variance revealed that there was a significant differences in the extent of fulfilment of workers expectation in the different organisation (Table 8). Based on the results ($p = .002$), the null hypothesis that states that there is no significant difference in the extent to which workers expectations are fulfilled in the different organisations was rejected. On the average workers in Fraga oil (mean = 2.19) and Shell (mean = 2.03) were in agreement that most of their expectations were fulfilled. While the others including Goil (mean = 3.09), Aliedoil (mean = 3.00), Staroil (mean = 2.59), Glory oil (mean = 2.51), Sonnidom oil (mean = 2.73), Excel oil (mean = 2.58) and Total (mean = 2.83) express doubt that their expectations were being met

The t-test result shows that there was no statistical difference in the extent of fulfilment of workers expectation among male and female workers in the oil marketing retail outlet ($p = 0.057$). Hence the study failed to reject the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference among the two groups. Both the males (mean = 2.94) and their female counterpart (mean = 2.85) expressed doubt whether their expectations were being fulfilled.

Table 8: Extent of workers expectations by type of organisation and sex

Variable (Oil Company)	N	Mean	Test statistic	F-value P-value	Remark
Fraga Oil	4	2.187			
Goil	59	3.090			
Star Oil	10	2.592			
Allied Oil	5	3.000			
Glory Oil	6	2.514	ANOVA	3.335 0.002	S
Sonnidom	7	2.738			
Excel Oil	4	2.583			
Total Oil	4	2.833			
Shell Oil	8	2.031			
Sex					
Male	82	2.937	T – test	0.435 0.057	NS
Female	25	2.853			
Total	107	2.9174			

Note: S = Significant, NS = Not Significant

Source: Fieldwork, 2009

Assessment of workers' satisfaction

This section assesses workers satisfaction with the working conditions in the oil marketing retail outlet in the Ga West Municipality. Workers' satisfaction is essential to the success of every business or organisation as workers can make or break an organisation. Table 9 presents the frequency distribution of the responses to each of the satisfaction statement the mean and the standard errors.

The overall representation of the satisfaction statements (mean = 2.561) indicates that workers in the oil marketing retail outlets were divided over their satisfaction with their working condition. About 55 percent of the workers indicated being satisfied with their working conditions while the rest (45%) were dissatisfied. On the average, the workers were found to be uncertain whether they have good carrier prospects (36.4%, mean = 2.82), long term job security (29.9%, mean = 3.19), they considered their position to have remain the same for a long time (76.7%, mean = 2.31), and looking forward to a new job (79.5%, mean = 1.91)

Table 9: Assessment of workers' satisfaction

Satisfaction	Number	Percentage in Agreement	Mean	Standard Error
I have long term job security	107	29.9	3.196	0.0819
My position has remained the same	107	76.7	2.318	0.0877
I have good carrier prospects	107	36.4	2.822	0.1044
I am looking forward to a new job	107	79.5	1.906	0.1107
Overall satisfaction of employees	107	55.63	2.561	0.0962

Source: Fieldwork, 2009

Extent of fulfilment of management expectation

Every management would expect their employees to perform to the maximum with the resources provided them. According to Devidson (2001) management expectations involve productivity for reward, and working diligently

in pursuing organisational objectives. With these expectations they would usually appraise staff and either reprimand or reward. With most management once they think they have given you your livelihood they expect nothing short of hard work, dedication, loyalty and results. The extent to which management's expectations are fulfilled are presented in Table 10.

Table 10: Extent to which managements' expectations are fulfilled

Expectations	Number	Percentage in agreement	Mean	Std. Error
I assess staff performance	15	100	1.00	0.00
I am satisfied with staff loyalty	15	93.3	1.06	0.66
I am satisfied with staff commitment	15	93.3	1.06	0.66
My staff are polite to customers	15	66.7	1.46	0.16
My staff are not rude to customers	15	66.7	4.60	0.16
My staff helps needy customers	15	66.7	1.33	0.12
Overall expectations of management	15	81.1	1.75	0.29

Source: Fieldwork, 2009

As evident in Table 10, all oil marketing retail outlets managements were generally satisfied with their staff loyalty, commitment, and general performance. Even though earlier results show that workers are not wholly satisfied with their

jobs they still put up their best so as to retain their jobs. Hence it is not surprising to find managers that are satisfied with their worker's output.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter deals with the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

Summary

The study sought to investigate issues that affect psychological contracts in Oil Marketing Retail Outlets. Data on the study were obtained through primary sources with the use of questionnaires (see appendix 1 and 2). A total of 122 respondents participated in the study of which 15 respondents were managers and 107 respondents were junior staff. With respect to the managers, the census method was used where all the fifteen (15) managers of the oil marketing outlets in the Municipality were selected for the study.

