

**TOWARD CONSTRUCTING A PSYCHOSOCIAL MODEL OF CAREER  
WELLBEING FOR THE SOUTH AFRICAN WORKING ADULT**

by

**SALEMON MARAIS BESTER**

submitted in accordance with the requirements  
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN PSYCHOLOGY

in the subject

Industrial and Organisational Psychology

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

SUPERVISOR: PROF. M COETZEE

January 2018

## DECLARATION

I, Salemon Marais Bester, student number: 58527737, declare that this thesis, entitled "Toward constructing a psychosocial model of career wellbeing for the South African working adult", is my own work, and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references. This thesis has not, in part or in whole, been previously submitted for any other degree or examination at this or any other university.

I also declare that the study has been carried out in strict accordance with the Policy for Research Ethics of the University of South Africa (Unisa). I took great care to ensure that the research was conducted with the highest integrity, taking into account Unisa's policy for Infringement and Plagiarism.

As indicated by **Appendix B**, I further declare that ethical clearance to conduct the research was granted by the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, University of South Africa. Permission to conduct the research was also obtained from the individuals who participated in the study.

Signed:



**S.M. Bester**

Date:

**30 January 2018**

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to the following:

- Soli Deo Gloria
- Prof Melinde Coetzee, thank you for your guidance, support and for sharing your passion for our field with me
- UNISA for providing me with the financial and academic resources to make this research study possible
- Andries Masenge for his assistance with the statistical analysis
- Alexa Barnby for the language editing of the thesis
- My wife, Gerna Bester, you are the reason I am, you are all my reasons
- Thank you to my family for your love and support. Thank you for giving me books and for teaching me the value of being inquisitive
- I dedicate this thesis to the South African working adult. Your passion makes our country great

## **ABSTRACT/SUMMARY**

### **TOWARD CONSTRUCTING A PSYCHOSOCIAL MODEL OF CAREER WELLBEING FOR THE SOUTH AFRICAN WORKING ADULT**

**by**

**S.M. Bester**

**SUPERVISOR** : Prof. M. Coetzee  
**DEPARTMENT** : Industrial and Organisational Psychology  
**DEGREE** : PhD in Psychology (Industrial and Organisational Psychology)

In this research, a cross-sectional quantitative survey was conducted on a convenience sample of working adults (N = 550) from different race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure groups in various South African organisations, with the intention of developing a psychosocial model of career wellbeing for the working adult in the South African context. To identify the elements and nature of the model, the relationship dynamics between the constructs of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and the outcome of career satisfaction were examined. The mediating effect of psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations on the relationship dynamics between occupational passion and career satisfaction was determined. The moderating effect of certain sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level, and tenure) on the relationship dynamics between the research constructs was measured. In addition, an evaluation of the differences manifested by individuals from various sociodemographic backgrounds (race, gender, age, qualification, job level, and tenure) regarding the research constructs added to an understanding of the manifested model.

Correlation and inferential statistical analyses (multi-level mediation modelling, regression analysis and tests for significant mean differences) indicated that career management practices should consider harmonious passion to be an important intrinsic motivational antecedent in explaining the variance in individuals' career satisfaction as it can facilitate the development of important psychosocial resources. These resources include flexible career preferences, well-crafted career plans and actions to achieve career goals, career harmonisers (i.e. self-esteem, behavioural adaptability and emotional literacy) and a strong need to be upskilled and employable (career adaptation needs). These elements manifested as the core elements of the psychosocial career wellbeing profile. Job level and race were further indicated as important sociodemographic variables in explaining levels of career satisfaction. Differences between race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure groups,

for the constructs of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction, also need to be considered in the career wellbeing profile. Theoretically, the results advanced career theory by empirically validating the core elements of the career wellbeing profile. These may be applied to inform career management practices and consequently enhance the career wellbeing of working adults.

### **KEY TERMS**

Career intervention; career management; career satisfaction; career wellbeing; conservation of resources theory; diversity; occupational passion; psychological career resources; psychosocial career preoccupations; self-determination theory.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.....	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....	ii
ABSTRACT/SUMMARY.....	iii
List of figures.....	xiii
List of tables.....	xiv
<b>CHAPTER 1.....</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>SCIENTIFIC OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH .....</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH.....	1
1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT .....	22
1.2.1 Research questions arising from the literature review .....	23
1.2.2 Research questions with regard to the empirical study.....	23
1.3 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH.....	24
1.3.1 General aim of the research .....	24
1.3.2 Specific aims of the research .....	24
1.3.2.1 <i>Literature review</i> .....	24
1.3.2.2 <i>Empirical study</i> .....	25
1.4 STATEMENT OF SIGNIFICANCE .....	26
1.4.1 Potential contribution on a theoretical level .....	26
1.4.2 Potential contribution on an empirical level .....	27
1.4.3 Potential contribution on a practical level .....	28
1.5 THE RESEARCH MODEL.....	29
1.6 THE PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE OF THE RESEARCH.....	30
1.6.1 The intellectual climate .....	30
1.6.1.1 <i>Literature review</i> .....	30
1.6.1.2 <i>Empirical research</i> .....	32
1.6.2 The market of intellectual resources.....	33
1.6.2.1 <i>Meta-theoretical statements</i> .....	33
1.6.2.2 <i>Conceptual descriptions</i> .....	34
1.6.2.3 <i>Central hypothesis</i> .....	38
1.6.2.4 <i>Theoretical assumptions</i> .....	39
1.6.2.5 <i>Methodological assumptions</i> .....	39
1.7 RESEARCH DESIGN.....	41
1.7.1 Exploratory research .....	41
1.7.2 Descriptive research.....	41
1.7.3 Explanatory research.....	42
1.7.4 Validity .....	43
1.7.4.1 <i>Validity with regard to the literature</i> .....	43
1.7.4.2 <i>Validity with regard to the empirical research</i> .....	43
1.7.5 Reliability .....	44
1.7.6 The unit of research.....	45
1.7.7 The variables .....	45
1.7.8 Delimitations .....	45
1.8 THE RESEARCH METHOD .....	46
1.8.1 Phase 1: Literature review .....	46
1.8.2 Phase 2: The empirical study .....	48
1.9 CHAPTER DIVISION.....	50
1.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY .....	51

<b>CHAPTER 2.....</b>	<b>53</b>
<b>META-THEORETICAL CONTEXT OF THE STUDY: CAREER WELLBEING AND CAREER SATISFACTION WITHIN THE CONTEMPORARY WORLD OF WORK .....</b>	<b>53</b>
2.1 CAREERS IN THE CONTEMPORARY WORLD OF WORK.....	53
2.1.1 The evolution of careers .....	54
2.1.2 Socioeconomic changes influencing careers within the 21st century .....	56
2.1.2.1 <i>Globalisation</i> .....	56
2.1.2.2 <i>Workforce demographics</i> .....	58
2.1.2.3 <i>Technology</i> .....	59
2.1.2.4 <i>Knowledge workers</i> .....	60
2.1.3 Career perspectives in the 21st century .....	62
2.1.3.1 <i>Boundaryless careers</i> .....	62
2.1.3.2 <i>Protean careers</i> .....	63
2.1.3.3 <i>Global careers</i> .....	64
2.1.3.4 <i>Entrepreneurial careers</i> .....	65
2.1.3.5 <i>Kaleidoscope careers</i> .....	66
2.1.4 Evaluation and synthesis .....	68
2.2 CAREERS OF WORKING ADULTS .....	69
2.2.1 The career preoccupations of working adults.....	69
2.2.2 Career adaptability .....	71
2.2.3 Working adults as proactive career agents .....	75
2.2.4 Evaluation and synthesis .....	80
2.3 CAREER WELLBEING.....	80
2.3.1 Conceptualisation of career wellbeing.....	81
2.3.2 Theoretical frameworks of career wellbeing.....	88
2.3.2.1 <i>Conservation of resources theory</i> .....	88
2.3.2.2 <i>Adaptation theory of subjective wellbeing</i> .....	93
2.3.2.3 <i>The disease model and the positive psychology model</i> .....	94
2.3.2.4 <i>The PERMA model</i> .....	94
2.3.2.5 <i>Theories on hedonia and eudaimonia</i> .....	95
2.3.2.6 <i>Telic theories of subjective wellbeing</i> .....	97
2.3.2.7 <i>Cognitive theories of subjective wellbeing</i> .....	97
2.3.2.8 <i>Evolutionary theories of subjective wellbeing</i> .....	98
2.3.2.9 <i>Relative standards models of subjective wellbeing</i> .....	98
2.3.3 Person-centred variables influencing career wellbeing.....	100
2.3.3.1 <i>Race</i> .....	100
2.3.3.2 <i>Gender</i> .....	101
2.3.3.3 <i>Age</i> .....	102
2.3.3.4 <i>Qualification</i> .....	104
2.3.3.5 <i>Job level</i> .....	104
2.3.3.6 <i>Tenure</i> .....	105
2.3.4 Evaluation and synthesis .....	106
2.4 CAREER SATISFACTION .....	106
2.4.1 Conceptualisation of career satisfaction.....	107
2.4.2 Theoretical frameworks of career satisfaction.....	111
2.4.2.1 <i>Theory of work adjustment</i> .....	112
2.4.2.2 <i>The indigenous model of career satisfaction</i> .....	113
2.4.2.3 <i>The individual aspiration perspective of career success</i> .....	114
2.4.2.4 <i>The calling model of career success</i> .....	116
2.4.2.5 <i>Contest-mobility model of career success</i> .....	117
2.4.2.6 <i>The sponsored-mobility model of career success</i> .....	117

2.4.3	Person-centred variables influencing career satisfaction .....	119
2.4.3.1	<i>Race</i> .....	120
2.4.3.2	<i>Gender</i> .....	121
2.4.3.3	<i>Age</i> .....	123
2.4.3.4	<i>Qualification</i> .....	124
2.4.3.5	<i>Job level</i> .....	125
2.4.3.6	<i>Tenure</i> .....	125
2.4.4	Evaluation and synthesis .....	127
2.5	CHAPTER EVALUATION AND SYNTHESIS .....	127
2.6	CHAPTER SUMMARY .....	129
<b>CHAPTER 3</b>	<b>.....</b>	<b>131</b>
<b>OCCUPATIONAL PASSION, PSYCHOLOGICAL CAREER RESOURCES AND PSYCHOSOCIAL CAREER PREOCCUPATIONS</b>	<b>.....</b>	<b>131</b>
3.1	OCCUPATIONAL PASSION .....	131
3.1.1	Conceptualisation .....	131
3.1.1.1	<i>Passion prevalence</i> .....	135
3.1.1.2	<i>Harmonious passion</i> .....	137
3.1.1.3	<i>Obsessive passion</i> .....	139
3.1.2	Theoretical frameworks .....	142
3.1.2.1	<i>The dualistic model of passion</i> .....	142
3.1.2.2	<i>Self-determination theory</i> .....	144
3.1.3	Person-centred variables influencing occupational passion .....	148
3.1.3.1	<i>Race</i> .....	148
3.1.3.2	<i>Gender</i> .....	148
3.1.3.3	<i>Age</i> .....	149
3.1.3.4	<i>Qualification</i> .....	149
3.1.3.5	<i>Job level</i> .....	150
3.1.3.6	<i>Tenure</i> .....	150
3.1.4	Evaluation and synthesis .....	151
3.2	PSYCHOLOGICAL CAREER RESOURCES .....	152
3.2.1	Conceptualisation of psychological career resources .....	152
3.2.1.1	<i>Career preferences and career values</i> .....	153
3.2.1.2	<i>Career drivers</i> .....	155
3.2.1.3	<i>Career enablers</i> .....	156
3.2.1.4	<i>Career harmonisers</i> .....	156
3.2.2	Psychological career resources theoretical frameworks .....	158
3.2.2.1	<i>Coetzee's psychological career resources theoretical framework</i> .....	158
3.2.2.2	<i>Schein's career orientations framework</i> .....	159
3.2.2.3	<i>The career invention model</i> .....	162
3.2.3	Person-centred variables influencing psychological career resources .....	166
3.2.3.1	<i>Race</i> .....	166
3.2.3.2	<i>Gender</i> .....	168
3.2.3.3	<i>Age</i> .....	169
3.2.3.4	<i>Qualification</i> .....	169
3.2.3.5	<i>Job level</i> .....	170
3.2.3.6	<i>Tenure</i> .....	170
3.2.4	Evaluation and synthesis .....	171
3.3	PSYCHOSOCIAL CAREER PREOCCUPATIONS .....	172

3.3.1	Conceptualisation of psychosocial career preoccupations .....	172
3.3.1.1	<i>Career establishment preoccupations</i> .....	174
3.3.1.2	<i>Career adaptation preoccupations</i> .....	174
3.3.1.3	<i>Work–life adjustment preoccupations</i> .....	174
3.3.2	Theoretical framework .....	176
3.3.3	Person-centred variables influencing psychosocial career preoccupations.....	181
3.3.3.1	<i>Race</i> .....	181
3.3.3.2	<i>Gender</i> .....	182
3.3.3.3	<i>Age</i> .....	182
3.3.3.4	<i>Qualification</i> .....	183
3.3.3.5	<i>Job level</i> .....	183
3.3.3.6	<i>Tenure</i> .....	183
3.3.4	Evaluation and synthesis .....	184
3.4	CHAPTER EVALUATION AND SYNTHESIS .....	185
3.5	CHAPTER SUMMARY .....	186
<b>CHAPTER 4.....</b>		<b>188</b>
<b>INTEGRATION – TOWARD CONSTRUCTING A PSYCHOSOCIAL MODEL OF CAREER WELLBEING FOR THE SOUTH AFRICAN WORKING ADULT.....</b>		<b>188</b>
4.1	THE PSYCHOSOCIAL MODEL OF CAREER WELLBEING: THEORETICAL LENS .....	188
4.2	THE PSYCHOSOCIAL MODEL OF CAREER WELLBEING: AN OVERVIEW OF THE LITERATURE .....	195
4.2.1	Career wellbeing within the contemporary workplace .....	195
4.2.2	Career satisfaction in the contemporary workplace .....	195
4.2.3	Occupational passion .....	196
4.2.4	Psychological career resources.....	196
4.2.5	Psychosocial career preoccupations .....	196
4.3	THE PSYCHOSOCIAL MODEL OF CAREER WELLBEING: INTEGRATION .....	196
4.3.1	The hypothetical relationships between the variables.....	201
4.3.2	Psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations as mediating variables.....	204
4.3.3	Hypothetical fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model .....	206
4.3.4	Hypothetical moderating effect of sociodemographic variables .....	206
4.3.5	Hypothetical differences between the respective sociodemographic groups .....	210
4.4	IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE .....	215
4.4.1	Career satisfaction.....	215
4.4.2	Occupational passion .....	216
4.4.3	Psychological career resources.....	217
4.4.4	Psychosocial career preoccupations .....	219
4.5	CHAPTER EVALUATION AND SYNTHESIS .....	220
4.6	CHAPTER SUMMARY .....	225
<b>CHAPTER 5.....</b>		<b>226</b>
<b>RESEARCH METHOD .....</b>		<b>226</b>
5.1	DETERMINATION AND DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE.....	227
5.1.1	Distribution of race groups in the sample .....	<b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b>
5.1.2	Distribution of gender groups in the sample .....	229
5.1.3	Distribution of age groups in the sample .....	229
5.1.4	Distribution of educational qualifications in the sample.....	230
5.1.5	Distribution of job level groups in the sample.....	231
5.1.6	Distribution of tenure groups in the sample .....	232

5.1.7	Summary of sociodemographic profile of sample .....	233
5.2	SELECTING AND JUSTIFYING THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY .....	234
5.2.1	The Career Satisfaction Scale (CSS) .....	234
5.2.1.1	<i>Rationale and purpose</i> .....	234
5.2.1.2	<i>Dimensions of the Career Satisfaction Scale</i> .....	235
5.2.1.3	<i>Administration</i> .....	235
5.2.1.4	<i>Interpretation</i> .....	235
5.2.1.5	<i>Reliability and validity of the CSS</i> .....	235
5.2.1.6	<i>Motivation for using the CSS</i> .....	236
5.2.2	The Passion Scale (PS) .....	236
5.2.2.1	<i>Rationale and purpose</i> .....	236
5.2.2.2	<i>Dimensions of the PS</i> .....	236
5.2.2.3	<i>Administration</i> .....	237
5.2.2.4	<i>Interpretation</i> .....	237
5.2.2.5	<i>Reliability and validity of the PS</i> .....	238
5.2.2.6	<i>Motivation for using the PS</i> .....	238
5.2.3	Psychological Career Resources Inventory (PCRI) .....	238
5.2.3.1	<i>Rationale and purpose</i> .....	238
5.2.3.2	<i>Dimensions of the PCRI</i> .....	238
5.2.3.3	<i>Administration</i> .....	239
5.2.3.4	<i>Interpretation</i> .....	239
5.2.3.5	<i>Reliability and validity of the PCRI</i> .....	240
5.2.3.6	<i>Motivation for using the PCRI</i> .....	240
5.2.4	The Psychosocial Career Preoccupations Scale (PCPS) .....	240
5.2.4.1	<i>Rationale and purpose</i> .....	241
5.2.4.2	<i>Dimensions of the PCPS</i> .....	241
5.2.4.3	<i>Administration</i> .....	242
5.2.4.4	<i>Interpretation</i> .....	242
5.2.4.5	<i>Reliability and validity of the PCPS</i> .....	242
5.2.4.6	<i>Motivation for using PCPS</i> .....	242
5.2.5	Limitations of the psychometric battery .....	243
5.3	ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS IN ADMINISTRATION OF THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY .....	243
5.4	CAPTURING OF CRITERION DATA .....	246
5.5	FORMULATION OF THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES .....	246
5.6	STATISTICAL PROCESSING OF THE DATA .....	246
5.6.1	Stage 1: Preliminary statistical analysis .....	248
5.6.1.1	<i>Step 1: Common method variance (bias)</i> .....	248
5.6.1.2	<i>Step 2: Internal consistency reliability and construct validity of the measurement model</i> .....	249
5.6.2	Stage 2: Preliminary descriptive statistical analysis .....	250
5.6.2.1	<i>Step 1: Means and standard deviations, kurtosis and skewness, and frequency data</i> .....	251
5.6.2.2	<i>Step 2: Test for assumptions</i> .....	251
5.6.3	Stage 3: Correlation analysis .....	254
5.6.4	Stage 4: Inferential and multivariate statistical analysis .....	255
5.6.4.1	<i>Step 2: Structural equation modelling (SEM)</i> .....	258
5.6.4.2	<i>Step 3: Stepwise multiple regression analysis and hierarchical moderated regression analysis</i> .....	261
5.6.4.3	<i>Step 5: Test for significant mean differences</i> .....	262
5.6.5	Statistical significance level .....	263

5.6.5.1	<i>Level of significance: correlational statistical analysis</i> .....	263
5.6.5.2	<i>Level of significance: multilevel mediation modelling</i> .....	264
5.6.5.3	<i>Level of significance: structural equation modelling (SEM)</i> .....	264
5.6.5.4	<i>Level of significance: stepwise regression and hierarchical moderated regression</i> .....	265
5.6.5.5	<i>Level of significance: tests for significant mean differences</i> .....	266
5.7	LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH.....	267
5.8	CHAPTER SUMMARY .....	267
<b>CHAPTER 6</b> .....		<b>269</b>
<b>RESULTS AND DISCUSSION</b> .....		<b>269</b>
6.1	PRELIMINARY STATISTICAL ANALYSIS.....	269
6.1.1	Common method variance .....	269
6.1.2	Measurement model validity.....	271
6.1.3	Assessing scale reliability and construct validity .....	273
6.1.4	Testing construct validity of the overall measurement model .....	276
6.2	DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS.....	277
6.3	CORRELATIONAL STATISTICS .....	281
6.3.1	Correlations between sociodemographic variables and the scale constructs.....	281
6.3.1.1	<i>Race</i> .....	282
6.3.1.2	<i>Gender</i> .....	282
6.3.1.3	<i>Age</i> .....	282
6.3.1.4	<i>Qualification</i> .....	282
6.3.1.5	<i>Job level</i> .....	282
6.3.1.6	<i>Tenure</i> .....	283
6.3.2	Correlations between the scale variables.....	283
6.3.2.1	<i>Bivariate correlations among the scale variables</i> .....	284
6.3.2.2	<i>Bivariate correlations between the four scale variables</i> .....	285
6.4	INFERENTIAL (MULTIVARIATE) STATISTICAL ANALYSIS.....	289
6.4.1	Multilevel mediation modelling.....	289
6.4.1.1	<i>Model 1: Effect of harmonious passion through psychological career resources and psychosocial preoccupations on career satisfaction</i> .....	292
6.4.1.2	<i>Model 2: Effect of obsessive passion through psychological career resources and psychosocial preoccupations on career satisfaction</i> .....	296
6.4.1.3	<i>Model 3: Effect of passion prevalence through psychological career resources and psychosocial preoccupations on career satisfaction</i> .....	300
6.4.1.4	<i>Model 4: Effect of overall occupational passion through psychological career resources and psychosocial preoccupations on career satisfaction</i> .....	304
6.4.2	Structural equation modelling (SEM).....	310
6.4.3	Stepwise multiple regression analysis.....	314
6.4.3.1	<i>Stepwise regression: Sociodemographic variables and occupational passion as predictors of career satisfaction</i> .....	314
6.4.3.2	<i>Stepwise regression: Sociodemographic variables and psychological career resources as predictors of career satisfaction</i> .....	315
6.4.3.3	<i>Stepwise regression: Sociodemographic variables and psychosocial career preoccupations as predictors of career satisfaction</i> .....	316
6.4.4	Hierarchical moderated regression analysis .....	317
6.4.4.1	<i>Model 1: Examining the effects of occupational passion and job level on career satisfaction</i> .....	318
6.4.4.2	<i>Model 2: Examining the effects of psychological career resources, race and job level on career satisfaction</i> .....	319
6.4.4.3	<i>Model 3: Examining the effects of psychosocial preoccupations and job level on career satisfaction</i> .....	321