In the selection of attendants, simple random sampling was used. A minimum of six (6) attendants at each filling station were selected to be part of the study. This depended on the availability of employees at the filling station at a point in time and the total number of employees at particular oil marketing retail outlets.

The study was guided by the psychological contract model developed by Guest et al. (1996). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) and t-test were performed on the data to determine whether significant differences exist in extent the oil marketing retail outlets fulfil their promises their workers. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) technique was used to test whether there was any significant difference in the extent to which the Oil Marketing Retail Outlet fulfilled their promise. The t-test was however used to examine the extent to which male and female perceive their expectations being met by their employers.

The main findings of the study were in the areas of expectations of employees from management, sources of employee expectations, extent of fulfilment of workers' expectations by type of organisation and sex, assessment of worker's satisfaction and extent of fulfilment of management expectations of the psychological contract.

Employees of the oil marketing retail outlets in the Ga West Municipality were doubtful if their expectations were fulfilled. Even though the majority (80.4%) of the junior staff workers were getting some form of training that enabled them deliver the necessary services only few (11.2%) were happy with their salary package with very little regular pay increases. Fringe benefits and long term security associated with their work was considered to be inadequate. Employees in Oil marketing Retail Outlets agreed they had fair treatment, obtained support to learn new skills and feel motivated in their jobs.

Sources of expectations of workers in the industry are mainly from friends and relatives. In an industry where the rules of engagement are very informal

information could be accessed by potential workers or the workers themselves may not come from conventional industrial sources.

Marked significant differences were found in the extent to which workers expectations were met in different oil companies while employees in Fraga Oil and Shell agreed that their expectations were being fulfilled. Their counterparts in other oil marketing retail outlet expressed doubt that their expectations were being fulfilled.

Employees of Oil Marketing Retail Outlets were uncertain whether they had good carrier prospects or long term job security and their positions had remained the same for a long time which prompted them to look for new jobs.

Management of the oil marketing retail outlets the Ga West Municipality was generally satisfied with staff loyalty, commitment and general performance. Even though employees did not seem satisfied with their jobs they maintain these jobs by putting up their best to earn an income.

Conclusions

Based on the findings, these conclusions were drawn. It could be said that the fulfilment of expectation in the psychological contract in the oil marketing retail outlets is skewed in favour of employers. The results indicate that while employees considered their expectation not being met those of management were being fulfilled.

There were significant differences in the way different oil companies treat their workers. Employees in Fraga Oil and Shell Oil had most of their

expectations fulfilled and therefore had a more acceptable psychological contract balance between employers and employee. Better management practices in these two oil companies with clearer guidelines of behaviour and conduct from both management and employees were plausible explanations to this trend.

It could be concluded that information on job vacancy in the oil marketing retail outlets circulated through social network. This type of information flow might be linked to the sole trader type of ownership of filling stations in the Ga west municipality and the fact that the external family system was quite strong in the municipality.

Recommendations

Since managements are generally satisfied they need to take a lead in the creation of good working environment to improve the psychological contracts in the Oil Marketing Retail Outlets of the Ga West Municipality. This will bring out the best in the workers and ultimately improve service delivery to customers.

Some basic information like roles and responsibilities of employees and employers should be discussed at the beginning of employment. Managing the psychological contract needs to begin even before the hiring of the employees. Organisations' publications, the interview process, contract negotiations and orientation processes all contribute towards the formation of the employee's psychological contract with the organisation.

Management need to state clearer expectations to employees and give better and more frequent access to management by workers so that issues are discussed and managed in a timely manner.

All Oil Marketing Retail Outlets should form a platform or union for discussion on employee and employer expectations so as to get uniform modes of operation of the psychological contract across board in this industry.

Information that affects all employees should be made readily available to all employees. During the hiring process, it is important that the organisation does not 'over sell' the advertised job, thereby setting up unrealistic expectations and lower commitment.

Areas for further research

Further research could be explored in “the broader role of the influence of the mother Oil Marketing Companies on the psychological contract in Oil Marketing Retail Outlets” and “the extent of influence of trade unions on the treatment of employees and institution of the psychological contracts in small scale industries”.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR MANAGEMENT OF OIL MARKETING

RETAIL OUTLETS

Section A: General issues

1. Position:
2. No of Staff at oil marketing retail outlet: Male: Female:
3. How long have you held this position?
4. Are you responsible for managing personnel at this oil marketing retail outlet?
1. Yes 2. No

Section B: Human resource issues

5. Are you involved in recruitment and selection of your staff? 1. Yes
2. No

If yes, what role do you play?

.....
.....