6.4.5	Test for significant mean differences.....	322
6.4.5.1	<i>Reporting differences in mean scores for race groups (PS, PCRI, PCPS, CSS) .....</i>	323
6.4.5.2	<i>Reporting differences in mean scores for gender groups (PS, PCRI, PCPS, CSS) .....</i>	324
6.4.5.3	<i>Reporting differences in mean scores for age groups (PS, PCRI, PCPS, CSS) .....</i>	325
6.4.5.4	<i>Reporting differences in mean scores for qualification groups (PS, PCRI, PCPS, CSS) .....</i>	327
6.4.5.5	<i>Reporting differences in mean scores for job level groups (PS, PCRI, PCPS, CSS) .....</i>	328
6.4.5.6	<i>Reporting differences in mean scores for tenure groups (PS, PCRI, PCPS, CSS) .....</i>	331
6.5	INTEGRATION AND DISCUSSION .....	336
6.5.1	Socio-demographic profile of the sample and frequencies .....	336
6.5.2	Descriptive statistics: Interpretation of the results (mean scores) .....	337
6.5.2.1	<i>Psychosocial career wellbeing profile of participants: Occupational passion .....</i>	337
6.5.2.2	<i>Psychosocial career wellbeing profile of participants: Psychological career resources .....</i>	338
6.5.2.3	<i>Psychosocial career wellbeing profile of participants: Psychosocial career preoccupations .....</i>	339
6.5.2.4	<i>Psychosocial career wellbeing profile of participants: Career satisfaction.....</i>	340
6.5.3	Empirical research aim 1: Interpretation of the correlation results .....	341
6.5.3.1	<i>Relationship between the socio-demographic, independent, mediating and dependent construct variables.....</i>	341
6.5.3.2	<i>Relationship between the independent variables, mediating variable and the dependent construct variable .....</i>	343
6.5.4	Empirical research aim 2: Interpretation of the multilevel mediation analysis.....	345
6.5.5	Empirical research aim 3: Interpretation of the structural equation modelling (SEM) results .....	348
6.5.6	Empirical research aim 4: Interpretation of the stepwise regression modelling and the hierarchical moderated regression results .....	353
6.5.7	Empirical research aim 5: Interpretation of the tests for significant mean differences results .....	355
6.5.8	Synthesis: Constructing a psychosocial career wellbeing profile for South African working adults.....	360
6.5.9	Decisions concerning the research hypotheses.....	364
6.6	CHAPTER SUMMARY .....	365
<b>CHAPTER 7.....</b>		<b>368</b>
<b>CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....</b>		<b>368</b>
7.1	CONCLUSIONS .....	368
7.1.1	Conclusions relating to the literature review.....	368
7.1.1.1	<i>Literature research aim 1 .....</i>	368
7.1.1.2	<i>Literature research aim 2.....</i>	371
7.1.1.3	<i>Literature research aim 3.....</i>	375
7.1.1.4	<i>Literature research aim 4.....</i>	378
7.1.2	Conclusions relating to the empirical study .....	380
7.1.2.1	<i>Emperical research aim 1 .....</i>	381
7.1.2.2	<i>Emperical research aim 2 .....</i>	382
7.1.2.3	<i>Emperical research aim 3.....</i>	382
7.1.2.4	<i>Emperical research aim 4.....</i>	382
7.1.2.5	<i>Emperical research aim 5.....</i>	383
7.1.3	Conclusions relating to the central hypothesis .....	385
7.1.4	Conclusions relating to the field of industrial psychology .....	385
7.2	LIMITATIONS .....	386

7.2.1	Limitations of the literature review .....	386
7.2.2	Limitations of the empirical study .....	387
7.3	RECOMMENDATIONS .....	388
7.3.1	Recommendations for the field of industrial psychology .....	388
7.3.2	Recommendations for future research .....	391
7.4	EVALUATION OF THE STUDY .....	392
7.4.1	Value added on a theoretical level .....	392
7.4.2	Value added on an empirical level.....	393
7.4.3	Value added on a practical level.....	394
7.4.4	Critical evaluation of doctorateness.....	396
7.5	CHAPTER SUMMARY .....	396
Annexure A: Editor’s letter .....		464
Annexure B: Ethics clearance certificate .....		465

## List of figures

<i>Figure 1.1: Overview of the literature review</i> .....	46
<i>Figure 1.2: Overview of the empirical study</i> .....	48
<i>Figure 2.1: Four dimensions of career adaptability (Savickas &amp; Porfeli, 2012, p. 665)</i> .....	74
<i>Figure 2.2: First career self-management model (Raabe et al., 2007, p. 299)</i> .....	76
<i>Figure 2.3: Second career self-management model (Raabe et al., 2007, p. 299)</i> .....	77
<i>Figure 2.4: Components of career wellbeing (Kidd, 2008)</i> .....	87
<i>Figure 2.5: The COR model (Hobfoll, 2001, p. 358)</i> .....	92
<i>Figure 2.6: The indigenous model of career satisfaction (Haar &amp; Brougham, 2013, p. 882)</i> .....	114
<i>Figure 2.7: Career aspirations, career success, and gender (Dolan et al., 2011, p. 3151)</i> .....	116
<i>Figure 2.8: The calling model of career success (Hall &amp; Chandler, 2005, p. 165)</i> .....	117
<i>Figure 2.9: Career wellbeing and career satisfaction within the contemporary workplace</i> .....	129
<i>Figure 3.1: The dualistic model of passion (Vallerand et al., 2003)</i> .....	143
<i>Figure 3.2: Needs realisation in terms of self-determination theory (Deci &amp; Ryan, 2000)</i> .....	146
<i>Figure 3.3: A theoretical framework for the construct of psychological career resources</i> .....	159
<i>Figure 3.4: Integrated theoretical model of career anchors (Coetzee &amp; Schreuder, 2008, p. 48)</i> .....	161
<i>Figure 3.5: The career invention model (Coetzee, 2007b)</i> .....	163
<i>Figure 3.6: Characteristics of a successful career (Coetzee, 2007b)</i> .....	164
<i>Figure 3.7: Career construction theory (Savickas, 2005, 2011, 2013)</i> .....	180
<i>Figure 3.8: Coetzee's (2014b) theoretical framework of psychosocial career preoccupations</i> .....	181
<i>Figure 4.1: Recommended theoretical psychosocial career wellbeing framework</i> .....	200
<i>Figure 5.1: Sample distribution by race (n = 550)</i> .....	228
<i>Figure 5.2: Sample distribution by gender (n = 550)</i> .....	229
<i>Figure 5.3: Sample distribution by age (n = 550)</i> .....	230
<i>Figure 5.4: Sample distribution by educational qualification (n = 550)</i> .....	231
<i>Figure 5.5: Sample Distribution of Job Level (n = 550)</i> .....	232
<i>Figure 5.6: Sample distribution by tenure (n = 550)</i> .....	233
<i>Figure 5.7: Overview of the data analysis process and statistical procedures</i> .....	248
<i>Figure 6.1: Final structural model.</i> .....	313
<i>Figure 6.2: Empirically manifested career wellbeing profile</i> .....	363

## List of tables

Table 1.1	<i>Summary of Research Constructs</i> .....	38
Table 2.1	<i>Socioeconomic Factors Influencing Careers Within the 21st Century</i> .....	61
Table 2.2	<i>Differences Between the Traditional and Modern Career Outlooks</i> .....	67
Table 2.3	<i>Summary of the Theoretical Models Related to Career Wellbeing</i> .....	99
Table 2.4	<i>Summary of the Theoretical Models Related to Career Satisfaction</i> .....	118
Table 3.1	<i>Summary of the Core Conclusions on the Concept of Occupational Passion</i> .....	141
Table 3.2	<i>Summary of the Theoretical Models Related to Occupational Passion</i> .....	147
Table 3.3	<i>Summary of Super's Career Values</i> .....	154
Table 3.4	<i>Summary of the Core Conclusions on the Concept of Psychological Career Resources</i> .....	157
Table 3.5	<i>Summary of the Theoretical Models Related to Psychological Career Resources</i> .....	165
Table 3.6	<i>Summary of the Core Conclusions on the Concept of Psychosocial Career Preoccupations</i> .....	175
Table 3.7	<i>Super's (1957, 1990) Stages of Occupational Development</i> .....	177
Table 5.1	<i>Race Distribution in the Sample (n = 550)</i> .....	228
Table 5.2	<i>Gender Distribution in the Sample (n = 550)</i> .....	229
Table 5.3	<i>Age Distribution in the Sample (n = 550)</i> .....	230
Table 5.4	<i>Educational Qualification Distribution in the Sample (n = 550)</i> .....	231
Table 5.5	<i>Job Level Distribution in the Sample (n = 550)</i> .....	232
Table 5.6	<i>Tenure Distribution in the Sample (n = 550)</i> .....	233
Table 5.7	<i>The Main Characteristics of the Sample Profile</i> .....	234
Table 5.8	<i>Research Hypotheses</i> .....	246
Table 6.1	<i>Testing for Common Method Variance: Factor Solutions</i> .....	270
Table 6.2	<i>Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Construct Validity</i> .....	272
Table 6.3	<i>Convergent and Discriminant Validity of the Measurement Model</i> .....	275
Table 6.4	<i>Construct Validity of Overall Measurement Model</i> .....	277
Table 6.5	<i>Descriptive Statistics: Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis</i> .....	279
Table 6.6	<i>Bivariate Correlations of the Sociodemographic, Independent, Mediator and Dependent Variables</i> .....	281
Table 6.7	<i>Bivariate Correlations of the Independent and Dependent Variables</i> .....	283
Table 6.8	<i>Direct Effects: Harmonious Passion, Psychological Career Resources, Career Preoccupations and Career Satisfaction</i> .....	292
Table 6.9	<i>Total, Direct and Indirect Links between Harmonious Passion and Career Satisfaction through Psychological Career Resources and Career Preoccupations</i> .....	294
Table 6.10	<i>Significant Mediators for the Link between Harmonious Passion and Career Satisfaction</i> .....	295
Table 6.11	<i>Direct Effects: Obsessive Passion, Psychological Career Resources, Career Preoccupations and Career Satisfaction</i> .....	296
Table 6.12	<i>Total, Direct and Indirect Links between Obsessive Passion and Career Satisfaction through Psychological Career Resources and Career Preoccupations</i> .....	299

Table 6.13	<i>Direct Effects: Passion Prevalence, Psychological Career Resources, Career Preoccupations and Career Satisfaction</i> .....	300
Table 6.14	<i>Total, Direct and Indirect Links between Passion Prevalence and Career Satisfaction through Psychological Career Resources and Career Preoccupations</i> .....	302
Table 6.15	<i>Ratio of the Indirect to Total Effect of Passion Prevalence on Career Satisfaction</i> .....	303
Table 6.16	<i>Direct Effects: Occupational Passion, Psychological Career Resources, Career Preoccupations and Career Satisfaction</i> .....	304
Table 6.17	<i>Total, Direct and Indirect Links between Occupational Passion and Career Satisfaction through Psychological Career Resources and Career Preoccupations</i> .....	306
Table 6.18	<i>Ratio of the Indirect to Total Effect of Overall Occupational Passion on Career Satisfaction</i> .....	307
Table 6.19	<i>Model Fit Statistics: Comparison between Models</i> .....	311
Table 6.20	<i>Chi-square Comparisons</i> .....	311
Table 6.21	<i>Standardised Path Coefficients for the Final Hypothesised Structural Equation Model</i> .....	312
Table 6.22	<i>Stepwise Regression Analysis Results: Sociodemographic Variables and Occupational Passion as Predictors of Career Satisfaction</i> .....	315
Table 6.23	<i>Stepwise Regression Analysis Results: Sociodemographic Variables and Psychological Career Resources as Predictors of Career Satisfaction</i> .....	316
Table 6.24	<i>Stepwise Regression Analysis Results: Sociodemographic Variables and Psychosocial Career Preoccupations as Predictors of Career Satisfaction</i> .....	317
Table 6.25	<i>Moderated Regression Analysis Examining the Effects of Occupational Passion and Job Level on Career Satisfaction</i> .....	319
Table 6.26	<i>Moderated Regression Analysis Examining the Effects of Psychological Career Resources, Race and Job Level on Career Satisfaction</i> .....	320
Table 6.27	<i>Moderated Regression Analysis Examining the Effects of Psychosocial Preoccupations and Job Level on Career Satisfaction</i> .....	321
Table 6.28	<i>Tests for Significant Mean Differences: Race</i> .....	323
Table 6.29	<i>Tests for Significant Mean Differences: Gender</i> .....	324
Table 6.30	<i>Tests for Significant Mean Differences: Age</i> .....	325
Table 6.31	<i>Tests for Significant Mean Differences: Qualification</i> .....	328
Table 6.32	<i>Tests for Significant Mean Differences: Job Level</i> .....	328
Table 6.33	<i>Tests for Significant Mean Differences: Tenure</i> .....	331
Table 6.34	<i>Summary of Significant Mean Differences</i> .....	334
Table 6.35	<i>Summation of Sociodemographic Differences of Career Wellbeing Profile Variables</i> .....	335
Table 6.36	<i>Summary of the Main Findings Relating to the Research Hypotheses</i> .....	364

## **CHAPTER 1**

### **SCIENTIFIC OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH**

The study focused on constructing a psychosocial career wellbeing model for adult workers in the diverse South African workplace. The constructs that relate to this research include career constructs pertaining to the psychosocial career wellbeing of individuals. The career constructs of relevance include occupational passion, career satisfaction, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations. This chapter discusses both the context and the purpose of the research study; articulates the problem statement and the research questions; stipulates the research aims; provides information on the paradigm perspective that informed the boundaries of the study; and provides information on the research design and methodology used. Finally, the chapter presents a chapter outline of the study.

#### **1.1 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH**

The context of this study is the career wellbeing of working adults in the South African work context. Career wellbeing is conceptualised as the satisfaction that individuals have with their careers over time (Brown & Lent, 2016; Lang, Kern, & Zapf, 2016; Pesch, Larson, & Surapaneni, 2016; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016). Career satisfaction serves as an indicator of career wellbeing within this study and is conceptualised as the subjective feelings that individuals have toward their careers (Busis et al., 2017; Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005; Ng & Feldman, 2014). When individuals experience more positive feelings about their careers they will experience greater career satisfaction which, over time, will lead to career wellbeing (Brown & Lent, 2016; Weng & Chen, 2014). This study takes place within the context of individuals in the work environment who find it challenging to manage their career wellbeing in an increasingly volatile economy and competitive job market, and amidst exposure to employment complexities and broadening career needs.

The research focused on certain career components that serve as indicators and psychosocial resources of individual career wellbeing. The career constructs of relevance include the following: (1) occupational passion (consisting of passion prevalence, harmonious passion, and obsessive passion) as the independent variable; (2) career satisfaction as the dependent variable; (3) psychological career resources (consisting of career drivers, career enablers, career harmonisers, career values and career preferences); and (4) psychosocial career preoccupations (consisting of career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations) as the mediating variables. The research focused on exploring the magnitude and direction of the associations between these variables and whether working adults of different races, genders, ages, qualifications, job level

and tenure backgrounds differ significantly in relation to these variables. It was anticipated that the knowledge of the relationship dynamics that emerged from the associations between the variables would enable the researcher to develop a psychosocial career wellbeing profile that may possibly inform industrial psychology and human resources practitioners on career wellbeing, as well as wellbeing-supportive career management interventions and practices in South African organisations.

As individuals spend over a third of their lives managing their careers, the satisfaction that individuals have with their careers, known as their career wellbeing, has been found to be a major predictor of their overall wellbeing or satisfaction with life (Kidd, 2008; Martínez-Martí & Ruch, 2017; Rath & Harter, 2010). According to the latest Global Competitiveness Report (2016–2017), which measures countries on 12 competitive pillars, South Africa is ranked 47th out of the 138 countries participating in the survey (Schwab, 2016). From the report, it is evident that serious concerns are prevalent relating to the country's support and management of the careers of its workforce. For example, when looking at pillar five (Higher Education and Training) and pillar seven (Labour Market Efficiency), South Africa's rating is disturbingly low, i.e. 77 and 97 respectively, out of 138 countries (Schwab, 2016). These ratings are of great concern as it seems that South African working adults need to manage and construct their careers within an increasingly complex and unsupportive work environment whilst attempting to have satisfactory careers.

A possible explanation for the above-mentioned ratings is that the South African work environment has faced many changes owing to significant developments on the socioeconomic front over the past 20 years (Barkhuizen, Rothmann, & Van de Vijver, 2013; Kerr, Wittenberg & Arrow, 2014; Kruger, 2011; Mokgolo, Mokgolo, & Modiba, 2012; Pienaar & Bester, 2009; Rowe & Crafford, 2003; Schutte & Barkhuizen, 2016). Socioeconomic changes such as globalisation, a greater dependence on technological resources, an increasingly volatile economy, a greater need for knowledge workers and changes in workforce demographics have resulted in the South African workplace becoming more complex, competitive and challenging (Barkhuizen et al., 2013; Herbst & Mills, 2015; Kruger, 2011; Martin & Roodt, 2008; McMahon, Watson, & Bimrose 2012; Nkomo & Stewart, 2006; Oldham & Da Silva, 2015; Potgieter, Coetzee, & Ximba, 2017; Savickas, 2013).

Globalisation has resulted in increased competition for jobs as many organisations are opting to centralise their operations (Yamao & Sekiguchi, 2015). A greater dependence on technological resources in the 21st century workplace has resulted in organisations looking for individuals who are highly skilled, knowledgeable and able to utilise technology in assisting the organisation to be more competitive (Narula, 2014). Individuals from diverse

sociodemographic backgrounds working together in the modern workplace has necessitated individuals to be more sensitive to the needs of others, open to diverse ideas and able to adapt to changes in organisational structures (Heng & Yazdanifard, 2013).

The above-mentioned socioeconomic changes have resulted in an evolution in the concept of 'career', as individuals need to adapt to these changes to become more employable and because organisations need employees who can assist them to overcome socioeconomic challenges (Afiouni & Karam, 2014; Woodd, 2013). The evolution in careers can be seen in the fact that contemporary careers are becoming more complex, boundaryless, recurring, horizontal and mobile as opposed to the traditional career, which was characterised by upward mobility, stability, and lifetime loyalty to a single employer (Arthur, 2014; Cappelli & Keller, 2014; Dunning, 2014; Hall & Mirvis, 2013; Oldham & Da Silva, 2015; Savickas 2013; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016; Woodd, 2013). Contemporary careers are perceived as a sequence of movements, decisions and changes during individuals' lives, and no longer as a single decision that was made in the beginning of the career (Bland & Roberts-Pittman, 2014). Traditional career management concepts that focused on the 'person-environment fit' and a 'job life' are no longer relevant to the contemporary career, as the psychological contract between the individual and the organisation has changed (Lu, Capezio, Restubog, Garcia, & Wang, 2016). Evidence for the change in the psychological contract between the individual and the organisation is the fact that contemporary employees need to take greater responsibility for their career self-management, show greater concern with their employability and need to constantly develop themselves to be sought after in the job market (Merino-Tejedor, Hontangas, & Boada-Grau, 2016).

The changing psychological contract has resulted in the onus for individual career management shifting from the organisation onto the individual, as organisations do not have the time or resources to spend on managing employees' careers (Olson & Shultz, 2013). Organisations are looking to appoint individuals who are employable and who can assist them to be more competitive within the challenging environment of the 21st century, whilst individuals seek employment opportunities that can satisfy certain career-related needs (Persson & Wasieleski, 2015). Career-related needs do not solely entail status and salary level, but also the degree to which individuals feel that their careers satisfy certain psychological needs (Ng et al., 2005; Ng & Feldman, 2014). The fulfilment of psychological needs, such as finding meaning in their careers (Duffy & Sedlacek, 2010), following their true calling (Duffy & Dik, 2013), and finding an organisation that aligns with their career-related values (Sortheix, Dietrich, Chow, & Salmela-Aro, 2013), have become essential for modern employees as elements of career satisfaction and career wellbeing. However, as a result of

the increasingly complex and ambiguous work environment, and the lack of support from their employers, it is becoming more challenging for individuals to satisfy their career-related needs, a condition that potentially negatively affects their career wellbeing (Abele-Brehm, 2014).

Modern employees operate as autonomous agents managing their own career who sell their skills, knowledge and expertise to organisations in exchange for the satisfaction of career-related needs (Olson & Shultz, 2013; Savickas, 2013). Individuals who are able to develop their skills are proactive, adaptable and flexible and thus more employable, which will lead to greater satisfaction of their career-related needs (Creed, Fallon, & Hood, 2009; Ng & Feldman, 2014). Employable individuals who are satisfied with their careers hold several benefits for the organisation such as greater resilience to environmental changes, more harmonious work environments, greater achievement of goals, innovation and problem-solving ability (Ng et al., 2005; Ng & Feldman, 2014).

The changes and challenges that are increasingly taking place in the modern work environment have required individuals to become more flexible and to make changes often and in various ways in order to be successful and satisfy their career needs (Maree, 2015). Individuals who are able to adapt successfully to the changes and challenges of this environment will be able to satisfy their career-related needs (Savickas, 2013). Individuals are thus constantly attempting to create a greater balance between their needs and the needs of their employment environments (Hamtiaux, Houssemand, & Vrignaud, 2013). Individuals who find a balance between the organisation's needs and their career-related needs will experience greater satisfaction with their careers (Ng & Feldman, 2014).

Individuals who make proactive decisions are able to adapt and cultivate certain psychosocial career resources, and who are concerned with their employability, will experience greater career satisfaction (Arthur, 2008; Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Briscoe, Hall, & DeMuth, 2006; Hall, 1996; Hobfoll, 2002; Iellatchitch, Mayrhofer, & Meyer, 2003; Inkson, Gunz, Ganesh, & Roper, 2012; Kidd, 2008; Lent, 2013; Maniero & Sullivan, 2005; Ng & Feldman, 2014; Peiperl & Baruch, 1997; Savickas, 2013; Tams & Arthur, 2010). Career satisfaction can be defined as the subjective feelings of contentment and happiness that individuals have with regards to the degree to which their career-related needs are satisfied (Stumpf, 2014). In other words, career satisfaction may be described as the feelings that individuals have about their accomplishments in their careers, their career purpose and the meaning that they attach to their careers (Locke, 1969, 1976; Jen, 2010; Spector, 1997; Wickramasinghe & Jayaweera, 2010). These accomplishments include individuals' subjective feelings about their hierarchical position in the organisation, the achievement of career-related goals, the freedom to make their own career-related decisions, their adapting successfully to the changes within the

environment, the building of positive work relationships, contributing to society, and learning and applying new skills (Ng & Feldman, 2014).

Seibert and Kraimer (2001) conceptualise career satisfaction as the process of achieving positive psychological career-related goals. Career satisfaction is thus seen as an individuals' personal evaluation of their own career success (Abele & Spurk, 2009a; Ng et al., 2005; Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001). Career satisfaction may therefore be regarded as an individual's internal assessment of and satisfaction with their career progress (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990; Spurk & Abele, 2011). For working adults to feel that they have a meaningful and well-rounded career, career satisfaction has been viewed as an integral component of overall career success, as career satisfaction influences the career-related decisions that individuals make (Abele & Spurk, 2009b; Ng et al., 2005; Seibert et al., 2001; Spurk & Abele, 2011). Career satisfaction serves as an important benchmark of career wellbeing, which indicates the success with which individuals can navigate and overcome the challenges and changes posed by their work environments (Abele & Spurk, 2009b). Studies show that career satisfaction refers to the level of happiness that individuals experience with their career decisions, the degree to which individuals can adapt to environmental changes, be proactive and take autonomous control of their career goals (Poole, Langan-Fox, & Omodei, 1993; Wickramasinghe & Jayaweera, 2010). When individuals are generally satisfied with their careers it will lead to career wellbeing (Kidd, 2008).

Kidd (2008) conceptualises career wellbeing as the contentment that individuals have with the satisfaction of their career-related needs, the reaching of career-related goals and the mastery of environmental challenges over time. Harter and Arora (2010) support this notion when they state that career wellbeing mirrors the level of satisfaction that individuals experience in relation to their careers, jobs, vocations and/or avocations over time. Career wellbeing is thus a subjective form of wellbeing. Lounsbury, Park, Sundstrom, Williamson, and Pemberton (2004) indicate that career satisfaction correlates positively with career wellbeing as both constructs refer to the subjective feelings that individuals have toward their careers on a consistent basis. Career satisfaction indicates the level of contentment that individuals have with their careers at a specific point in time (Ng et al., 2005), whilst career wellbeing refers to the level of contentment that individuals have with their careers over time (Creed & Blume, 2013; Kidd, 2008; Tolentino, Garcia, Restubog, Bordia, & Tang, 2013). Similar to career satisfaction, career wellbeing refers to the individual's satisfaction with the way in which their daily work activities contribute to their career-related needs (Rath & Harter, 2010). Research shows that the following components are included in the conceptualisation of both career satisfaction and career wellbeing, namely, positive professional relationships; autonomy in

making career-related decisions; self-determination in relation to career management; environmental mastery; employability; setting and reaching of career-related goals; a sense of direction; and personal growth and advancement (Kidd, 2008; Ng et al., 2005).

Based on the above conceptualisations of career wellbeing and career satisfaction, there appears to be strong theoretical similarities between the two constructs. Both career wellbeing and career satisfaction are based on the subjective judgements that individuals make regarding their careers (Creed & Blume 2013; Hartung & Taber, 2008; Heckhausen, Wrosch, & Schulz, 2010; Stumpf, 2014). In line with Kidd's (2008) conceptualisation of career wellbeing, Diener, Tay, and Oishi's (2013) motivational theory of career satisfaction states that the pursuit of meaningful goals and personal development is paramount for the progression and preservation of career wellbeing.

As career management plays a central role in the lives of individuals, the subjective judgements that individuals make about their careers may influence other facets of their lives (Chmiel, Brunner, Martin, & Schalke, 2012; Diener, 2013). Rath and Harter (2010) state that career wellbeing is closely intertwined with individuals' overall evaluations of their lives and it is thus the single most important indicator of their subjective wellbeing. While understanding the importance of the relationship between career satisfaction and subjective wellbeing, researchers have found a positive relationship between career satisfaction and the eudemonic factors of subjective wellbeing such as happiness and life satisfaction (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Coetzee & Bergh, 2009; Hartung & Taber, 2008; Rath & Harter 2010). Career wellbeing is derived from the eudemonic view of subjective wellbeing which, like career satisfaction (Demo & Paschoal, 2013; Hartung & Taber, 2008; Ng et al., 2005), places the emphasis on experiences of greater depth such as meaning (Arya & Manikandan, 2013; Seligman, 2011); purpose (Dik, Byrne, & Steger, 2013); happiness and satisfaction (Diener, 2013); and importance and fulfilment (Rosso, Dekas, & Wrzesniewski, 2010).

Employee career wellbeing has several benefits for an organisation as it ensures that employees are happy and satisfied with their careers and this permeates other aspects of their work (Agrawal & Harter, 2009; Clark, 2010; Kidd, 2008). These benefits include career satisfaction (Alarcon & Lyons, 2011; Wright & Cropanzano, 2000); individual engagement with work (Bakker & Oerlemans, 2011); creativity (Humes, 2011); increased productivity (Patterson, Warr, & West, 2004); inter-personal trust (Gilson, 2006); organisational commitment (Makrides, Heath, Farquharson, & Veinot, 2007); corporate citizenship behaviour (González & Garazo, 2006), as well as a reduction in turnover (Mosadeghrad, 2014) and absenteeism (Ho, 1997). Similar to studies on career wellbeing, research on career satisfaction has found relationships between career satisfaction and positive organisational outcomes such as

individual engagement with work (Timms & Brough, 2013); creativity (Smith & Shields, 2013); increased productivity (Oswald, Proto & Sgroi, 2015); inter-personal trust (Guinot, Chiva, & Roca-Puig, 2014); organisational commitment (Khalid & Khalid, 2015); corporate citizenship behaviour (Valentine & Fleischman, 2008), as well as a reduction in turnover (Sukriket, 2015).

Thus, for organisations to perform optimally, survive, grow and adapt to the changes in the global economy, they require employees who are satisfied with their careers and who consistently experience career wellbeing (Attridge, 2009). Thus, it is vital that organisations are able to measure individual career satisfaction and determine the level of intervention that is required when individuals do not display career satisfaction, as this may impact negatively on career wellbeing (Mokaya, Musau, Wagoki, & Karanja, 2013). However, it appeared that, at the time of the study, employee career management programmes focused primarily on succession planning and career enhancement practices, and not on the elements of career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Al Ariss, Cascio, & Paauwe, 2014). A possible reason for the lack of intervention in organisations in terms of career wellbeing may be the lack of an empirically tested theoretical framework of career wellbeing.

While many studies have focused on the components of career satisfaction (Abele & Spurk, 2009b; Greenhaus et al., 1990; Mariani & Allen 2014; Ren, Bolino, Shaffer, & Kraimer, 2013) few have focused on the components of career wellbeing and the relationship between career wellbeing and career satisfaction. Owing to the close theoretical similarities between career satisfaction and career wellbeing, the present study focused on career satisfaction as an indicator of career wellbeing. As career satisfaction is perceived as individuals' contentment with their career progress, career purpose and meaning at a specific point in time (Ng et al., 2005), it can provide valuable information on individuals' career wellbeing, which refers to individuals' contentment with their career progress, career purpose and meaning over a period of time (Kidd, 2008).

As South African working adults are finding it increasingly challenging to satisfy their career-related needs, which could lead to negative career wellbeing and negative life wellbeing, certain psychosocial resources were identified by this study as being essential for working adults to possess in order to achieve career satisfaction and career wellbeing. In line with the conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002), certain psychosocial career resources were identified as being significantly related to career satisfaction, which serves as an indicator of career wellbeing. The relationship dynamics that emerged from the associations between the psychosocial career resources and career satisfaction provided some valuable information on the construction of a psychosocial career wellbeing model for South African working adults. The psychosocial career resources that were

identified include occupational passion, psychological career resources, and psychosocial career preoccupations.

The prevalence of passion towards work has been found to assist individuals to persevere, reach their career goals and experience greater satisfaction with their careers (Vallerand, 2015). In the changing work environment, workers' tasks are becoming more complex because of their multifaceted nature, there is often a lack of role clarity, and workers are required to take on multiple roles in their relationships with their employers and colleagues (Kinman & Jones, 2008). As these work-related tasks become more complex they take up more of a person's time and consequently more of a person's thoughts, feelings, emotions and general work life (Johnsrud, 2002; Lackritz, 2004). In pursuit of dealing with the changes and building satisfactory careers, individuals may find it difficult to find harmony in their work environments and achieve career wellbeing (Coetzee, 2015; Savickas, 2013). In the attempt to create harmony and balance between the individual and the environment, it is important that individuals are passionate about their work to ensure perseverance in the achievement of career goals (Burke, Astakhova, & Hang, 2014; Vallerand, 2015).

Individuals' passion for their work, that is, occupational passion, is one of the constructs that relates to the career wellbeing and career satisfaction of working adults, as it assists them to exhibit proactive and adaptive behaviour amidst the complexities of the contemporary world of work (Carbonneau, Vallerand, Fernet, & Guay, 2008; Vallerand & Houliort, 2003; Vallerand, Houliort, & Forest, 2014; Vallerand, Paquet, Philippe, & Charest, 2010; Vallerand et al., 2003). Occupational passion is described as a strong inclination towards or the desire to undertake a work-related activity that one likes and finds important, and in which one invests time and energy (Vallerand & Houliort, 2003; Vallerand et al., 2003). Research on occupational passion has linked the construct to work outcomes such as work engagement (Birkeland & Buch, 2015), growth and development (Baum & Locke, 2004; Vallerand & Rapaport, 2017) and career success (Cardon, Wincent, Singh, & Drnovsek, 2009). These work constructs have also been positively correlated with career satisfaction (Ng et al., 2005; Ng & Feldman, 2014).

Vallerand and Houliort (2003) were the first researchers to coin the construct of occupational passion. Vallerand and Houliort's (2003) structure for occupational passion has its roots in Deci and Ryan's (2000) self-determination theory, which proposes that the extent of self-determination underlying behaviour results from the way in which it has been internalised into an individual's self-concept. The process whereby an individual endorses externally controlled structures (i.e. work environment, values, and beliefs) and changes them into internally controlled structures is termed "internalisation" (Gagné & Deci, 2014). As career satisfaction is also an internalised process which indicates individuals' feelings of contentment,

dissatisfaction, harmony or disharmony with their career environments and career decisions, it can be argued that career satisfaction and occupational passion are closely related (Ng et al., 2005; Vallerand, 2015).

In line with the self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000), Vallerand and Houliort (2003) postulate that occupational passion may be categorised into two theoretically distinctive types of passion, depending on whether an activity is internalised into an individual's self-concept in either an autonomous or a controlled way. In the work context, occupational passion refers to how work-related activities are internalised into an individual's self-concept (Vallerand et al., 2014). The two types of passion are labelled as harmonious passion and obsessive passion (Vallerand & Houliort, 2003).

Obsessive passion refers to the outcome of the controlled internalisation of a work-related activity into an individual's self-concept (Vallerand & Houliort, 2003). In other words, the activity is not self-determined and is in conflict with other life domains (Vallerand et al., 2014). Accordingly, behavioural engagement in certain work-related activities is not determined by the activity's importance, significance or enjoyment, but rather by the attainment of the specific contingencies related to the engagement in the activity, for example career success, self-esteem and social acceptance (Houliort et al., 2015). This type of internalisation generates internal pressure to attain the contingencies and this may result in lower levels of subjective wellbeing (Mageau, Carpentier, & Vallerand, 2011).

Individuals with an obsessive passion for work struggle to disengage from work-related activities, resulting in an inflexible persistence in relation to their passionate activity (Houliort et al., 2015). This may then result in these individuals feeling that their self-worth, acceptance in social circles and career satisfaction are dependent on their engagement in and mastery of the passionate work-related activity (Houliort et al., 2015). The time, energy and intrinsic investment in the work-related activity for which individuals have an obsessive passion may result in conflicts with other life spheres; the individuals may become frustrated when they are unable to engage in the activity and they may think about the activity constantly even when not engaging in it (Vallerand et al., 2014). Because obsessively passionate people are constantly obsessing about the work activity which they are passionate about, they often have difficulty in sustaining other life activities such as building a satisfactory career (Vallerand, 2015). In addition, individuals with an obsessive passion often experience problems reviving and recharging their cognitive, affective and behavioural repertoires and this may lead to negative subjective wellbeing (Houliort et al., 2015; Vallerand, 2015).

Furthermore, if a person experiences an obsessive passion for certain work-related activities this may potentially have a negative impact on their self-acceptance, as the activities may assume an overwhelming and negative position in their self-concept (Vallerand et al., 2014). Research has shown a negative relationship between a negative self-concept and subjective wellbeing (McCullough, Huebner, & Laughlin, 2000). Obsessive passion may also harm the relationships that individuals have with others, as they may become so obsessed with certain activities that they do not have either the time or the energy required to establish or sustain meaningful relationships (Zigarmi, Nimon, Houson, Witt, & Diehl, 2009). In view of the fact that positive work-related relationships are attributes of both career wellbeing (Kidd, 2008) and career satisfaction (Ng & Feldman, 2014), it may be said that individuals who have obsessive passion about their work will ultimately feel less satisfied with their careers. Moreover, a study by Forest, Mageau, Sarrazin, and Morin (2011) found a negative correlation between obsessive passion and some of the factors that make up career satisfaction such as work–life interference and constantly thinking about work outside of the workplace (Forest et al., 2011). Other studies have found a negative relationship between obsessive passion and the career satisfaction related construct of cognitive attention at work (Ho, Wong, & Lee, 2011, Vallerand et al., 2007).

When individuals experience an obsessive passion for certain work-related activities this means that they have lost control over how certain activities form part of their identities (Vallerand & Houliort, 2003). It will thus be challenging for these obsessively passionate individuals to use self-determination in relation to how they want to manage their careers and to set certain career-related goals in an autonomous manner (Vallerand et al., 2010). In the absence of the support of others, low self-esteem, the ability to set clear goals, and lack of control over work activities obsessively passionate individuals may have difficulty to sustain other areas of their lives. Therefore, individuals with obsessive passion may have difficulty in mastering their work environments and will experience less career satisfaction than may otherwise have been the case (Kidd, 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2014; Savickas, 2013; Vallerand, 2015).

In contrast, research on harmonious passion indicates that the construct is associated with control over an individual's activities at work, career satisfaction, as well as overall happiness with career and life (Burke et al., 2014; Vallerand et al., 2014). Thus, there is a positive relationship between harmonious passion and both career wellbeing and career satisfaction (Burke & Finkenbaum, 2009). Harmonious passion may be conceptualised as a motivational force that drives individuals to choose freely to engage in certain work-related activities (Vallerand & Houliort, 2003; Vallerand et al., 2006). Individuals therefore devote their time and

energy to an activity while remaining in control of their engagement with the activity (Vallerand, 2015). In addition, the activity remains in harmony with other life domains and this allows these individuals to have positive relationships with others, set career-related goals and adapt proactively to the challenges within the contemporary work environment (Burke et al., 2014; Vallerand, 2015).

A study by Forest et al. (2011) found that there is a positive relationship between harmonious passion and some of the factors that make up career wellbeing and career satisfaction, for example having control over career choices, pursuing career goals, and happiness at work. Research also shows that harmonious passion is positively related to aspects of career satisfaction such as in-role performance and commitment (Ho et al., 2011; Vallerand et al., 2007). In addition, a study by Burke et al. (2014) showed that harmonious passion is positively associated with the constructs of job satisfaction, job performance and lower intentions to quit, which are all positively related to career satisfaction (Ng & Feldman, 2010, 2014). Vallerand (2015) states that harmonious passion is positively related to subjective wellbeing, as individuals who are harmoniously passionate about activities are able to freely engage in such activity with the activity taking up an appropriate position in their self-concept and not interfering with other life spheres. Johri and Misra (2014) indicate that harmonious passion leads to self-efficiency, which in turn facilitates career wellbeing.

As indicated above there are numerous positive correlations between harmonious passion and the constructs of career wellbeing and career satisfaction, as well as a number of negative correlations between obsessive passion and the constructs of career wellbeing and career satisfaction (Vallerand, 2015). Facilitating a harmonious, as opposed to an obsessive, passion is vital if organisations wish to encourage and ensure their employees' peak performance, career wellbeing and career satisfaction (Burke et al., 2014; Johri & Misra, 2014; Vallerand et al., 2014). The prevalence of passion as well as the type of passion that individuals have for their work-related activities will also have an impact on the way in which they are able to adapt to the changing environment (Vallerand, 2015). This study explored the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction as it was hypothesised that the elements of this relationship would impact overall career wellbeing.

Like passion there are certain psychological resources that individuals utilise in their careers to assist them to achieve higher levels of career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Coetzee, 2008, Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002). The psychological career resources of individuals have been associated with their subjective experiences of their careers such as career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009). Ferreira, Basson, and Coetzee (2010) indicate that, for individuals to experience career wellbeing, they need to utilise their

psychological career resources in order to adapt to their changing work environmental circumstances. Individuals' psychological career resources profiles indicate their career consciousness (Coetzee, 2008). As individuals utilise their psychological career resources in setting goals for their careers, these psychological career resources influence their experiences of certain career-related activities (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009). When an individual possesses a strong range of psychological career resources, this is a sign of conscious, self-directed career behaviour that is intrinsically directed and proactively determined by the individual (Coetzee, 2008).

Studies show that psychological career resources assist individuals to comprehend their motives for choosing a specific career, as well as the way individuals assess their suitability in relation to their career of choice (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009; Ferreira et al., 2010). The manner in which individuals think, feel and show awareness toward career-related activities is influenced by their psychological career resources (Coetzee, 2008). This awareness involves how individuals perceive, understand, evaluate, apply and are alert to the career-related values, skills, knowledge, preferences, attitudes and behaviours that will assist them to have satisfying careers (Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee & Bergh, 2009; Ferreira et al., 2010). Psychological career resources are thus seen as an individual's awareness of their career (Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee & Bergh, 2009; Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2012).

Research on psychological career resources shows a positive relationship between the construct and working adults' career satisfaction, perceptions of general employability and the capability to cope with career challenges (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009; Coetzee & Esterhuizen, 2010). A study by Coetzee and Schreuder (2009) found that psychological career resources are a significant predictor of individuals' career orientations. A well-grounded psychological career resources profile allows individuals to participate proactively and autonomously in the career self-management actions that improve their experiences of career satisfaction and career wellbeing within a specific socio-cultural framework (Coetzee, 2008; Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006). Coetzee (2008, 2014a) identified specific factors or psychological career resources that individuals must possess in order to be able to interact positively with the ever-changing career environment. Each of these psychological career resources is discussed in relation to how they link with career wellbeing, career satisfaction, and occupational passion.

Coetzee (2014a) maintains that individuals take their career preferences and career values into account when making decisions regarding their career progression, with such career preferences and values being utilised to assist individuals to plan, design, develop and reinvent their own careers proactively (Coetzee, 2014a). This proactive goal-orientated behaviour is

positively related to career outcomes such as career satisfaction and career wellbeing, as the autonomous, proactive self-management of individual careers is a key factor in career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Kidd, 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2014; Savickas, 2013). The positive utilisation and understanding of career preferences and values may be related to harmonious passion, as individuals may feel more in control of their own work-related activities because careful planning may assist individuals to balance the demands of work, career and other aspects of their lives (Burke et al., 2014; Coetzee, 2008; 2014a).

Career drivers are seen as the individual's attitude towards certain activities that provides them with the motivation to achieve career-related goals and experiment with various careers (Coetzee, 2008; 2014a). Career drivers are positively correlated with career satisfaction as these drivers assist individuals to realise those factors that are related to career satisfaction such as career progression and choosing a career that satisfies their intrinsic needs (Coetzee, 2014a; Ng & Feldman, 2014). There is, however, a positive theoretical relationship between career drivers and obsessive passion as they may cause individuals to over-engage in their work in the pursuit of reaching career-related goals and outcomes (Coetzee, 2008; Vallerand, 2015).

Career enablers contribute to the career satisfaction of individuals by helping them to understand the skills, abilities and knowledge they need to acquire and implement to achieve their career goals (Coetzee, 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2014; Wickramasinghe & Jayaweera 2010). In view of the fact that both the setting and the attainment of career goals, as well as the development and learning of new skills, are indicators of career wellbeing (Kidd, 2008) there seems to be a positive theoretical relationship between career enablers, as psychological career resources, and career wellbeing (Coetzee, 2008). Career enablers may, however, be related to both harmonious and obsessive passion. When individuals utilise their career enablers in order to achieve certain career outcomes this may result in them being exposed to a range of different skills that they need to acquire (Coetzee, 2008; Vallerand, 2015). This exposure and the development of various skills may assist individuals to create greater harmony between their different work-related activities and this may result in harmonious passion (Vallerand & Houliort, 2003). However, when an individual has obsessive passion toward a specific work-related activity, career enablers would assist such an individual to develop a specific skillset only, which is related to the task for which the individual has an obsessive passion.

The career drivers of individuals are kept in balance by their career harmonisers (Coetzee, 2008, 2014a; Symington, 2012). In other words, career harmonisers assist individuals to control their motivation and energy when pursuing their career goals (Coetzee, 2008). When

individuals aspire to having satisfying careers, they attempt to create harmony between their work and other life domains (Ng & Feldman, 2010, 2014). This desire to achieve work–life balance assists individuals to manage both their time and their energy when working towards their career goals (Shanafelt et al., 2014). Because both career harmonisers and career satisfaction assist individuals to create a balance between life and work, as well as between different aspects of their careers, it can be said that there is a positive theoretical relationship between the two constructs (Coetzee, 2008; Shanafelt et al., 2014).

Creed and Blume (2013) state that when individuals experience high levels of career wellbeing this will bring about balance and subjective wellbeing in other aspects of their lives, as careers play a pivotal role in the lives of individuals. Career harmonisers and career wellbeing may thus be positively correlated, as they both bring about balance between the various life and career roles of individuals (Coetzee, 2014a; Ng & Feldman, 2014). Career harmonisers may also be positively correlated with harmonious passion and negatively correlated with obsessive passion (Coetzee, 2013; Vallerand, 2015). When individuals experience harmonious passion, they are able to balance the different aspects of their work, their careers and their lives as the passionate activity is in harmony with other aspects of their lives (Vallerand et al., 2014). Similar to the function that career harmonisers play when individuals have harmonious passion, they do not feel that they need to constantly engage in certain activities in order to reach their career goals (Vallerand et al., 2003). Conversely, when individuals have obsessive passion they struggle to achieve harmony between the various aspects of their lives and work, as they are constantly engaging in or thinking about the activity about which they are passionate (Vallerand et al., 2003).