6. Do you enter into contracts with your staff? 1. Yes 2. No
7. If yes, what type of contracts do you have?
1. Indefinite duration 2. Short term
3. Long Term 4. Dynamic
5. General 6. Subjective
8. Are the expected roles of staff explained to them? 1. Yes 2. No
9. Do you organise an orientation for newly employed staff? 1. Yes

2. No

If yes, choose from below.

1. Rules and regulations 2. Role routine
3. Disciplinary measures 4. Other (specify)

.....

10. How many hours does each staff work in a day?

.....

11. Are there any promotion opportunities for your staff? 1. Yes
2. No

If yes state the number of years a staff has to work to gain promotion.

.....

12. What are the major reasons that make a staff leave your oil marketing retail outlet?

1. Low salary 2. Lack of job safety
3. Lack of promotion 4. No fringe benefits
5. Others (specify)

13. What incentive programs does management have for your staff?

1. Salary Advance 2. Vacation with pay
3. Free Medical Care 4. Night Allowance
5. Study leave 6. Others (specify)

.....

Do you assess the performance of your staff? 1. Yes 2. No

14. Do you sponsor staff for further training? 1. Yes 2. No

If yes, state which programs.

If no, state why?

15. How are grievances of staff reported?

.....

16. What disciplinary schemes do you operate?

1. Dismissal 2. Suspension

3. Demotion 4. Reduction/suspension of salary

5. Reprimand 6. Others (specify)

.....

Section C: Management expectation of staff

17. Does your staff indulge in unionist activities? 1. Yes 2. No

Explain either answer.

.....

18. Are you happy with staff's loyalty and commitment to this oil marketing retail outlet 1. Yes 2. No

Explain your answer.

.....

19. Does your staff obey the policies and practices of this oil marketing retail outlet?

1. Yes 2. No

20. Please, indicate your extent of agreement or disagreement with the following statement on 1 – 5 scale; 1 representing “Strongly Agree”, 2 “Agree”, 3

“Neither Agree Nor Disagree”, 4 “Disagree”, 5 “Strongly Disagree” (Please tick only one).

Statement	SA	A	NA/D	D	SD
Does your staff approach customers who need help?					
Are your staffs polite to customers?					
Are your staffs rude to customers?					

APPENDIX 2

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR OIL MARKETING RETAIL OUTLET JUNIOR STAFF

Section A: General issues

1. How long have you worked in this oil marketing retail outlet?
2. What is your current position in the organisation?
3. How many hours do you work per day?
4. How many days do your work per week?
5. What attracted you to this oil marketing retail outlet?
-
6. Who introduced you to this oil marketing retail outlet?
 1. Relatives
 2. Friend
 3. Media
 4. Other (specify)
 -

Section B: Human resource issues

7. Please, indicate your extent of agreement or disagreement with the following statement on 1 – 5 scale; 1 representing “Strongly Agree”, 2 “Agree”, 3 “Neither Agree Nor Disagree”, 4 “Disagree”, 5 “Strongly Disagree” (Please tick only one).

STATEMENT	SA	A	NA/D	D	SD
WORKING ENVIRONMENT					
During my years at this oil marketing retail outlet I have enjoyed my job					

I enjoy working in the oil marketing retail outlet environment					
There is team work in this oil marketing retail outlet					
The working conditions make me feel safe.					
I feel valued by the management.					
I can take vacation when I need it					
RELATIONSHIP WITH MANAGEMENT					
I have a good working relationship with management					
I feel that my ideas are welcomed by management					
I have a good level of administrative support					
WHAT YOU FEEL ABOUT YOUR JOB					
I get up-to-date training and development from the management					
I am happy with my salary package					
I get the opportunity to be involved in decisions that affect me					
I get pay increases to maintain my standard of living					
I get fair pay compared to other employees in other jobs where my co-equals work.					
I get fair treatment as all my colleagues do.					
I get support when I want to learn new skills					

I get information on important development that affects me					
I get fringe benefits that are fair compared to what employees doing similar work get					
I have long term job security					
I feel motivated in my job					
I think my position has remained the same all these years					
I am disappointed in this oil marketing retail outlet					
I am frustrated in my job					
FUTURE					
I have good career prospects within this oil marketing retail outlet					
I am looking forward to a new job					
I will get promoted as my colleagues do					

Section C: Socio demographic issues

8. Age
9. Sex. 1. Male Female
10. Level of Education
1. Primary 2. JHS
3. SHS 4. Tertiary
5. Other (specify)

11. Marital Status.

1. Married 2. Single
3. Widowed 4. Separate

12. Family Size: Male: Female:

13. Which of these comes close to your monthly income

1. Less GHC 50.00
2. 50.00 – 99.99
3. 100 – 140.99
4. Other (specify)