Although a number of studies have been conducted on psychological career resources within the South African context over the last decade (Coetzee, 2007, 2008, 2013, 2014a; Coetzee & Bergh, 2009; Coetzee, Bergh, & Schreuder, 2010; Coetzee & Esterhuizen, 2010; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009, 2012; Coetzee, Schreuder, & Kotze, 2014; Ferreira et al., 2010; Venter, 2012), there appears to be relatively little research that relates the construct of psychological career resources to career satisfaction, occupational passion and career wellbeing.

It is important for individuals to show adaptive behaviour in order to manage the challenges within their environments and achieve career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Clark, 2016; Kidd, 2008; Sharf, 2010). Psychosocial career preoccupations prepare individuals to show proactive adaptive behaviour in terms of coping with the challenges within their environments (Coetzee, 2014b). Savickas (2013) states that career-related preoccupations assist individuals to manage their careers within the challenging work environment of the 21st century. According to Coetzee (2014b, 2015), psychosocial career preoccupations assist individuals to achieve

the greater environmental fit which has a positive impact on their career wellbeing. In view of the fact that psychosocial career preoccupations prompt individuals to be more adaptable, these preoccupations will have a positive impact on psychological career needs such as career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2016a, 2016b).

The psychosocial career preoccupations of individuals are based on the fulfilment of certain psychological and work-related needs within a particular socio-cultural work context (Coetzee, 2015). Holman (2013) maintains that the degree to which the psychological needs for stability, job-security and skills improvement are met will influence the perceptions of individuals as to their fit to their work environment as well as the quality of their employment at a certain organisation. Ng and Feldman (2014) and Kidd (2008) state that, for individuals to experience career satisfaction and career wellbeing, it is important that individuals feel that they fit in well within their environments. It can thus be argued that there is a relationship between psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction and career wellbeing.

Coetzee (2014b, 2015, 2016a, b), categorises three core dimensions of psychosocial career preoccupations that are non-age-associated, namely, career establishment preoccupations; career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations. Each of these psychosocial career preoccupations and their relationship with career satisfaction, career wellbeing and occupational passion are discussed next.

Career establishment preoccupations are related to an individual's concerns about adapting to the work environment, acquiring financial stability, and developing one's career (Coetzee, 2014b). Career establishment preoccupations may be related to both career wellbeing and career satisfaction in terms of the fact that, when these concerns are not met during an individual's career, this may lead to negative career wellbeing and satisfaction with their careers (Coetzee, 2014b; Creed & Blume, 2013; Ng & Feldman, 2014). In view of the fact that career establishment preoccupations assist the individual to focus on their development, such preoccupations may result in positive career wellbeing. Kidd (2008) describes growth and development as two of the key components of career wellbeing. When individuals are concerned about achieving financial stability and security this may also result in career wellbeing as it may motivate individuals to set and reach certain career-related goals (Pinquart & Sorensen, 2000). On the other hand, when individuals are concerned about or compare their financial stability and security with those of other individuals in society, the comparison may have either a positive or a negative impact on their feelings of career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Easterlin, 2015).

Moreover, career establishment preoccupations are positively related to both harmonious and obsessive passion. When individuals are concerned about their personal development and growth as professionals this will lead to harmonious passion, as individuals are encouraged to develop a passion for the various aspects of their career-related activities (Coetzee, 2014b; Vallerand et al., 2014). However, when an individual is concerned only with developing a certain activity about which they are passionate this may lead to obsessive passion, as it may mean that the individual over-engages in that one activity (Coetzee, 2014b, 2015; Vallerand & Houliort, 2003). In addition, when individuals are concerned about building relationships within the work environment this will encourage the development of harmonious passion as such individuals are encouraged to disengage from the activities about which they are passionate on a regular basis and build relationships with others within the work environment (Coetzee, 2014; Vallerand et al., 2003).

When individuals are focused on achieving greater financial stability and security, it may result in obsessive passion, as such individuals may feel that they must engage in work constantly to ensure that they reap the resultant financial benefits (Burke et al., 2014). However, when individuals are concerned about achieving stability and security in all aspects of their lives, this may lead to harmonious passion, as these individuals will not be able to overly engage with their work as they need to create balance between all the aspects of their lives (Coetzee, 2014b; Vallerand & Houliort, 2003; Vallerand et al., 2014).

Career adaptation preoccupations focus on the concerns that individuals have with regard to their own employability (Coetzee, 2014b). These preoccupations develop when individuals are concerned about adapting to their work environments (Coetzee, 2014b; Savickas, 2013). Changing contexts may force individuals to make career changes and also modify their interests, professional aptitude, knowledge and capabilities to assist them to achieve greater harmony and fit with their environments (Coetzee, 2014b, 2015). It has been found that the greater an individual's employability the greater the individual's career wellbeing and career satisfaction (Hogan, Chamorro-Premuzic, & Kaiser, 2013; Kidd, 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2014). Conversely, it has been found that unemployment and a lack of job security have a negative impact on career wellbeing (Dawson, Veliziotis, & Hopkins, 2014). Moreover, it has also been found that individuals who are more employable also experience more career satisfaction (Hogan et al., 2013).

Vallerand (2015) states that when individuals have harmonious passion they will be able to adapt and adjust better to the challenges posed by the environment. Obsessive passion, however, leads to a fixation on specific activities and this results in individuals not being able to prepare for or adjust to challenges and changes within their environments (Vallerand et al.,

2014). Career adaptation preoccupations are thus positively related to career wellbeing, career satisfaction and harmonious passion and negatively related to obsessive passion.

Work–life adjustment preoccupations are related to the concern of individuals regarding creating harmony between their work and personal lives (Coetzee, 2014b). Research shows that the pursuit of balance between work and life is strongly related to both career wellbeing and career satisfaction, as individuals tend to feel more satisfied with their careers when such careers are in harmony with other life spheres (Keeton, Fenner, Johnson, & Hayward, 2007). In terms of retirement, a negative relationship may exist between work–life adjustment preoccupations and obsessive passion as individuals who are obsessively passionate about certain work-related activities may find it hard to disengage from work when they need to retire (Houliort et al., 2015). Conversely, individuals with harmonious passion toward their work should not find it difficult to retire as their work is in harmony with other aspects of their lives and they will not constantly reflect on work once retired (Houliort et al., 2015).

For individuals to be able to adapt in the ever-changing work environment it is essential that they actively plan and apply self-management behaviours to achieve career wellbeing (Del Corso, 2013; Savickas, 2013; Spurk, Kauffeld, Barthauer, & Heinemann, 2015). When individuals structure their careers within the modern workplace it may potentially trigger the emergence of certain psychosocial career preoccupations that are expressed as proactive and adaptive behaviour in relation to achieving a better fit with their work environments, which may lead to career wellbeing and career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2015).

In summary, the construct of career satisfaction serves as an indicator of career wellbeing due to the close theoretical relationship between the two constructs (Kidd, 2008; Ng et al., 2005). Positive professional relationships, goal setting, proactive adaptive behaviour, environmental mastery, employability, and autonomy are all components that make up the constructs of both career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Creed & Blume, 2013; Greenhaus et al., 1990; Kidd, 2008; Ng et al., 2005; Ng & Feldman, 2014). Career wellbeing is seen as an individual's career satisfaction over time (Kidd, 2008).

Research into the prevalence and type of passion demonstrated by individuals toward work-related activities has shown that such passion is related to career satisfaction which is an indicator of career wellbeing (Carbonneau et al., 2008). Harmonious passion is positively correlated with career satisfaction as well as career wellbeing (Carbonneau et al., 2008). However, obsessive passion has been associated with several negative outcomes such as rigid persistence (Ratelle, Vallerand, Mageau, Rousseau, & Provencher, 2004), negative affect (Lafrenière, Vallerand, Donahue, & Lavigne, 2009), emotional exhaustion (Lavigne, Forest, &

Crevier-Braud, 2012), and a discontent with other areas of an individual's life (Vallerand, 2010), all of which are negatively related to career wellbeing and career satisfaction (Kidd, 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2010, 2014; Ng et al., 2005).

The current research has also investigated the possible mediating effect of psychological career resources on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction as indicators of career wellbeing. Individuals with obsessive passion towards a certain work-related task may show levels of over-commitment (Ratelle et al., 2004) which, in combination with career drivers and the absence of career harmonisers (Coetzee, 2008), may lead to such individuals not experiencing career wellbeing. On the other hand, psychological career resources such as career drivers, career enablers and career harmonisers strengthen the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009; Forest et al. 2011). When harmonious passion, which enables individuals to set clear goals and be in harmony with other aspects of their lives (Vallerand, 2010), is combined with career drivers, career harmonisers, career values and career enablers (Coetzee, 2008), it will ensure that individuals will develop greater clarity in respect of the goals that they want to achieve, thus ensuring greater levels of career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Kidd, 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2010, 2014; Ng et al., 2005).

In addition, the current research explores the possible mediating effect of psychosocial career preoccupations on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction which serves as an indicator of career wellbeing. It has been found that career establishment preoccupations and career adaptation preoccupations may have both a positive and negative impact on the relationship between obsessive passion and satisfaction (Coetzee, 2014b; Ng & Feldman, 2014). When individuals are concerned about the extent to which they are establishing and adapting to their career needs, this may result in their displaying greater levels of proactive adaptive behaviour to ensure greater alignment with their environments (Savickas, 2013). Work-life adjustment preoccupations may enable individuals to strike a better balance between work and personal life, which may assist individuals to be more harmoniously passionate about certain work-related tasks, thus ensuring greater levels of career wellbeing and career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2014b; Kidd, 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2014).

Career theorists are of the opinion that the effective self-management of careers will assist individuals to adopt a proactive approach to problem-solving and also to show adaptive behaviour in terms of reaching their desired career-related outcomes (DiRenzo & Greenhaus 2011; Hall, Lee, Kossek, & Las Heras, 2012). Individuals who are thus able to strike a balance between the utilisation of their occupational passion, psychological career resources, and psychosocial career preoccupations in the pursuit of satisfactory careers will tend to enjoy

greater levels of career wellbeing (Coetzee, 2008, 2014b; Creed & Blume, 2013; Greenhaus, Callanan, & Godschalk, 2000; Holt & Brockett, 2012; Ng & Feldman, 2014; Oldham & Da Silva, 2015; Seibert, Kraimer, Holtom, & Pierotti, 2013; Strauss, Griffin, Parker, & Mason, 2015).

The career constructs of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction have individually been found to be strongly linked to the enhancement of individual career wellbeing in the contemporary workplace (Coetzee, 2008, 2016a, 2016b; Jen, 2010; Kidd, 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2014; Vallerand, 2010). The constructs are interrelated as they all influence an individual's ability to adapt to the changing work environment (Savickas, 2013). In addition, each of the constructs is self-determined and dependent on the subjective perceptions of individuals about themselves (Coetzee, 2008; 2015; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Greenhaus et al., 2010; Vallerand, 2015). The successful application of a healthy combination of these constructs will allow individuals to ensure their own career wellbeing in the prevailing uncertain and volatile employment context.

In this research study, (1) occupational passion (consisting of passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion) was treated as the independent variable, (2) career satisfaction was treated as the dependent variable, (3) psychological career resources (consisting of career drivers, career enablers, career harmonisers, career values and career preferences) and (4) psychosocial career preoccupations (consisting of career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations) were treated as the mediating variables.

The research focused on exploring the magnitude and direction of the relationships between these variables and whether working adults of different race, gender, age, job level, qualification and tenure differ significantly regarding these variables. The sociodemographic variables of race, gender, age, qualification; job level and tenure were utilised within this study as previous research has identified these variables as affecting career wellbeing, career satisfaction, occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations.

Although previous research has identified differences in career wellbeing between different race groups (Wu, Luksyte, & Parker, 2015), there seems to be paucity of research in the South African context. Research shows similar levels of career wellbeing between genders (Kidd, 2008; Rautenbach, 2015) and that older employees may experience higher levels of career wellbeing than their younger colleagues (Colff & Rothmann, 2014; Rautenbach, 2015). Studies show that individuals with different educational backgrounds and in different levels within the organisation do not significantly differ in terms of their career wellbeing (Kidd, 2008; Witter,

Okun, Stock, & Haring, 1984). There seems to be a gap in the research pertaining to the affect that individual characteristics such as race, age, gender, job level and qualification have on the career wellbeing of South African working adults.

The literature review identified the fact that black South Africans experience higher levels of career satisfaction than other race groups (Coetzee & Stoltz, 2015) and that women experience higher levels of career satisfaction than men (Gaziougly & Tansel, 2006). Ng et al. (2005) found that individuals on higher levels of the organisation experience higher levels of career satisfaction than those on lower levels, whilst Kameny et al. (2014) found that individuals who are more tenured experience greater career satisfaction than their less-experienced colleagues. Ng and Feldman (2014) found that high educational qualifications are related to higher levels of career satisfaction. Koekemoer (2014) indicates that there is a need to study the concept of career satisfaction in more depth across different sociodemographic variables within the South African context.

In terms of occupational passion, the literature showed that differences exist between individuals from collectivistic and individualistic race groups (Burke et al., 2014; Ho et al., 2011; Vallerand et al., 2010), but no studies have been conducted on occupational passion within the diverse South African work context. The literature review pointed out that women seem to experience greater levels of harmonious passion than men (Curran et al., 2015) and that harmonious passion increases with age (Birkeland & Buch, 2015). The research shows that individuals in lower level positions in organisations may have higher levels of obsessive passion than individuals in higher levels (Burke et al., 2014) and that tenure was negatively correlated with passion prevalence (Nordström, Sirén, Thorgren, & Wincent, 2016). Burke et al. (2014) found that individuals were passionate about their work irrespective of their educational qualifications. Burke et al. (2014) call on researchers to study the concept of occupational passion across diverse sociodemographic contexts.

The literature review indicated that black South Africans have higher levels of overall psychological career resources variables combined than other race groups (Coetzee, 2008). Coetzee and Harry (2015) found that females are more concerned with planning for their career futures than men. Differences between age groups have been found in terms of the stability/expertise career preference, the self-esteem variable, the growth/development career value and self/other skills variable and the authority/influence career value (Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee et al., 2014a). Significant differences were also found between individuals of different job level and qualification groups in terms of their capability to develop the managerial and stability/expertise career preferences, career purpose and self-esteem career resources (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009). Venter, Coetzee, and Basson (2013) implore researchers to conduct

studies across different sectors and sociodemographic groups within the diverse South African employment context.

In terms of psychosocial career preoccupations, João and Coetzee (2012) found that black South African employees have greater levels of career establishment preoccupations than other race groups. Coetzee and Harry (2015) indicate that women show greater concerns with employability than men and Coetzee (2016b) found that less-tenured individuals experience greater career establishment preoccupations than their more experienced colleagues. Coetzee (2015) indicates that psychosocial career preoccupations are similar across all age groups and that individuals who have higher educational qualifications have higher levels of career establishment preoccupations. Coetzee (2017) indicates that there is a need to study psychosocial career preoccupations across more diverse population groups in various occupational fields.

The ultimate purpose of the study was to construct a psychosocial career wellbeing model based on the relationship dynamics that emerged from the associations between the variables. The study explored the career wellbeing constructs as follows: The inter-correlation and overall correlation between occupational passion (passion prevalence; obsessive and harmonious passion) and career satisfaction were measured, while the mediating effect of the psychological career resources (career drivers, career harmonisers, career values, and career preferences) and psychosocial career preoccupations (career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations) on the association between the dependent and independent variables was studied. In addition, the moderation (control variable) effect of individual sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) on the above-mentioned relationship was explored.

The following research hypotheses were formulated:

H1: There are statistically significant inter-relationships between the sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure), the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction).

H2: Individuals' psychological career resources (career drivers, career harmonisers, career preferences and career values) and psychosocial career preoccupations (career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations) significantly mediate the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction.

H3: Based on the overall statistical relationships between the independent variable (occupational passion) and dependent variable (career satisfaction), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) that there is a good fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model.

H4: Individuals' sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) significantly moderate the relationship between the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction).

H5: The sociodemographic groups (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) will differ significantly regarding their occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction.

## **1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

Industrial and organisational psychologists and human resource practitioners are faced with the challenge of developing empirically tested and scientifically improved methods for assisting working adults to ensure that they experience career satisfaction and career wellbeing. Their foremost challenge is that there is a dearth of research into how working adults' psychosocial resources can assist them to experience greater career satisfaction and career wellbeing. Understanding also the moderating effect of sociodemographic variables such as race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure is deemed important in order to tailor career management practices for diverse groups of working adults.

A review of the current literature on the psychosocial resources of occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction, which serves as an indicator of career wellbeing, highlighted the following research problems:

- Theoretical models do not clarify the relationship between individuals' psychosocial career resources (occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations), sociodemographic variables (including race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) and career satisfaction in a single study.
- It seems that there is a lack of research that has investigated the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction and how psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and sociodemographic variables (including race,

gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) add to the dynamic interplay between these variables, especially in the South African work environment.

The problem statement resulted in the formulation of the following general research question:

What are both the elements and nature of the psychosocial model that emerged from the exploration of the relationship dynamics between sociodemographic characteristics (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure), occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and the outcome of career satisfaction?

Based on the above-mentioned general research question, the following specific research questions were formulated in terms of the literature review and the empirical study:

### **1.2.1 Research questions arising from the literature review**

**Research question 1:** How does existing literature explain career wellbeing and career satisfaction within the contemporary world of work context?

**Research question 2:** How does the literature conceptualise occupational passion, psychological career resources, and psychosocial career preoccupations?

**Research question 3:** What are the theoretical elements of the psychosocial career wellbeing model that emerged from the relationship dynamics between the career constructs of occupational passion, career satisfaction, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations?

**Research question 4:** What are the implications of the theoretical psychosocial model of career wellbeing for career management practices?

### **1.2.2 Research questions with regard to the empirical study**

In terms of the empirical study, the following specific research questions were formulated:

**Research question 1:** What is the direction and magnitude of the statistical inter-correlations between the sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure), the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction)?

**Research question 2:** Do individuals' psychological career resources (career drivers, career harmonisers, career preferences and career values) and psychosocial career preoccupations

(establishment, career adaptation and work–life adjustment) significantly mediate the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction?

**Research question 3:** Based on the overall statistical relationships between the dependent and independent variables, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations as mediating variables is there a good fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model?

**Research question 4:** Do individuals' sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) significantly moderate the relationship between the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction)?

**Research question 5:** Do individuals from diverse sociodemographic groups differ significantly regarding their occupational passion, career satisfaction and application of psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations?

**Research question 6:** What conclusions and recommendations can be formulated for industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners with regard to career management practices and what proposals can be made for future research in this field?

### **1.3 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH**

Based on the above research questions, the following general and specific research aims were formulated:

#### **1.3.1 General aim of the research**

The general aim of the research study was to explore both the elements and nature of the psychosocial model that emerged from the exploration of the relationship dynamics between sociodemographic characteristics (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure), occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and the outcome of career satisfaction.

#### **1.3.2 Specific aims of the research**

##### *1.3.2.1 Literature review*

The specific aims of the theoretical study included the following:

**Research aim 1:** To determine how the literature defines career wellbeing and career satisfaction within the contemporary world of work context.

**Research aim 2:** To determine how the literature conceptualises occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations.

**Research aim 3:** To determine the theoretical elements of the psychosocial career wellbeing model that emerged from the relationship dynamics between the career constructs of occupational passion, career satisfaction, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations.

**Research aim 4:** To determine the implications of the theoretically suggested psychosocial model of career wellbeing for career management practices.

#### *1.3.2.2 Empirical study*

The specific aims of the empirical study included the following:

**Research aim 1:** To explore the direction and magnitude of the statistical inter-correlations between the sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure), the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction) (this aim relates to H1).

**Research aim 2:** To determine whether individuals' psychological career resources (career drivers, career harmonisers, career preferences and career values) and psychosocial career preoccupations (career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations) significantly mediate the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction (this aim relates to H2).

**Research aim 3:** Based on the overall statistical relationships between the dependent and independent variables, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations as mediating variables to explore whether there is a good fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model (this aim relates to H3).

**Research aim 4:** To determine whether individuals' sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) significantly moderate the relationship between the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction) (this aim relates to H4).

**Research aim 5:** To determine whether individuals from diverse sociodemographic groups differ significantly regarding occupational passion career satisfaction and application of

psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations (this aim relates to H5).

**Research aim 6:** To draw conclusions and recommendations for industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners for career management practices and determine proposals for future research in this field of industrial psychology and career wellbeing supportive management practices.

#### **1.4 STATEMENT OF SIGNIFICANCE**

When examining the aspects of developing a psychosocial model of career wellbeing, the problem seems to be multifaceted and may either support or obstruct the development of the model. The role of sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level, and tenure), psychological career resources (career drivers, career harmonisers, career values, and career preferences), psychosocial career preoccupations (career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations) and the constructs of occupational passion (passion prevalence, harmonious passion, obsessive passion) and career satisfaction in the development of a psychosocial model for career wellbeing is complex and has not yet been researched within the South African work context within a single study.

The study's preliminary investigation involved examining the relationship characteristics of occupational passion (Vallerand & Houtfort, 2003; Vallerand et al., 2003), career satisfaction (Greenhaus et al., 1990), psychological career resources (Coetzee, 2008) and psychosocial career preoccupations (Coetzee, 2014b) in the career wellbeing (Kidd, 2008) context.

##### **1.4.1 Potential contribution on a theoretical level**

On a theoretical level, it was hoped that the research would give valuable insights into understanding the relationship between occupational passion (passion prevalence, harmonious passion, and obsessive passion) and the outcome of career satisfaction, as well as the sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure), psychological career resources (career drivers, career harmonisers, career values and career preferences) and psychosocial career preoccupations (career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations). If clear links were found between the constructs then the results would have been useful in the development of a hypothetical theoretical psychosocial model of career wellbeing, which could be empirically validated.

It was also hoped that this study will add to the available knowledge on the indicators and psychosocial career resources that make up career wellbeing in the South African work context. It was hoped that career theory will be advanced by gaining a greater understanding regarding the psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators that can be developed to obtain outcome resources such as career satisfaction and career wellbeing.

As indicated in chapter 7, the current research study contributed to career wellbeing theory by providing an overview of the literature regarding career wellbeing and career satisfaction within the contemporary work environment and discussing the theoretical relationship dynamics between the career wellbeing-related psychosocial career resources and intrinsic motivators of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction. It was established that a theoretical relationship exists between the career wellbeing variables of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction (as indicator of career wellbeing).

#### **1.4.2 Potential contribution on an empirical level**

On an empirical level, it was hoped that the study will add value to current career research by developing an empirically tested psychosocial model of career wellbeing that could be applied in career wellbeing supportive management practices for diverse groups of employees. If no significant relationships are found between the variables then the applicability of this research is limited to the removal of sociodemographic variables from the study, psychological career resources (career drivers, career harmonisers, career values and career preferences) and psychosocial career preoccupations (career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations). Also, if no significant relationships were found between the variables then the research focus would have been moved to find other data that could provide evidence for overcoming the problem of how sociodemographic variables, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations have an influence on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction that serve as an indicators of career wellbeing.

By utilising correlation statistics, multilevel mediation modelling, structural equation modelling, stepwise regression analysis, hierarchical moderation analysis and tests for significant mean differences an empirically tested model of career wellbeing was provided explaining the relationship dynamics between the career wellbeing-related psychosocial career resources and intrinsic motivators of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction. The empirically tested model of career wellbeing can be utilised by industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners as a framework to provide support to South African working adults to ensure their career wellbeing.

As summarised in chapter 7, the current research study enhanced career wellbeing theory by providing an empirically tested model of career wellbeing. By utilising correlation statistics, multilevel mediation modelling, structural equation modelling, stepwise regression analysis, hierarchical moderation analysis and tests for significant mean differences an empirically tested model of career wellbeing was provided explaining the relationship dynamics between the career wellbeing-related psychosocial career resources and intrinsic motivators of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction.

### **1.4.3 Potential contribution on a practical level**

On a practical level, it is important for industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners to understand the factors that influence the career wellbeing of working adults within the South African context. By applying assessments of occupational passion, career satisfaction, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations across organisations, these practitioners may hopefully obtain insight into the factors that have an impact on career wellbeing. If employees are showing signs of obsessive passion, certain interventions could be implemented to ensure that employees are managing their career wellbeing. In addition, if employees show a lack of certain psychological career resources and the prevalence of strong psychosocial career preoccupations, practitioners could also put certain interventions in place to ensure that employees get the most benefit out of their careers.

The research study not only aimed to improve the existing knowledge on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction, but also to add value in terms of understanding the psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations that may either enhance or detract from this relationship. In addition, it was hoped that the outcomes of the study would improve career management interventions that focus on career wellbeing for a diverse group of employees across different industries within the South African work context.

Moreover, organisations may possibly use the information generated to develop employees in terms of helping them understand how passion about certain work-related tasks may impact positively and/or negatively on their career satisfaction and career wellbeing. Employees could also be trained to utilise certain psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations to enhance the way in which they experience certain work-related tasks and, subsequently, to develop a better perspective on career satisfaction as an indicator of career wellbeing.

By investigating the impact of certain sociodemographic variables such as race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure on employees' career wellbeing, while taking into account the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction as indicators of career wellbeing, organisations may decide to focus their career-related interventions on certain groups within the workplace. The information regarding the career wellbeing profiles of individuals may help industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners to be proactive in finding solutions that may assist employees to realise their career goals. In addition, investigating the way in which diverse groups of employees apply certain psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations in order to achieve career wellbeing may provide unique insights into how organisations manage and develop certain employees. This information should help organisations to devise policies and interventions for creating healthy work environments that support individual career wellbeing. Organisations and practitioners may further use this information to develop career guidance and assistance programmes that support individual career wellbeing.

It should also be mentioned that the research study was breaking new ground because, at the time of the study, no research existed investigating the relationship dynamics between occupational passion (passion prevalence, harmonious passion, and obsessive passion) and career satisfaction as indicators of career wellbeing jointly in a single study. In addition, there appeared to be a lack of research into the impact of the constructs of psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations as mediating variables on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction as indicators of career wellbeing within a single study. Further to this, the sociodemographic variables that may potentially have a moderating impact on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction as indicators of career wellbeing seemed to be under-researched. In essence, there was limited research available on the dynamics of a psychosocial model of career wellbeing within the South African work environment.

Chapter 7 provides detailed recommendations for practice based on the empirically manifested psychosocial model of career wellbeing which can be utilised by industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners as a framework to provide support to South African working adults to ensure their career wellbeing. The research advanced career wellbeing practices by making suggestions regarding practical interventions that can be utilised to advance the career wellbeing of South African working adults.

## **1.5 THE RESEARCH MODEL**

The classical research model of Mouton and Marais (1996) was utilised as the framework for this research study. Mouton and Marais (1996) postulate that research in the social sciences

can be conceptualised as a supportive human action in which social reality is studied accurately, with the goal of reaching a valid understanding of this reality. The hypothesis of this model is that it embodies a social process. It is described as a systems theoretical model with three interrelated subsystems, which are themselves inter-correlated with the research domain of a specific discipline (Mouton & Marais, 1996). Within the current research, industrial and organisational psychology is the sub-field of psychology being studied. This subsystem represents the intellectual climate, the market of intellectual resources and the research process itself (Mouton & Marais, 1996).

## **1.6 THE PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE OF THE RESEARCH**

According to Jonker and Pennink (2010), research paradigms analyse the philosophical constructs of social sciences. A research paradigm may be conceptualised as a framework of important outcomes and principles in terms of how the world is observed and it subsequently directs the thinking patterns of the researcher (Jonker & Pennink, 2010). Berry and Otley (2004) state that it is important to question the research paradigms as they impact on all further research in terms of understanding human behaviour.

### **1.6.1 The intellectual climate**

The constructs studied in the research included occupational passion, career satisfaction, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations. The literature review was conducted within the humanistic paradigm, the existential psychology paradigm and the cognitive-behaviouristic paradigm, while the empirical study was conducted within the post-positivist research paradigm.

#### *1.6.1.1 Literature review*

Theoretically, the humanistic paradigm, existential psychology and the cognitive-behaviouristic paradigm all link to career wellbeing, occupational passion, psychological career resources, career satisfaction and psychosocial career preoccupations.

#### **(a) Humanistic paradigm**

According to the humanistic paradigm, research into behaviour may be broken down into three major fields, namely, psychology, sociology and anthropology (Meyer, Moore, & Viljoen, 2003; Mullins, 2005; Schneider, Bugental, & Pierson, 2001). Psychologists are interested in the study and understanding of human behaviour (Meyer et al., 2003). In terms of the ontological dimensions of this paradigm, researchers focus on an individual as a holistic creature when studying that individual's interactions with external societal factors (Mullins, 2005). In addition, Meyer et al. (2003) indicate that behaviour may be influenced by the social environment.

Psychologists are thus interested in understanding the environmental factors that influence human behaviour (Taylor, Peplau, & Sears, 2006). From an epistemological perspective, this paradigm seeks to understand human behaviour by exploring previous behaviour to predict future behaviour (Taylor et al., 2006).

In short, the study of humanistic psychology focuses on subjective wellbeing with a specific emphasis on factors such as happiness and positive inter-personal relationships (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011). According to the humanistic paradigm, individuals take responsibility for their own success and future (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011). The paradigm also states that the lives of individuals are seen as unique processes in terms of which individuals are motivated to reach their full potential and satisfaction with life (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011).

The constructs of career wellbeing, career satisfaction, occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations all stem from humanistic psychology, as they encourage active goal setting, adaptive behaviour, positive relationship building, creating harmony between the individual and the environment and satisfaction with life in general (Coetzee, 2008, 2014b; Diener, 2013; Ng & Feldman, 2014; Savickas, 2013; Vallerand, 2015).

#### **(b) Existential psychology**

Existential psychology is concerned with the experiences of individuals in relation to the multifaceted changes that individuals experience throughout their lives (Sharf, 2010). The paradigm postulates that individuals are accountable for their own plans, outcomes and future activities (Schneider et al., 2014). It may thus be said that individuals are not the victims of their life changes and situations but rather they become what they choose to be (Madison, 2014).

Existentialism focuses on the way in which individuals understand their own self, their concern with their own environments and how interactions with others influence them. Existentialism emphasises the impact of time in terms of how individuals understand themselves in the here and the now, the past as well as the future (Sharf, 2010). Individuals understand their existence by asking questions about the world in which they live, others and themselves (Schneider et al., 2014).

The development of a well-rounded career wellbeing profile (which incorporates the positive application of career satisfaction, occupational passion, psychological career resources, and psychosocial career preoccupations) facilitates existentialism, as individuals are constantly assessing their fit within their work environment to ensure a satisfactory career (Kidd, 2008).

A well-rounded career wellbeing profile assists individuals to ask themselves important questions such as how their careers are contributing to society, whether they have positive relationships with others and whether their career wellbeing is enhancing or impeding their overall wellbeing (Kidd, 2008).

**(c) Cognitive-behaviouristic paradigm**

The cognitive-behaviouristic paradigm argues that individuals develop by interacting with others (Kendall & Hollon, 2013). The model indicates how individuals' perceptions of, or impulsive thoughts about, circumstances and/or others influence both their emotional and behavioural reactions to situations (Sharf, 2010). Individuals learn to recognise and adapt their understanding and thoughts about the environment and their understanding of themselves and others (Schneider et al., 2014). Thus, the cognitive-behaviouristic paradigm clarifies the behavioural, physiological and emotional responses of individuals as mediated by their observations of their life experiences (Sharf, 2010).

In other words, the cognitive-behaviouristic paradigm describes how individuals' perceptions and thoughts have an impact on their lives (Sharf, 2010). The paradigm proposes that behaviour, thoughts and emotions are inter-related and that individuals may face and overcome challenges and meet their objectives by recognising and altering obstructive or wrong thinking behaviour and related emotional responses (Kendall & Hollon, 2013).

The constructs of career wellbeing, occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction are aligned to the cognitive-behaviouristic paradigm in the sense that they are influenced by the way in which individuals perceive themselves within the career context. All of the constructs related to this study, when implemented positively, facilitate the development of self-determination and adaptability, as well as the understanding, development and growth of psychological traits and resources and the overcoming of environmental challenges (Coetzee, 2008, 2014b; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Diener, 2013; Ng & Feldman, 2014; Savickas, 2013; Vallerand, 2015).

*1.6.1.2 Empirical research*

The empirical research was presented from the perspective of the post-positivistic research paradigm. According to Neuman (2011), positivist scientists pursue law-like generalities in research. From an epistemological perspective, positivists maintain that when different researchers analyse a similar problem, they will generate similar results when applying statistical measures and similar research processes (Creswell, 2009).

To some extent, the post-positivistic research paradigm disagrees with this perspective as it indicates that knowledge is a consequence of social acclimation and may not be generalised to all research contexts (Neuman, 2011). This perspective is deemed to be the critical realist stance in terms of which an individual's social reality should be observed within the context of certain social structures (Neuman, 2011). As the purpose of this study was to design a psychosocial model of career wellbeing, the career wellbeing of working adults was studied within the social reality in which the respondents found themselves, namely, the South African work/career context.

Interpretivism refers to the extreme form of post-positivism (Neuman, 2011). Hennink, Hutter, and Bailey (2011) are of the opinion that interpretivists consider that an individual's reality is developed by social influences and an individual's perspective of such reality. In other words, they maintain that an individual's background affects their reality and also the way in which the individual interacts socially (Hennink et al., 2011).

Thus, from an ontological perspective, post-positivist scholars believe that in order to understand social phenomena completely, research may be replicated while taking certain social nuances and backgrounds into account (Neuman, 2011). This study empirically analysed the indicators/psychological resources that make up the career wellbeing profile of South African working adults, while taking into account the sociodemographic differences between individuals.

## **1.6.2 The market of intellectual resources**

Mouton and Marais (1996) highlight that the assemblage of scientific principles that have an impact on the epistemic status of the scientific outputs is known as the market of intellectual resources. The sections below describe the theoretical models, meta-theoretical outputs, definitions of occupational passion, psychological career resources, career satisfaction, and psychosocial career preoccupations, as well as the central hypothesis and theoretical and methodological expectations of this study.

### *1.6.2.1 Meta-theoretical statements*

Hjørland (2005) maintains that metatheories are philosophies about the explanation, examination, analysis, or criticism of the theories in a particular domain, while Pickard (2007) indicates that metatheories serve as the assumptions behind theoretical, empirical and practical research. In this research study, the meta-theoretical context focused on industrial and organisational psychology. Industrial and organisational psychology may be described as the scientific analysis of human behaviour within the work context and involves the application of theoretical psychological models and values to organisations and individuals in this context

(Bergh, 2009; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2010). Within the field of industrial and organisational psychology, the research study hoped to add value to the career management practices that contribute to the career wellbeing practices of working adults.

#### *1.6.2.2 Conceptual descriptions*

The conceptual descriptions below served as starting points in the research:

##### **(a) Career wellbeing**

Career wellbeing may be conceptualised as the satisfaction of individuals with their career-related activities over time (Kidd, 2008). Career wellbeing is thus a form of subjective wellbeing. Within the context of this study, career wellbeing encompasses the variables (indicators/psychosocial resources) of career satisfaction as predicted by the constructs of occupational passion, psychological career resources, and psychosocial career preoccupations.

The study utilised the conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002) as a meta-theoretical lens through which the relationship dynamics between the indicators/psychosocial resources of occupational passion, psychological career resources, and psychosocial career preoccupations as predictors of career satisfaction were studied. The COR theory postulates that the loss of individual resources (psychosocial resources in the context of this study) will have a larger impact on individuals' wellbeing than the gain of resources (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002; Hobfoll et al., 2015). Furthermore, the COR theory states that individuals need to invest in resources in order to gain and/or maintain resources (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002; Hobfoll et al., 2015). Individuals who thus already possess psychosocial resources are at an advantage to maintain and develop more psychosocial resources, whilst individuals who are resource deprived may find it challenging to develop psychological resources (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002; Hobfoll et al., 2015). Researchers argue that the key outcome of the COR theory is that individuals are motivated to protect their current resources and acquire new resources (Halbesleben, Neveu, Paustian-Underdahl, & Westman, 2014). The study also examined the intrinsic motivators that would assist individuals to develop, obtain and maintain their psychosocial resources.

The self-determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 2000) was used as a meta-theoretical sub-lens through which the relationship dynamics between the indicators/psychosocial resources of occupational passion, psychological career resources, and psychosocial career preoccupations as predictors of career satisfaction were analysed. The SDT is concerned with understanding individuals' natural or intrinsic tendencies to behave in optimal and healthy ways. Individuals utilise their intrinsic motivational drivers to attain certain psychosocial

resources (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Hobfoll et al., 2015). The SDT distinguishes between controlled motivation (being motivated by extrinsic drivers such as work pressures, attaining rewards, or eluding punishments) and autonomous motivation (being driven and intrinsically motivated, recognising an activity's value which results in the self-endorsement of one's behaviour) as two states of motivation at work (Deci & Ryan, 2000). In this study, occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations are perceived as intrinsic motivational drivers and psychological resources that relate to career satisfaction as an outcome- the relationship dynamics among the intrinsic motivators, resources and outcome resources contribute to the overall career wellbeing of the individual as an important resource in career development.

### **(b) Career satisfaction**

Career satisfaction may be seen as an individual's intrinsic evaluation of and contentment with their career progress (Greenhaus et al., 1990). Career satisfaction may also be perceived as an individual's estimation of their career success (Spurk & Abele, 2011).

The study utilised the conservation of resources theory (COR) (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002) and the self-determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 2000) as meta-theoretical lenses through which career satisfaction was studied. In line with the COR, career satisfaction is seen as a psychosocial resource that can be used to attain other resources such as career wellbeing and is also seen as an outcome resource that is valued in its own right (Hobfoll et al., 2015). In line with the SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000), career satisfaction is seen as an intrinsic motivator that can be implemented to attain certain resources such as career wellbeing.

The study applied the Career Satisfaction Scale developed by Greenhaus et al. (1990) to measure career satisfaction. Greenhaus et al.'s (1990) Career Satisfaction Scale measures an individual's satisfaction with (1) the achievement of career-related goals; (2) their career progress; (3) their income; (4) their achievement in terms of their career advancement; and (5) their attainment of the skills required to further their career.

### **(c) Occupational passion**

Vallerand et al. (2003) conceptualise the construct of passion towards work, or occupational passion, as the work activities that provide individuals with energy, that are worth spending time on and that engage individuals, and that individuals perceive as important and which provide enjoyment. Vallerand and Houlfort (2003) add that passion refers to the preference for certain work-related activities that are internalised in such a way that they form part of a person's identity (Vallerand & Houlfort, 2003). According to Vallerand and Houlfort (2003),

occupational passion may be broken down into passion prevalence, harmonious passion, and obsessive passion.

The conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002) and the self-determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 2000) were implemented as meta-theoretical lenses through which occupational passion was studied. Occupational passion is perceived as an intrinsic motivator that is implemented by individuals to attain an outcome resource namely career satisfaction (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Hobfoll et al., 2015).

Within the context of the COR theory and the SDT, this study also incorporated the dualistic model of passion which was developed by Vallerand and Houflourt (2003). According to this model, individuals internalise certain work-related activities in either a harmonious or an obsessive manner, while certain individuals manifest greater passion towards their work than others (Vallerand & Houflourt, 2003).

This study applied Vallerand and Houflourt's (2003) Passion Scale in order to measure whether the participants had (1) passion towards their work and whether the passion that they had was (2) harmonious passion or (3) obsessive passion.

#### **(d) Psychosocial career preoccupations**

Psychosocial career preoccupations are seen as individuals' preoccupations with career-related concerns that influence their lives at a certain point of time (Coetzee, 2014b). Taking cognisance of the life-span theories of Super (1990) and Savickas (2013), Coetzee (2014b) states that owing to the complex environments within which individuals have to construct, manage and develop their careers, they may find it challenging to adapt to the environments, express themselves in their careers and be employable. Coetzee (2014b) is of the opinion that psychosocial career preoccupations assist individuals to show the adaptive change behaviours that enable them to manage their environments in more optimally than may otherwise have been the case.

The conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002) and the self-determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 2000) were utilised as meta-theoretical lenses through which the construct of psychosocial career preoccupations was studied. The construct of psychosocial career preoccupations is seen as an intrinsic motivator and psychosocial resource that is implemented by individuals to attain an outcome resource namely career satisfaction (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Hobfoll et al., 2015).

Within the context of the COR and the SDT, this study utilised Coetzee's (2014b) psychosocial career preoccupations theoretical framework. This framework divides psychosocial career

preoccupations into (1) career establishment preoccupations (concerns about fitting into the organisational context, concerns regarding opportunities for individuals to express themselves, concerns about career advancement); (2) career adaptation preoccupations (concerns about employability, concerns about being able to adapt to changing career circumstances) and (3) work–life adjustment preoccupations (concerns about developing greater harmony between the individual and their personal life, concerns about retirement).

This study also used the Career Preoccupations Scale which measures individuals' (1) career establishment preoccupations; (2) career adaptation preoccupations and (3) work–life adjustment preoccupations (Coetzee, 2014b).

#### **(e) Psychological career resources**

Coetzee (2007, 2008) defines psychological career resources as the career consciousness of individuals. Coetzee (2008) further states that psychological career resources may be conceptualised as a set of career-related alignments, values, attitudes, abilities and attributes that lead to individuals being able to empower themselves in terms of how they behave towards their career and how they foster their own employability.

The construct of psychological career resources was studied through the meta-theoretical lenses of the conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002) and self-determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 2000). The construct of psychological career resources is seen as an intrinsic motivator and psychosocial resource that individuals utilise to attain an outcome resource namely career satisfaction (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Hobfoll et al., 2015).

Within the context of the COR theory and the SDT, this study applied Coetzee's (2007, 2008) psychological career resources framework as a theoretical model. Based on Adler's (1956) viewpoint on the concept of consciousness, Coetzee (2007) states that career consciousness involves individuals' understanding of their career preferences, values, behaviours and skills that assist them in realising their career-related goals. The various components that make up Coetzee's (2007, 2008) theoretical framework of psychological career resources include career preferences, career values, career drivers, career enablers and career harmonisers.

The study used the Psychological Career Resources Inventory (Coetzee, 2007; 2008) to gather data. The Psychological Career Resources Inventory (Coetzee, 2007, 2008) measures the 15 facets of an individual's psychological career resources profile, namely, stability/expertise; managerial; variety/creativity and freedom/autonomy (career preferences); growth/development and authority/influence (career values); practical/creative skills and

self/other skills (career enablers); career purpose; career directedness and career venturing (career drivers) and self-esteem; behavioural adaptability; emotional literacy and social connectivity (career harmonisers).

Table 1.1 presents a summary of the core constructs, sub-constructs, measuring instruments and theoretical models that were applied in this study.

Table 1.1

*Summary of Research Constructs*

<b>Core construct</b>	<b>Sub-constructs</b>	<b>Measuring instrument</b>	<b>Theoretical model</b>
Occupational passion (independent variable)	Passion prevalence Harmonious passion Obsessive passion	Passion Scale (Vallerand & Houliort, 2003)	Dualistic model of passion (Vallerand & Houliort, 2003)
Career satisfaction (dependent variable)	Career satisfaction	Career Satisfaction Scale (Greenhaus, et al., 1990)	Conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002); self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000)
Psychological career resources (mediating variable)	Career enablers Career drivers Career harmonisers Career preferences Career values	The Psychological Career Resource Inventory (Coetzee, 2008)	Psychological Career Resources Model (Coetzee, 2008)
Psychosocial career preoccupations (mediating variable)	Career establishment preoccupations Career adaptation preoccupations Work–life adjustment preoccupations	The Psychosocial Career Preoccupations Scale (Coetzee, 2014b)	The Psychosocial Career Preoccupations Model (Coetzee, 2014b)

### 1.6.2.3 Central hypothesis

The following central hypothesis was formulated for the study:

The independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion) will have both a positive and negative indirect relationship with the outcome variable (career satisfaction) through psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations (as mediating variables). The hypothesis also assumes that the link between occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction is moderated by individuals' sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure). The assumption may be made that the relationship is either more negative or more positive for some sociodemographic groups than others. Finally, a psychosocial model for career wellbeing within the South African context can potentially be developed, based on the empirically manifested relationship dynamics between the variables.

#### 1.6.2.4 *Theoretical assumptions*

Based on the relevant literature the following theoretical assumptions underpinned the study:

- The variables of occupational passion, career satisfaction, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and sociodemographic variables must be isolated in the research study.
- Individuals from diverse sociodemographic backgrounds (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) will differ significantly regarding their passion towards their work, career satisfaction, psychosocial career preoccupations and how they implement certain psychological career resources.
- The variables of occupational passion, career satisfaction, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations may be affected by external influences including race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure.
- Information on the occupational passions of individuals in relation to their career satisfaction, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations will influence career management practices for enhancing career wellbeing
- The information gathered on the variables in the study may assist in the development of a psychosocial model of career wellbeing that may be empirically validated and that may direct career management practices for enhancing career wellbeing in the South African work environment.

#### 1.6.2.5 *Methodological assumptions*

Jonker and Pennink (2010) maintain that methodology serves as a tool that bridges the divide between general, high-level assumptions within research and the more specific, tangible methods and procedures of collecting, analysing and interpreting information. According to Pickard (2007), the less visible sociological, teleological, ontological, and epistemological dimensions of the research domain should be taken into account to ensure that a structured, well-rounded research approach is followed.

##### **(a) Sociological dimension**

The focus of this dimension is on the social context within which the research is conducted and how the researcher is influenced by the social context. Mouton and Marais (1990, 1996), support this view by stating that research is a collective human endeavour and is influenced by the individual who conducts the research and the context in which it is conducted. The decision on a research topic is thus influenced by the researcher's interests, background, and social context. Mouton and Marais (1996) indicate that within the sociological dimension, quantitative research may be experimental. The research conducted for the purposes of this

study is non-experimental. The quantitative analysis of the variables is described in chapters 5 (empirical research) and 6 (research results).

**(b) Ontological dimension**

Ontology refers to the way in which individuals perceive reality and regard their existence as independent of social factors (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). According to Wikgren (2005), ontology is the theory of how individuals perceive their reality. In the context of the social sciences, ontology has to do with the reality that is being investigated. Mouton and Marais (1990) state that ontology explores the status and structure of the social phenomenon(a) being studied. This research studied the various aspects of the variables of occupational passion, career satisfaction, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and certain sociodemographic variables.

**(c) Teleological dimension**

Mouton and Marais (1990) describe the teleological dimension as the dimension that takes account of the researcher's meta-theoretical assumptions. This means that the researcher adopts the approach of an unbiased observer who is merely reporting on the social phenomenon(a) being observed (Mouton & Marais,1990). The research goals in this study were specific to the investigation into the relationship dynamics between occupational passion, career satisfaction, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and certain sociodemographic variables. The research aimed to add value to the fields of both human resource management and industrial and organisational psychology by expanding on the existing knowledge of career management practices that focus on the career wellbeing of working adults.

**(d) Epistemological dimension**

Laughlin (1995) describes epistemology as the theory of knowledge. Thus, social epistemology is the study of the social dimensions of knowledge and focuses on the normative reflections of knowledge development and knowledge distribution (Saunders et al., 2009). Kalof, Dan, and Dietz (2008) indicate that research should be both valid and provide a proper estimation of reality. This study attempted to uphold these standards through a proper research design and the development of valid and reliable research outputs.

**(e) Methodological dimension**

Mouton and Marais (1990) describe the methodological dimension as that aspect of research in the social sciences that ensures that the research is relevant, fair, impartial, systematic and controllable. In essence, it refers to the way in which the data is gathered during a research

study (Mouton & Marais, 1996). This study undertook quantitative (descriptive and explanatory) research in the form of an empirical study and exploratory research in the form of a literature review on occupational passion, career satisfaction, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations.

## **1.7 RESEARCH DESIGN**

De Vaus (2001) describes the research design as the master plan that guides the process of investigation aimed at meeting the research objectives. Gorard (2013) is of the opinion that the research design serves to plan, organise and complete the research so as to optimise the validity of the research outcomes. The following section analyses the research design in relation to the categories of the research conducted. In addition, validity and reliability with regard to the research are also discussed.

### **1.7.1 Exploratory research**

The main objective of explanatory research is to provide insights into the reason why certain phenomena may occur and to attempt to predict similar manifestations in the future (Berg, 2007). Explanatory research is typically guided by research hypotheses that stipulate the dimensions of the relationships between the variables being analysed (Hair, Babin, Money, & Samouel, 2003). It may be said that this study was exploratory as it analysed the various theoretical perceptions of occupational passion, career satisfaction, psychological career resources, and psychosocial career preoccupations in a cross-sectional research design.

### **1.7.2 Descriptive research**

Descriptive research is applied to define the features of the population or phenomenon being researched (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche, & Delpont, 2011). The core purpose of this form of research is to provide information on the data and characteristics of the topic of research (Berg, 2007). Descriptive research aims to provide information on the statistical characteristics of a set of data (Creswell, 2014). Descriptive research does not aim to provide the cause behind phenomena but, instead, assists the researcher to acquire a deeper understanding of the research topic in question as well as the characteristics of the data being analysed (De Vos et al., 2011). In this study, descriptive research was used in the literature review and the empirical study. In the literature review, descriptive research was used in terms of understanding the constructs of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction. In the empirical study, the descriptive approach was used in relation to the sociodemographic variables of the sample and the means, standard deviations, Cronbach's alphas and the composite reliability of the variables of occupational

passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction.

### **1.7.3 Explanatory research**

The goal of explanatory research is to build on exploratory and descriptive research and to provide explanations as to why a certain phenomenon has occurred/may occur (Babbie & Mouton, 2013). In addition, explanatory research looks to develop and add to the existing knowledge on the theories, principles and predictions relating to certain constructs (Berg, 2007). This type of research also looks to understand the qualities, mechanisms and characteristics of the correlation(s) and association(s) between the respective variables (De Vaus, 2006). The driving principle behind this form of research is to ascertain and provide an explanation for certain relationships between two or more phenomena (Babbie & Mouton, 2013). Thus, explanatory research attempts to understand, distinguish and explain a fundamentally significant and meaningful causal connotation between the variables (Creswell, 2014). When this research method is used the researcher develops hypotheses which are then tested against a literature review and observed against an empirical study (Babbie & Mouton, 2013). The hypotheses are either supported or disproved by the literature and/or empirical studies (Babbie & Mouton, 2013).

Due to the cross-sectional nature of the research design, explanatory research does not seek to establish cause and effect relations but only to explore the direction, magnitude, and nature of the mediating and moderating effects, which may, potentially, inform future longitudinal research designs that investigate cause-effect relations. In this study explanatory research was used to understand the relationship dynamics between the sociodemographic variables, occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction of a group of respondents who participated in the study.

The mediating effect of certain psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction as indicators of career wellbeing was also assessed. It was anticipated that this level of examination would assist in the development of a body of knowledge to assist organisations in providing career management support to individuals for enhancing their career wellbeing.

The study also sought to understand the moderation or interaction effect of individuals' sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) on the relationship between the independent variable (occupational passion) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction).

A potential limitation, due to the cross-sectional nature of the research design, includes the fact that causal interpretations could not be established in terms of mediating and moderating effects as the study was seen as a starting point to explore potential mediating and moderating effects which could inform future longitudinal studies.

#### **1.7.4 Validity**

The main purpose of a research design is to provide insight into the relationship between variables. The ability of a research design in realising this purpose is referred to as validity (Bless, Higson-Smith, & Kagee, 2006). In essence, validity in the research context may be conceptualised as the degree to which a research study measures what it was designed to measure (Bless et al., 2006). There are three distinct types of validity, namely, internal, external and measurement validity (Bless et al., 2006). Internal validity refers to the validity of the measurement tool itself, namely, the estimated truth about the cause-effect and or/the relationships dynamics between variables (Bless, et al., 2006). External validity refers to the degree to which the findings of the research may be generalised to the population in question (Bless et al., 2006). External validity considers the time, place and sampling procedures used in a study as well as how these can be generalised to other research settings (Bless et al., 2006).

Rubin and Babbie (2014) describe measurement validity as the degree of correlation between theoretical and practical definitions. According to Foxcroft and Roodt (2007), there are four types of measurement validity, namely, face, content, criterion and construct validity. These four forms of validity are important to understand as they predict the suitability, significance and applicability of a research study (Rubin & Babbie, 2014). In view of the fact that this research study made use of measures with established measurement validity, the focus was only on testing for the best fit measurement model to ensure the construct validity of the structural model (Rubin & Babbie, 2014).

##### *1.7.4.1 Validity with regard to the literature*

The validity of the literature review conducted for the purposes of this study was established by referring only to literature that was recent, relevant, and applicable to the purpose of the study and the variables being studied. Every attempt was made to ensure that the most recent sources of literature were cited although certain older publications were also cited due to the nature of the constructs being discussed in the study.

##### *1.7.4.2 Validity with regard to the empirical research*

It is important that a research study may be both internally and externally validated (Rubin & Babbie, 2014). According to Bless et al. (2006), internal validity assists a researcher to

generate valid findings by understanding the causality between the variables. In this study, applicable and standardised measurement instruments were used to guarantee the validity of the data acquired during the empirical study (Gregory, 2000).

As advised by Foxcroft and Roodt (2007), the measurement instruments were examined to ensure their face, content and criterion validity. In view of the fact that the study made use of measures with established measurement validity, the focus was only on testing for the best fit measurement model to ensure the construct validity of the structural model (Rubin & Babbie, 2014). By reducing the selection bias through random sampling, the researcher also hoped to ensure the internal validity of the study (Bless et al., 2006). The questionnaires included standardised instructions and information that were provided to all the research participants (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2007). A statistical analysis was conducted to regulate for the differences between the sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level, and tenure) (Rubin & Babbie, 2014).

Bless et al. (2006) state that research should be externally validated as it is important to generalise the results of the study in question beyond the research population. Research participants from diverse sociodemographic backgrounds participated in this study so as to reflect the sociodemographic variables of the research population (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2002). This assisted the researcher to ensure the generalisability of the research results.

### **1.7.5 Reliability**

The reliability of a measurement instrument refers to its accuracy of measurement (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2007; Hart, 1998). Creswell (2009) describes reliability as the error of measurement within a research study. The reliability of the literature review conducted for the purposes of this study was ensured by collecting data that was accurate, consistent, relevant and fair. In the empirical study Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability were used to ensure the internal consistency of the measures used to test the constructs (Eisinger, Te Grotenhuis, & Pelzer, 2013). Cronbach's alpha is used to specify the degree to which a set of items measure the same core construct (Dunn, Baguley, & Brunnsden, 2013). A Cronbach's alpha ( $\alpha$ ) or composite reliability of .70 and higher is accepted as an acceptable measure of internal consistency (Eisinga et al., 2013). The composite reliability coefficient, which is a less biased estimate of Cronbach's alpha coefficient, for each measure was also computed in addition to the Cronbach's alpha coefficients because structural equation modelling (confirmatory factor analysis) was used in the study (Eisinga et al., 2013).

### **1.7.6 The unit of research**

The unit of research stipulates the entity that is the focus of the study (De Vos et al., 2011). According to Trochim (2006), the unit of research in social research may typically be applied on an individual level or group level or it may be based on social interactions. This study focused on the variables of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction. The study analysed the individual results of each of the measuring tools (individual level), the overall results of each of the measuring tools (group level) and also the sociodemographic variables (sub-group level). The objective of the study was to analyse the relationship dynamics between the constructs of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction in order to construct a psychosocial model of career wellbeing that would inform employee career management practices.

### **1.7.7 The variables**

As already stated the objective of the study was to analyse the relationship dynamics between the constructs of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations, career satisfaction and certain sociodemographic variables. Accordingly, the effect of psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations as mediating variables on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction was analysed. Mediation takes place when a third variable is included and that variable has an impact on the direct causal relationship between the dependent and independent variables (MacKinnon, 2008). The mediator variables help in explaining the nature of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Howell, 2009). The study further analysed the moderating effect of certain sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level, and tenure). Statistically the moderating variable may be characterised as a third variable that is either categorical (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) or quantitative in nature and which affects the direction and/or strength of relationship between the dependent and independent variables (Dawson, 2013). Generally, the mediation analysis contributed to understanding “how” and “why” occupational passion explains career satisfaction while the moderation analysis contributed to understanding “for whom” the independent and mediating variables are more strongly related to career satisfaction.

### **1.7.8 Delimitations**

The study had a specific focus and was limited to studying the relationship dynamics between the variables in question. These variables included certain sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure), occupational passion (passion prevalence, harmonious passion, obsessive passion), psychological career resources (career drivers,

career enablers, career harmonisers, career values and career preferences), psychosocial career preoccupations (career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations) and career satisfaction. The study findings were not influenced, manipulated or changed based on any personal perspectives or opinions. The study broke new ground, it was original, and it focused specifically on analysing the relationship between the variables of sociodemographic variables, occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction. The information gathered on the above variables may be used in future research to analyse other issues relating to these variables.

## 1.8 THE RESEARCH METHOD

The study was conducted in two phases, namely, a literature review and an empirical study. Figure 1.1 provides an overview of the literature review.

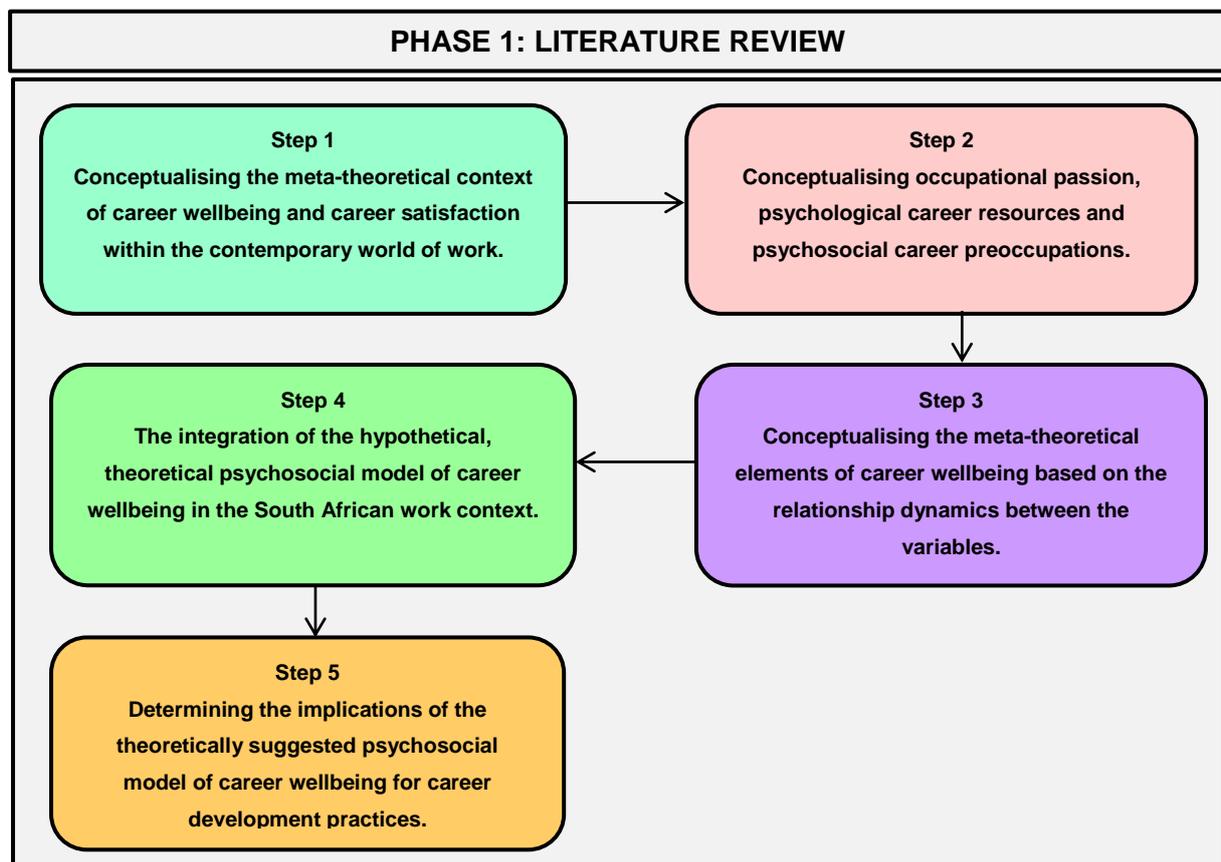


Figure 1.1: Overview of the literature review

### 1.8.1 Phase 1: Literature review

The literature review focused on an analysis of the independent variable (occupational passion) and dependent variable (career satisfaction) as well as the sociodemographic variables, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations with a

focus on career management practices for career wellbeing within the South African work context. Furthermore, the literature review analysed the existing literature related to the independent variable (occupational passion) and dependent variable (career satisfaction) as well as the sociodemographic variables, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations.

***Step 1: Conceptualising the meta-theoretical context of career wellbeing and career satisfaction within the contemporary world of work context.***

This step included an analysis of the available research on career wellbeing and career satisfaction within the South African work environment. This step is discussed in chapter 2.

***Step 2: Conceptualising occupational passion, psychological career resources, and psychosocial career preoccupations.***

During this step the constructs of occupational passion, passion prevalence and the two types of occupational passion, namely, harmonious and obsessive passion, were conceptualised according to existing theoretical research. The influence of sociodemographic variables (race gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure), psychological career resources (consisting of career drivers, career enablers, career harmonisers, career values and career preferences) and psychosocial career preoccupations (consisting of career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations) on the prevalence and type of occupational passion were explored. This step is discussed in chapter 3.

***Step 3: Conceptualising the meta-theoretical elements of career wellbeing based on the relationship dynamics between the variables.***

During this step the relationship dynamics between the variables of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction were discussed in terms of developing a theoretical psychosocial model of career wellbeing for the South African work context. This step is discussed in chapter 4.

***Step 4: The integration of the hypothetical theoretical psychosocial model of occupational passion in relation to career satisfaction***

The integration and development of the hypothetical theoretical psychosocial model of career wellbeing and its implications for career management practices in South Africa were discussed during this step. This step is discussed in chapter 4.

**Step 5: Determining the implications of the theoretically suggested psychosocial model of career wellbeing for career management practices.**

During this step, the impact of the theoretically suggested psychosocial model of career wellbeing for career management practices in the South African work context was explored. This step is discussed in chapter 4.

**1.8.2 Phase 2: The empirical study**

An empirical study was conducted in the South African work environment in order to develop the psychosocial model of career wellbeing.

Figure 1.2 provides an overview of the empirical study.

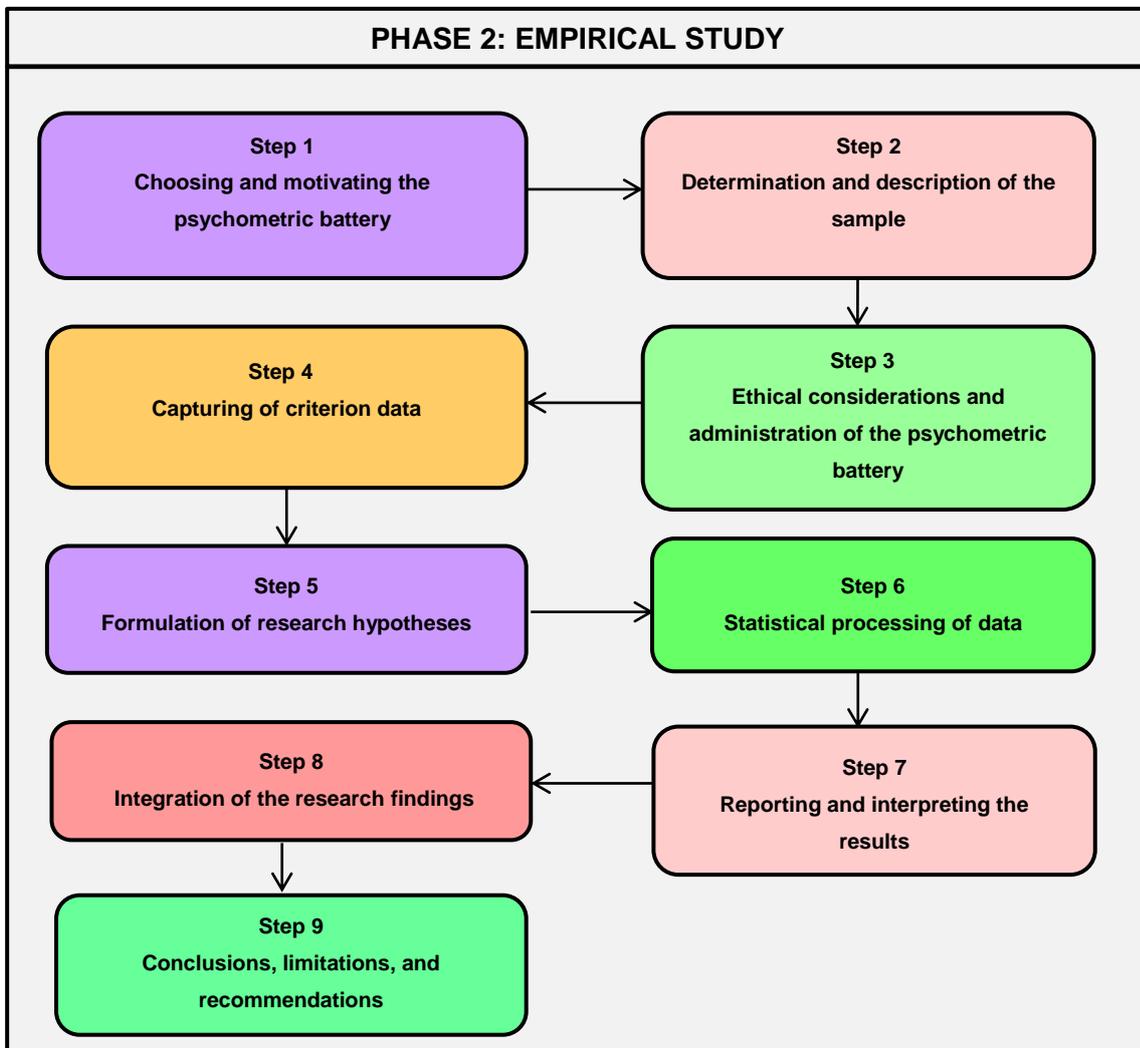


Figure 1.2: Overview of the empirical study

The empirical study included the following steps:

***Step 1: Determination and description of the sample***

The process used to determine the sample and the sample characteristics was defined and discussed in Chapter 5.

***Step 2: Choosing and motivating the psychometric battery***

During step 2 the psychometric attributes of the measuring tools, which had been developed to measure occupational passion, career satisfaction, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations, were described. The measuring tools used also asked the respondents to provide information on their individual sociodemographic variables (race gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure). These measuring tools are described in Chapter 5.

***Step 3: Ethical considerations and administration of the psychometric battery***

The ethical considerations and the process used to collect the requisite data were explained in Chapter 5.

***Step 4: Capturing of criterion data***

The capturing of the data and the data analysis conducted during this step are summarised in Chapter 5.

***Step 5: Formulation of research hypotheses***

This step involved the formulation of the hypotheses to be used to realise the research objectives and is discussed in Chapter 5.

***Step 6: Statistical processing of data***

The relevant statistical procedures used during this step are explained in detail in Chapter 6.

***Step 7: Reporting and interpreting the results***

This step involved the presentation of the research results and is described in Chapter 6.

***Step 8: Integration of the research findings***

The results of the empirical research were integrated into the findings of the literature review in Chapter 6.

### ***Step 9: Formulation of conclusions, limitations, and recommendations***

The final step of the study focused on the conclusions reached based on the results and the integration of the research findings with theory (see Chapter 7). In addition, Chapter 7 also discusses the limitations of the study while recommendations are made in terms of the empirically validated psychosocial model of career wellbeing for the South African working adult.

## **1.9 CHAPTER DIVISION**

The chapters subsequent to Chapter 1 were presented in the following manner:

### **Chapter 2: Meta-theoretical context of the study**

This chapter looked to conceptualise career wellbeing and career satisfaction within the contemporary world of work. Chapter 2 addressed the first literature research aim, namely, to ascertain the way in which the literature defines career wellbeing and career satisfaction within the contemporary world of work context. The person-centred variables related to career wellbeing and career satisfaction were also discussed.

### **Chapter 3: Occupational passion, psychological career resources, and psychosocial career preoccupations**

The aim of this chapter was to conceptualise the career wellbeing related indicators, namely, occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations and then to investigate how these constructs are conceptualised and described in theoretical models in the literature. The variables that have an impact on these constructs were described. The chapter discussed the implications of the constructs of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction for career wellbeing. The also considered the person-centred variables related to occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations.

### **Chapter 4: Integration-toward constructing a psychosocial model of career wellbeing for the South African working adult**

The chapter addressed the integration of the literature review with regard to the relationship dynamics between the respective variables and discussed the construction of a theoretically hypothesised psychosocial model of career wellbeing for the South African working adult. The theoretically hypothesised psychosocial model of career wellbeing included: (1) occupational

passion as the independent variable, (2) psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations as the mediating variables and (3) career satisfaction as the dependent variable.

### **Chapter 5: Empirical research**

The purpose of this chapter was to provide information on the empirical research conducted. The measuring instruments were described and information provided on the data gathering procedure used. The aims of the empirical research was discussed as were the characteristics of the research study's population and sample. The chapter concluded with the formulation of the research hypotheses.

### **Chapter 6: Research results**

This chapter provided and clarified the statistical results of the study and described the research hypotheses that were tested. The chapter also focused on integrating the empirical research findings with the literature review findings. In addition, the statistical results were discussed and the descriptive, common, and inferential (multivariate) statistical results of the research study clarified.

### **Chapter 7: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations**

This chapter discussed the research outcomes and discussed the conclusions reached on the basis of the study findings. The limitations of the research study were explained and recommendations made for both the field of industrial psychology and for further research. This chapter culminated in final concluding observations and estimated the value of the study on a theoretical, statistical, and practical level.

## **1.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

In short, the key purpose of this chapter was to provide the scientific orientation to the study. The chapter also discussed the background to and motivation for the study as well as the paradigm perspectives, the theoretical research, research design and methodology, the central hypothesis formulated and research method used.

The motivation for the study was grounded on the fact that no known studies have been conducted on the career wellbeing related indicators of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction and whether the relationship dynamics between these constructs may be utilised to develop a psychosocial model of career wellbeing in a single study.

The focus of the study was to design a psychosocial model of career wellbeing for the working adult in the South African context which would inform career management practices within the South African work environment. The purpose of the study was to evaluate clearly the relationship dynamics, the associations, and the holistic relationship between occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction as indicators of career wellbeing.

Further to this, the study looked to examine whether individuals with different sociodemographic variables such as race, gender, age, qualification, job level, and tenure vary significantly in respect of the above variables. It was hoped that the study would inform both industrial and organisational psychologists and human resource practitioners about more effective career management strategies within the South African organisational context.

Chapter 2 focused on the first literature research aim, namely, to review career wellbeing and career satisfaction within the contemporary world of work context and to review the existing literature on the constructs of career wellbeing and career satisfaction.

## CHAPTER 2

### **META-THEORETICAL CONTEXT OF THE STUDY: CAREER WELLBEING AND CAREER SATISFACTION WITHIN THE CONTEMPORARY WORLD OF WORK**

In accordance with literature aim 1, this chapter describes the meta-theoretical context that formed the definite parameters of the study. The contemporary work environment is becoming increasingly complex, is ever changing, and requires an increased ability to adapt on the part of individuals (Biemann, Fasang, & Grunow, 2011; Dunning, 2014). The ever-changing world of work has resulted in a transformation in the way in which careers are being perceived, managed and experienced (Savickas, 2013; Sullivan, 2013). Individuals are being forced to enter into various psychological and transactional relationships with organisations to ensure that they have meaningful, successful, and healthy careers (Hamtaux et al., 2013). The challenging work context is creating a need for individuals to develop the career self-management capabilities and psychological resources that will have an impact on their subjective career-related experiences such as career wellbeing and career satisfaction (Lent, 2013). Based on the above-mentioned trends, it appears that there is a need to understand the modern work context, within which working adults construct their careers as this may, potentially, help to inform career management and career wellbeing strategies in the contemporary workplace.

#### **2.1 CAREERS IN THE CONTEMPORARY WORLD OF WORK**

Organisations all over the world are changing both drastically and quickly (Dunning, 2014). These macro-level changes involve changes in organisational organograms and in the workforce, types of work output and reward systems (Dunning, 2014). They are the result of global transformations as a result of increasing dependence on technology, changes in the economic and political landscapes and shifts in terms of the way in which organisations are defining themselves in the modern era of work (Cappelli & Keller, 2014). The changes within the work context have affected careers and career management in significant ways (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016).

The traditional career, which was once regarded as the norm, has given way to contemporary career outlooks which attempt to define the various aspects of the modern career (Sullivan, 2013). With the modern career being typified by numerous changes, lack of job security and a lack of boundaries individuals need to show proactive adaptive behaviour, embrace career self-management strategies, and develop new skills to ensure that they are employable (Arthur, 2014). In the context of the contemporary career, success is no longer seen in terms

of promotion or salary but rather as the subjective judgements that individuals make regarding their career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Ng & Feldman, 2014).

This section discusses the socioeconomic factors that influence individual career management within the contemporary world of work. It also aims to provide information on contemporary career perspectives and how they differ from the traditional career outlook. Finally, the section also aims to provide a conceptualisation of career wellbeing and career satisfaction within the context of a changing work environment.

### **2.1.1 The evolution of careers**

A career is regarded as the process or sequence of work-related experiences that develops over an individual's life time (Afiouni & Karam, 2014; Arthur, Inkson, & Pringle, 1999; Barnett & Bradley, 2007; Baruch, 2006; Moen & Roehling, 2005; Super, 1957; Woodd, 2013). The term career is a term that is used to describe changes between jobs, unemployment, promotions, and relocations (Super, 1990). The term 'career' is also an evaluative term which is used to describe upward mobility – the concept of climbing the organisation's hierarchical ladder –and a holistic, positive estimation of an individual's career (Abele & Spurk, 2009a). Thus, the term career refers to the way in which individuals understand occupational development (Hall, 2002).

It would appear that the above conceptualisation of perceiving a career as the development of work encounters throughout an individual's life course implies that all individuals who take part in work-related practices have a career (Greenhaus et al., 2010). It is thus becoming increasingly important to understand the dynamics that make up the modern career because all working individuals have careers and because careers have considerable consequences for individual success (Hogan et al., 2013), organisational growth (Stumpf, 2014), individual identity (Hall & Mirvis, 2013) and subjective wellbeing (Brown & Lent, 2016; Kidd, 2008).

The study of career dynamics in the contemporary world of work is also important as individuals' careers are entrenched within the social contexts that encompass individuals' unique identities, national cultures, and organisational environments (Lyons et al., 2015; Savickas, 2013). Knowledge on how careers develop and evolve provides valuable information on and insights into the associations between individuals and the social environments within which they live (Baruch, 2006).

Economic, technological, social, and industrial transformations have removed the onus from organisations to develop the careers of individuals and given rise to new career constructs that are driven by proactive, career-related behaviour on the part of the individual (Arthur, 2014;

Savickas, 2013). The environment in which individuals are constructing their careers is no longer either stable or predictable but has, instead, become highly complex, dynamic, and volatile (Sullivan, 2013). In the 21st century workplace employers are expecting employees to be more flexible, adaptable, proactive and open to change than previously (Cullen, Edwards, Casper, & Gue, 2014; Uy, Chan, Sam, Ho, & Chernyshenko, 2015; Van der Heijden, De Lange, Demerouti, & Van der Heijde, 2009). The rapidly changing work environment has resulted in individuals taking responsibility for the own career direction, career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Briscoe et al., 2006; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016). The number of changes and challenges within the workplace has resulted in the term 'career' being perceived in a different way.

The definitions that have been traditionally associated with the term career, namely, high degrees of work commitment, job stability, status, and upward mobility, are being discarded in definitions of the modern career (Greenhaus et al., 2010, Ng & Feldman, 2014; Savickas, 2013; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016). In addition, the career relationship between employers and employees is becoming shorter as individuals no longer stay with one or two employers only for a lifetime (Baruch, 2004, 2006). Recently, the emphasis has moved from individuals expecting a single organisation to fulfil all of their career needs to the individual moving across organisational boundaries in order to ensure their career wellbeing and career satisfaction (Donald, Baruch, & Ashleigh, 2017; Walsh & Osipow, 2014).

As a result of the shorter working relationships and changes in loyalty the psychological contract between the employer and employee has changed and this has also resulted in the expectations of the respective parties changing (Baruch & Reis, 2016). The traditional contract between the employer and employee comprised employee loyalty, which was then rewarded by job security and stability (Sullivan, 2013). However, in terms of the modern contract, employees exchange performance for learning and development opportunities which may be transferred to other organisations (Clark, 2010; De Vos & Soens, 2008; Sullivan, 2013). On-the-job training has replaced the classroom training which was synonymous with traditional career management strategies (Sullivan, 2013). As organisations need employees who can assist them to overcome the challenges of the 21st century work environment individuals need to develop skills and knowledge that would make them more employable (Hogan et al., 2013).

Traditionally career-related milestones were age-related (Super, 1957, 1990, 1995). However, the modern career is typified by learning-related milestones which are not age related and which are recurring (Savickas, 2005, 2013). Individuals in the modern workplace are less concerned with climbing the organisational ladder but, instead, tend to opt for meaningful career experiences that will drive career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Hall, 2013). Career

success in the modern career is no longer merely typified by job level and salary but, rather, by the psychological satisfaction that individuals experience with their career-related experiences (Ng & Feldman, 2010, 2014; Ng et al., 2005).

The contemporary career is thus seen as a series of changes, choices and adaptations to the arrangement of work-related activities of a specific individual over a period of time (Ribeiro, 2015; Savickas, 2013). Careers are no longer constrained by the structures and frameworks of organisations but have instead become boundaryless (Arthur, 1994), more self-directed or protean (Hall, 1976; Hall et al., 2012; Koekemoer, 2014; Tams & Arthur, 2010; Wickramasinghe & Jayaweera, 2010), global (Inkson et al., 2012), entrepreneurial (Fayolle, & Liñán, 2014), kaleidoscopic (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005) and adaptable (Savickas, 2005, 2013).

The evolution in terms of the way in which careers are perceived has been due to the significant socioeconomic changes within the modern work environment. The socioeconomic changes that have had the greatest impact on careers, namely, globalisation, changes in workforce demographics, advances in technology and a greater need for knowledge workers are discussed in the next subsection.

### **2.1.2 Socioeconomic changes influencing careers within the 21st century**

Over the past 20 years, the speed and magnitude of work-related changes have increased drastically (Baruch, 2006; Baruch & Reis, 2016). Organisations are being challenged by the numerous changes and developments in a number of areas and which have widespread implications for individual career management practices (Cappelli & Keller, 2013).

There are a number of socioeconomic changes influencing the career management and personal perceptions of careers within the contemporary world of work (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016). Factors such as globalisation, changes in workforce demographics, greater dependence on technology and a greater need for skilled labour have all made it difficult for individuals to manage their careers in an autonomous manner (Cappelli & Keller, 2013). The impact of each of these factors on organisations and individual career management practices are discussed in this section.

#### *2.1.2.1 Globalisation*

Globalisation in the 21st century has resulted in organisational structures and operations changing dramatically (Dunning, 2014). In view of the need to cut costs, many multinational corporations are choosing to centralise their key support services and/or move their operational services to places such as Asia where labour costs are less expensive (Beeson, 2014). These organisations have thus become virtual and centralised with fewer employees

than before (Dunning, 2014). In addition, globalisation has resulted in large-scale technological developments and a greater dependency on technology, thus reducing the demand for unskilled labour (Yamao & Sekiguchi, 2015). Globalisation has also increased the competition for work in several countries around the world, thus making it more difficult than it was previously for individuals to construct their own careers (Nica, Manole, & Potcovaru, 2016). Both the transfer of work to other countries where labour costs are less and the emigration of highly skilled individuals are having an effect on the availability of work for local job seekers (Nica et al., 2016).

The competition for work, caused by globalisation, is having an impact on individual career management, as there are fewer career options available to local citizens in the countries from which the work is taken away (Yamao & Sekiguchi, 2015). The ease of earning bigger salaries and the promise of greater levels of career satisfaction and career wellbeing in other countries have urged many African and South African employees to look for employment abroad (Blacklock, Ward, Heneghan, & Thompson, 2014). Many South African employees are choosing to work abroad for a number of years to diversify their skills, work in diverse environments, and save some capital to ensure more long-term satisfaction with their careers (George, Atujuna, & Gow, 2013).

According to the South African Department of Statistics (2016), between 1 million and 1.6 million individuals in skilled, professional, and managerial professions have emigrated since 1994 while 1.2 million migrants from outside of South Africa are part of the working population. In Africa, globalisation has resulted in organisations losing many talented individuals and this has forced organisations to outsource certain services to international organisations, thus making the workplace more competitive and individuals experiencing even greater difficulties in managing their career wellbeing than before (Cappelli, 2010; Meister & Willyerd, 2010; Wachira, Brookes, & Haines, 2016).

In addition, globalisation has made it more challenging for individuals to achieve career satisfaction as they are competing against a bigger, international, pool of highly qualified individuals and thus many individuals are opting to move overseas to ensure their career development, advancement, and career wellbeing (Wachira et al., 2016).

In view of the fact that career wellbeing allows individuals to adapt to the challenges of globalisation it is vital that organisations assist individuals to develop career wellbeing (Kidd, 2008). It has also been found that career satisfaction assists individuals to develop a greater environmental fit, helps them to seek career opportunities that allow them to develop their skills, and build professional relationships within competitive environments (Ng et al., 2005;

Savickas, 2013). However, although globalisation may result in lower levels of career wellbeing and career satisfaction a well-developed career wellbeing profile may assist individuals to overcome the challenges posed by globalisation (Ng & Feldman, 2014). Knowledge on the psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators of career wellbeing may inform organisations on the career management interventions that focus on career wellbeing that they can implement to provide their employees with more support amidst the complexities of globalisation.

#### *2.1.2.2 Workforce demographics*

Researchers in the 21st century have noted a major shift in terms of workforce demographics (Heng, & Yazdanifard, 2013). At the time of the study five different generations were working together in the workplace, namely, the Silent Generation (born between 1922 and 1945), the Baby Boomers (born between 1946 and 1964), Generation X (born between 1965 and 1976), Generation Y (Millennials born between 1977 and 1997 and Generation 2020 (born since 1997) (Heng, & Yazdanifard, 2013). The different generations working together may result in a challenging work environment with the different generations having conflicting values, needs and expectations (Heng, & Yazdanifard, 2013). The career wellbeing and career satisfaction of individuals who are not able to adapt to the needs of others are negatively affected within the modern workplace (Creed & Blume, 2013; Ng et al., 2005).

In addition to the fact that multiple generations are working together there has also been a major transition in terms of female representation while the modern workplace is also becoming more ethnically diverse (Galinsky, Aumann, & Bond, 2013). South Africa's workforce has also changed drastically since the fall of apartheid (Seekings, 2014). The South African workforce consists of more women than men, is more representative of all races than before and has an increasing number of couples who work together (Nel, Du Plessis, & Marx, 2014).

In South Africa legislation such as the Employment Equity Act (Republic of South Africa, 1998) and Affirmative Action is assisting employees from previously disadvantaged groups to join the labour force (Nel, et al., 2014). The South Africa Labour Force Survey (Department of Statistics, 2016) reported the following in terms of employment demographics: Of the estimated 36 million employees in South Africa 18.5 million are women and 17.5 million are men. The South Africa Labour Force Survey (Department of Statistics, 2016) reports that within the current workforce there are 8 million black African, 3 million coloured, 980 000 Asian and 3 million white workers. As the pre-democratic workforce in South Africa was characterised by the predominance of white and male workers, the workforce in South Africa has undergone rapid transformations over the past 20 years (Nel et al., 2014).

In view of the large number of diverse individuals working together in the South African workspace it is imperative that individuals are able to adapt to the needs and challenges of a highly diverse and more competitive workplace to ensure career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016). Individuals who are able to form meaningful relationships with colleagues, no matter their background, will reap the benefits in terms of careers that are both satisfactory and well (Kidd, 2008).

In view of the fact that both career wellbeing and career satisfaction facilitate the development of mutually beneficial relationships within the work context, organisations should assist individuals to develop career wellbeing and career satisfaction in order to ensure better cohesion within such organisations (Creed & Blume, 2013; Ng & Feldman, 2014).

### *2.1.2.3 Technology*

The rapid advance in technology contributed significantly to globalisation in the last century (Narula, 2014). Technology has allowed organisations to carry out worldwide transactions at any time without being restricted by national boundaries (Jaumotte, Lall, & Papageorgiou, 2013). Technology gives local organisations the capability to compete on a worldwide market (Jaumotte et al., 2013). In addition, technology has simplified the work roles of employees, thus allowing them to monitor quality standards, increase production levels, and communicate more easily than before (Narula, 2014). As organisations begin to integrate technology into all parts of their operations, processes and managerial activities there is an increasing demand for individuals who are able to understand and adapt to the technological needs of the organisation (Rojewski & Hill, 2014).

Individuals who are able to use technology to their advantage, understand the intricacies of digital work and are adaptable to changes in technology are extremely sought after by employers (Rojewski, & Hill, 2014; Watson, 2016). Conversely, individuals whose skill sets have become obsolete have limited options for employment and this will have a negative impact on both their career satisfaction and their career wellbeing (Kidd, 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2014; Watson, 2016). The more employable individuals are the greater their chance of satisfying intrinsic career-related needs such as career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Helyer & Lee, 2014).

In the less developed countries, such as South Africa, small businesses often struggle to compete in an international market as they do not have the capital required to invest in technology (Watson, 2016). The resultant lack of available technology impacts adversely on the advancement of the skill, knowledge and capabilities of individuals (Maree, 2013). Individual career satisfaction and career wellbeing are both highly dependent on the acquisition

and development of new skills (Kidd, 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2014). Thus, the lack of technology and infrastructure may have a negative impact on career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Sukums et al., 2014)

Individuals who are able to adapt to the technologically driven work-environment as well as upskill themselves on the latest technological developments will be more employable in the future and will thus achieve greater levels of career satisfaction and career wellbeing than their less able counterparts (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016). Technology may also facilitate the development of career satisfaction and career wellbeing as it allows individuals to learn new skills and acquire new knowledge (Kidd, 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2014).

#### *2.1.2.4 Knowledge workers*

A significant impact of globalisation has been the ongoing development and improvement of science and technology (Handley & Den Outer, 2016). However, organisations require knowledge workers who are able to adapt to the considerable changes in work processes and problems and apply new knowledge (Handley & Den Outer, 2016). A feature of the 21st century work environment is the fact that organisations are highly reliant on the effective attainment, communication, and application of knowledge and ideas (Andrés, Asongu, & Amavilah, 2015).

As modern organisations become learning workplaces, more positions are being filled by individuals who are able to learn quickly and effectively and understand the rationale behind performing a task (Edwards, Raggatt, & Small, 2013; Jayasingam & Yong, 2013). The result of the workplace valuing specialist knowledge is that organisations are looking either to hire or to make use of specialist expertise instead of generalists (Baruch, 2004; Hofstetter & Rosenblatt, 2016; Jarvis, 2007; Jayasingam & Yong, 2013; Sewdass & Du Toit, 2014). Thus, individuals who possess specialist knowledge and/or the capability to learn new skills are highly employable (Helyer & Lee, 2014). Individuals who are employed report higher levels of career satisfaction and career wellbeing than unemployed individuals (Dawson et al., 2014).

Within the modern workplace, learning abilities and attainments have become major drivers of individual career development and management (Kong & Yan, 2014). However, this reality places those who do not have the motivation to develop themselves on a consistent basis at a disadvantage in terms of staying abreast of the latest changes in technology and ensuring their career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Kong & Yan, 2014; Savickas, 2013).

The legacy of apartheid in South Africa still means the white and Asian population groups occupy most of the positions in the skilled, high-paying, and managerial professions while the black African and coloured population groups dominate the semi-skilled and unskilled professions (South African Department of Statistics, 2016). At the time of the study the

percentage of black African women in low-skilled, non-managerial occupations was 42.2% in comparison to 1.4% white women and 3.2% Asian women (South African Department of Statistics, 2016). Research shows that organisations tend to employ, promote, and reward individuals who are skilled, knowledgeable and educated (Ng et al., 2005). In South Africa, individuals from certain sociodemographic backgrounds experience higher levels of career satisfaction and career wellbeing than individuals from other groups due to the fact that employers prefer to appoint, develop and promote skilled labour (Ng et al., 2005; Sewdass & Du Toit, 2014).

Research also indicates modern employees are characterised by their efforts of continuous learning in order to prepare them for the rapid transformations in the work environment (Savickas, 2013). The successful acquisition of new skills and knowledge assists individuals to enjoy greater levels of career wellbeing and career satisfaction than may otherwise have been the case (Creed & Blume, 2013; Ng et al., 2005). It is, essential that individuals constantly develop themselves, learn new ways of approaching their work-related tasks, and adapt to technology in order to enhance their career satisfaction and career wellbeing within the modern workplace (Savickas, 2013).

Table 2.1 presents a summary of the socioeconomic factors influencing careers in the 21<sup>st</sup> century.

Table 2.1

*Socioeconomic Factors Influencing Careers Within the 21st Century*

<b>Socioeconomic factor</b>	<b>Impact on career management</b>
Globalisation (Dunning, 2014; Wachira et al., 2016; Yamao & Sekiguchi, 2015)	Increased competition. Development of international careers. Centralisation of jobs.
Workforce demographics (Galinsky et al., 2013; Heng & Yazdanifard, 2013; Nel et al., 2014)	Multiple generations working together. Increased representation of diverse employees. Increased adaptability required of employees.
Technology (Jaumotte et al., 2013; Rojewski & Hill, 2014)	Individuals need to adapt to the technologically driven work-environment. Individuals need to harness technology to work to their advantage. Individuals need to upskill themselves on the latest technological developments to be employable.
Knowledge workers (Handley & Den Outer, 2016; James & Beckett, 2013; Sewdass & Du Toit, 2014)	Individuals need to constantly develop themselves to be sought after by employers. Individuals need to learn new ways of approaching their work-related tasks to remain employable.

The above-mentioned socioeconomic variables have transformed the way in which careers are perceived in the modern career environment (Sullivan, 2013). The career perspectives that clarify the dynamics of the modern career are discussed in the next subsection.

### **2.1.3 Career perspectives in the 21st century**

The manner in which careers are managed and constructed has undergone significant changes in the 21st century (Woodd, 2013). These changes are a result of several socioeconomic changes such as globalisation, changes in workforce demographics, increased dependence on technology, and a greater need for knowledge workers than before (Lyons, Schweitzer, & Ng, 2015; Woodd, 2013).

The focus of career management practices in the previous century was to assist individuals to be better prepared to make decisions about their careers and occupations and, finally, to reach career maturity (Inkson et al., 2012). However, in the 21st century the focus is shifting towards strengthening the psychological resources of individuals to assist them to experience both career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Coetzee, 2014b; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016). Numerous career theorists have attempted to define the modern career from a number of career perspectives. The boundaryless, protean, global, entrepreneurial, and kaleidoscope career outlooks are discussed in this section.

#### *2.1.3.1 Boundaryless careers*

A boundaryless career is typified by the building of professional networks outside of the current employer (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). The boundaryless career challenges the hierarchical structure of a traditional career and postulates that individuals take responsibility for their own careers when making decisions on their employment (Inkson et al., 2012). The boundaryless career sees the future as limitless, thus allowing an individual to set any career goals (Tams & Arthur, 2010). Research has found that, within the ever-changing environment of work, the boundaryless career outlook is important as it increases an individual's chances of achieving career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Inkson et al., 2012).

The boundaryless career outlook is positively related to career wellbeing and career satisfaction as all three constructs are influenced by an individual's ability to adapt to changing environmental circumstances (Kidd, 2008; Ng et al., 2005; Verbruggen, 2012). Individuals with a boundaryless career attitude do not subscribe to the traditional career outlook, which is focused only on progressing within one organisation (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). Instead, individuals with a boundaryless career perspective set their own career milestones and goals and place the emphasis on satisfying their intrinsic career needs (Verbruggen, 2012). In view of the fact that both career wellbeing and career satisfaction are closely related to the setting

of clearly defined career goals and the fulfilment of psychological needs these constructs are closely related to the boundaryless career outlook (Kidd, 2008; Ng et al., 2005; Verbruggen, 2012).

Individuals with a boundaryless career attitude take proactive responsibility for the management of their own careers (Briscoe, Henagan, Burton, & Murphy, 2012). A boundaryless career attitude includes a boundaryless mind-set in terms of which individuals value both psychological mobility and mobility between organisations (Arthur, 1994; Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Briscoe et al., 2012; DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994; Hall, 2002; Leana & Rousseau, 2000; Mirvis & Hall, 1994; Sullivan & Arthur, 2006). A key factor in both career wellbeing and career satisfaction is self-determined, proactive behaviour in respect of career management (Creed & Blume, 2013; Koekemoer, 2014).

An important aspect of the boundaryless career is that individuals are not constrained by the boundaries of organisations and this allows them to seek meaningful work elsewhere (Briscoe et al., 2012). In today's knowledge economy individuals who have transferrable knowledge, skills and abilities are able to move across different organisational boundaries in the pursuit of meaningful work and careers (Inkson, 2008). Both career satisfaction and career wellbeing are dependent on the capacity of individuals to develop and apply their knowledge and skills (Kidd, 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2014). This implies that the constructs are closely related to the boundaryless career outlook.

High levels of the career satisfaction that serves as an indicator of career wellbeing will thus assist individuals to adopt a boundaryless career outlook when they are managing their careers.

#### *2.1.3.2 Protean careers*

Similar to the boundaryless career outlook (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996) the protean career outlook indicates that it is individual career actors, and not organisations, driving career satisfaction (Hall, 1996, 2002, 2013). The protean career outlook postulates that, in the contemporary career, individuals autonomously manage their careers based on their own psychological career needs and they are not constrained by career structures enforced by the organisation (Hall, 2013). The protean career, as popularised by Hall (1976), is built on the concept of psychological satisfaction that drives independent career management practices as opposed to career management practices implemented by the organisation.

Hall (1996) maintains that a protean career allows individuals to greater flexibility, a better perspective on their overall lives and the opportunity to advance their own career management. According to Hall (1996, 2013), protean careers offer three forms of flexibility. Firstly, it provides

a new way of career thinking in terms of which individuals are sufficiently flexible to move between different lines of work (Hall, 1996, 2013) and, secondly, it gives individuals flexibility in terms of career space, thus allowing them to address both work and family issues simultaneously and no longer see them as separate entities (Hall, 1996; 2013). Thirdly, the protean career allows individuals to develop a greater balance between their careers and other aspects of their lives than may otherwise have been the case (Hall, 1996; 2013).

Briscoe et al. (2006) added to of Hall's (1996) conceptualisation of protean careers by indicating that protean careers involve both a values-driven attitude and a self-directed attitude toward individual career management. Individuals with protean career attitudes determined to utilise their own values to guide their careers as opposed to utilising the values of an organisation to guide their careers (Supeli & Creed, 2016).

According to Briscoe et al. (2006), as opposed to individuals who lack a protean career attitude, individuals with a protean career attitude tend to be more proactive and independent in terms of managing their careers and they tend to value freedom and autonomy in terms of making career-related decisions. Briscoe et al. (2006) also maintain that individuals with a protean career attitude tend to value continuous learning, they strive to achieve a high level of self-awareness, they challenge themselves to achieve individual psychological success, they value employability rather than job security and they take personal responsibility for their own career progression.

As in the case of the protean career outlook proactive behaviour, the ability to adapt and be flexible, the satisfaction of individual career values, autonomy, and taking responsibility for career decisions are positively related to career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Creed & Blume, Ng et al., 2005). It may thus be said that when individuals enjoy high levels of career satisfaction and career wellbeing, this will assist them to develop a protean career outlook.

### *2.1.3.3 Global careers*

Inkson et al. (2012) challenge the notion that protean and boundaryless career outlooks encapsulate the true nature of modern careers. Recent research has found careers are now able to move beyond the boundaries of both organisations and national borders (Arthur, 2014; Inkson et al., 2012). Brewster, Bonache, Cerdi, and Suutari (2014) support this notion by stating that the globalisation of international business has resulted in the globalisation of careers and created the opportunity for individuals to build their careers on an international platform. According to Baruch, Dickmann, Altman, and Bournois (2013), global careers are careers that span two or more countries and which may take on a number of forms.

Research provides ample evidence for the large and increasing number of individuals who are choosing careers that move beyond national borders (Inkson, McNulty, & Thorn, 2013). Baruch and Reis (2016) state that individuals from collectivistic cultures, such as the majority of African cultures, may have difficulty in pursuing global careers as individualism is often a driver in the pursuit of global careers.

In the South African work context, the high levels of voluntary turnover and high skill shortage levels (Wöcke & Heymann, 2012) have a negative impact on both national economic development and job creation (Rasool & Botha, 2011). The skills shortages limit South Africa's ability to compete in the global market (Rasool & Botha, 2011). Many talented South African employees are emigrating to countries such as the United Kingdom and Canada (Wöcke & Heymann, 2012) to ensure better career opportunities and job security (DHET, 2014). Being proactive, adaptable, and mobile assists individuals to be employable and to have successful and meaningful careers in today's modern globalised workplace.

In view of the fact that a well-rounded career wellbeing profile facilitates proactive and adaptive behaviour it may also assist individuals to realise global career aspirations (Kidd, 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2014).

#### *2.1.3.4 Entrepreneurial careers*

Rapid changes within the work context have resulted in lower job security and this has led individuals within the contemporary world of work to adopt an entrepreneurial approach to managing their own career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Bae, Qian, Miao, & Fiet, 2014). A key question that has been asked in research is which environmental and individual factors make certain people more successful entrepreneurs than others (Fayolle, & Liñán, 2014). Several researchers have studied the impact of personality (Leutner, Ahmetoglu, Akhtar, & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2014; Zhao, Seibert, & Lumpkin, 2010), social environments (Santos, Roomi, & Liñán, 2016), cross-cultural challenges (Schlaegel, He, & Engle, 2013), education (Shinnar, Hsu, & Powell, 2014), gender (Shinnar et al., 2014) and work environments (Kuratko, Hornsby, & Covin, 2014) on both entrepreneurship ability and intent (Fayolle, & Liñán, 2014).

Liñán and Fayolle (2015) explain that researchers agree that the individual functions of desirability, probability and propensity to take certain proactive actions are key to entrepreneurial intention. Successful entrepreneurial intent is thus highly dependent on careful planning, intrinsic motivation, and adaptive behaviour (Fayolle, Liñán, & Moriano, 2014). Bae et al. (2014) state that entrepreneurial career intentions are influenced primarily by three entrepreneurial-related attitudes. The first such attitude is an individual's desire to become a successful entrepreneur; the second an individual's perceived behavioural control in terms of

planning and acting proactively and, third, the social norm attitude which refers to the way in which individuals perceive themselves within the social environmental context. An overall trend found in the research is that independent, adaptive, and proactive behaviour leads to successful entrepreneurial intention (Fayolle & Liñán, 2014).

When individuals are aspiring to greater satisfaction in their careers this may lead to entrepreneurial activity as career satisfaction is positively related to proactive planning, intrinsic motivation, and adaptive behaviour (Abele & Spurk, 2009a; Ng et al., 2005; Ng & Feldman, 2014). Career wellbeing has been linked to the adaptive behaviour that assists individuals to overcome environmental challenges (Kidd, 2008; Savickas, 2013; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016). Career satisfaction and career wellbeing may thus assist individuals to demonstrate entrepreneurial-related behaviour.

#### *2.1.3.5 Kaleidoscope careers*

Boundaryless, protean, global, and entrepreneurial career outlooks do not necessarily encapsulate all the complexities and changes related to individual career management within the contemporary world of work. Mainiero and Sullivan (2005) use the kaleidoscope as metaphor for careers as they found contemporary careers to be both unique and complex and resembling the rotating patterns formed by a kaleidoscope. The kaleidoscope career perspective attempts to explain that individuals tend to change their career patterns at certain times in both their lives and their careers (Shaw & Leberman, 2015).

In terms of the kaleidoscope career model, individuals seek challenge and authenticity at certain times in their careers and look for balance between their various life roles at other times in their careers (Sullivan, 2013). The model is built on the assumption that individuals are constantly looking to achieve a better fit between their work demands, relationships, values and career aspirations (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005; Sullivan & Mainiero, 2007).

According to the model, as a kaleidoscope creates a clear pattern by making continuous adjustments and changes, so do individuals when they develop individual complex and multifaceted career patterns (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005). Mainiero and Sullivan (2005) define the kaleidoscope career model's parameters as authenticity, balance and challenge. Authenticity refers to individuals asking themselves the question as to whether they are able to be themselves amid all of the changes within the work environment and remain authentic human beings (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005). Balance refers to individuals asking career-related questions such as how certain career decisions would influence the balance between the various aspects of their lives (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005). Finally, challenge is conceptualised

as individuals asking themselves whether they would be sufficiently challenged if they made a certain career decision (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005).

When individuals aspire to achieve career wellbeing, they are constantly assessing their work environments to ensure better alignment between themselves and their work environments (Kidd, 2008; Savickas, 2013; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016). Adaptive behaviour, environmental mastery and learning orientation are also key requirements if individuals are to experience career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Kidd, 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2014). Career wellbeing and career satisfaction may therefore assist individuals to acquire a kaleidoscope career perspective on their careers.

In short, boundaryless, protean, global, entrepreneurial, and kaleidoscope career attitudes encourage the constant personal assessment of individual career wellbeing and career satisfaction as an indicator of career wellbeing (Briscoe et al., 2006; Savickas, 2005, 2013; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Individuals who do not have the above-mentioned career-related attitudes would tend to make use of external standards and values to direct their careers and this would result in their seeking external direction and support in managing their careers (Lyness & Erkovan, 2016). On the other hand, individuals with these career attitudes are typically better prepared for the changes in the modern workplace as they exhibit greater adaptability, mobility, proactive behaviour and a higher learning orientation (Cao, Hirschi, & Deller, 2013).

Change adaptive behaviours such as the proactivity, adaptability, and individuality that stem from these contemporary career attitudes are highly correlated with the behaviours associated with career wellbeing and career satisfaction (Creed & Blume, 2013; Ng & Feldman, 2014). Table 2.2 presents a summary of the differences between the traditional career perspectives and the modern career perspectives.

Table 2.2  
*Differences Between the Traditional and Modern Career Outlooks*

<b>Career variable</b>	<b>Traditional outlook</b>	<b>Modern outlook</b>
Employee/employer relationship (Briscoe et al., 2006; Sullivan, 2013)	Loyalty in return for job security and stability	Development in terms of performance and adaptability
Boundaries (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Baruch, 2004, 2006; Inkson et al., 2012)	Single organisation	Multiple organisations across multiple geographies
Skill development (De Vos & Soens, 2008; Clark, 2010; Sullivan, 2013)	Organisation specific skills	Skills transferrable across organisations
Career success (Kidd, 2008; Ng et al., 2005; Ng & Feldman, 2014)	Salary and promotion	Career satisfaction and career wellbeing



Table 2.2 cont'd

Career variable	Traditional outlook	Modern outlook
Career management responsibility (Arthur, 2014; Briscoe et al., 2006; Hall, 2013; Fayolle, & Liñán, 2014; Savickas, 2013)	Organisation	Individual
Training and development (Sullivan, 2013)	Class-room training	On-the-job training
Career goals and milestones (Savickas, 2005, 2013; Super, 1957, 1990, 1995)	Age-related milestones and goals	Learning related milestones and goals; recurring at different ages
Career environment (Sullivan, 2013)	Stable	Dynamically changing
Career direction (Greenhaus et al., 2010, Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005; Ng & Feldman, 2014; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016)	Linear	Multidirectional
Career hierarchy (Hall, 2013; Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005; Ng & Feldman, 2014)	Vertical ladder	Horizontal

#### 2.1.4 Evaluation and synthesis

In short, this section critically evaluated the existing literature on the concept of careers in the 21st century. The section identified the fact that the term career is going through major evolutionary changes (Sullivan, 2013). It has been found that organisations no longer take responsibility for the career management of their employees but, instead, that individuals managing their own careers typify the modern career (Inkson et al., 2012). In addition, careers are no longer stable, secure nor with the same employer over an individual's lifetime (Sullivan, 2013).

It was highlighted that socioeconomic factors such as globalisation, increased dependence on technology, the need for knowledge workers and changes within workforce demographics have had an impact on the evolution in the way in which careers are being perceived (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016). There appears to be a paucity of research, especially in the South African context, on the way in which career wellbeing may be utilised to overcome socioeconomic challenges within the modern career context.

The section also discussed the various career perspectives that have emerged in the 21st century of work. It was identified that both career satisfaction and career wellbeing are positively correlated with the key outcomes of the modern career outlooks. The boundaryless career outlook, the protean career outlook, the global career outlook, the entrepreneurial career perspective, and the kaleidoscope career perspective are positively related to career satisfaction and career wellbeing as both constructs lead to career adaptation, proactive behaviour and career mobility (Arthur, 2008; Baum & Locke, 2004; Kidd, 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2014; Inkson et al., 2013; Maniero & Sullivan, 2005). There also seems to be a lack of the

research, especially in the South African context, on how the career wellbeing constructs of career satisfaction, psychological career resources, occupational passion, and psychosocial career preoccupations would align with the key outcomes of the contemporary career perspectives.

As already pointed out, in terms of the above-mentioned contemporary career outlooks, individuals are becoming increasingly responsible for the management, sustainability, satisfaction, and wellbeing of their own careers (Arthur, 2014; Savickas, 2013; Sullivan, 2013). In other words, individuals are playing the most important role in the efficient management of their careers (Barnett & Bradley, 2007). The next section discusses the role of the working adult as an autonomous, proactive, and adaptive career agent.

## **2.2 CAREERS OF WORKING ADULTS**

Extensive socioeconomic changes in the contemporary workplace have resulted in an evolution in the way in which contemporary careers are perceived (Arthur, 2014; Coetzee, 2014b; Savickas, 2013; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016; Sullivan, 2013; Tucker, Pleban, & Gunther, 2010). These changes have resulted in the responsibility for individual career management shifting from the organisation to the individual (Briscoe et al., 2006; Sullivan, 2013). This shift in responsibility has caused individuals to develop certain career-related concerns (preoccupations). These career-related preoccupations have resulted in individuals showing greater concern for developing and demonstrating proactive and adaptive behaviour, upskilling themselves and developing and utilising certain psychological career attributes, resources and meta-competencies in order to experience both career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Arthur, 2014; Cao et al., 2013). The shift in responsibility has also resulted in individuals' attitudes toward their own career management and the organisation changing significantly (Barnett & Bradley, 2007; Savickas, 2013). The following section discusses the concerns of modern employees in terms of fitting into their work-related environments, the role of career adaptability in effective career management and individuals as proactive agents in the management of their careers.

### **2.2.1 The career preoccupations of working adults**

The attitudes of individuals toward their careers and the environment in which they construct their careers have undergone substantial changes in the past 20 years as a result of the drastic socioeconomic developments that have taken place in the workplace (Sullivan, 2013). One of the biggest changes in career management has been the fact that the psychological contract between the individual and the organisation has changed in terms of individuals taking responsibility for their own careers instead of the organisation (Sullivan, 2013). This shift in

responsibility has resulted in individuals having to manage their own careers within the turbulent work environment without receiving much support from organisations (Cassar & Buttigieg, 2015). The fact that individuals have to manage their careers in an autonomous manner within the complex work environment has resulted in their having numerous concerns (preoccupations) regarding their careers (Savickas, 2013).

One of the most predominant preoccupations of working adults is that of being employable (Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006). In addition, a lack of job security, income and stability are major concerns for working adults (Coetzee, 2015). With the unemployment rates at 26.7% in South Africa (Department of Statistics, 2016), it has become critical for individuals to possess key attributes in order to be employable and to keep their jobs.

Employability is conceptualised as the individual's ability to obtain and keep a job within an organisational context and is a critical concern for working adults within the contemporary workplace (Hogan et al., 2013). According to Baruch and Bozionelos (2011), there is a worldwide tendency for employers to hire individuals based on their cognitive ability, conscientiousness and relationship-building capabilities. It has been found that unemployment and a lack of job security have a negative impact on career wellbeing (Dawson, Veliziotis, & Hopkins, 2014). In addition, research has proved that individuals who are more employable also experience greater career satisfaction (Hogan et al., 2013).

Modern employees are also very preoccupied with developing the key skills, knowledge and attributes that would assist them in the maintenance, development and management of their careers (Savickas, 2005). The opportunities that individuals have to develop themselves within the organisation and their commitment to the organisation are reciprocal (Arya & Manikandan, 2013). The opportunity that individuals have to learn and develop within a specific organisation will influence their career decisions, career satisfaction, commitment toward the organisation and career wellbeing over the long term (Arya & Manikandan, 2013; Kidd, 2008; Ng et al., 2005). Individuals' ability to learn and develop also influences their employability in the modern workplace (Hogan et al., 2013).

Individuals who are building their careers within the modern workplace are extremely concerned with achieving greater work–life balance (Hall, 2013). Research shows that individuals' concerns with striking a balance between their work and family lives is essential if they are to feel satisfied with their career choice and choice of employer (Shanafelt et al., 2014). Working adults also have concerns about slowing down and moving into retirement (Shanafelt et al., 2014). Consequently, those who can strike a balance between work and family life roles will have greater levels of career wellbeing (Hartung & Taber, 2008).

Another typical preoccupation of working adults is adapting to and coping with the work pressures of fitting into both a team and the organisation, building the professional networks and relationships that facilitate career growth and working within a positive work environment (Savickas, 2005, 2013). The relationships that individuals have with their managers, co-workers and the broader network may facilitate career growth, career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Coetzee, 2015; Kidd, 2008; Savickas, 2005, 2011, 2013; Sullivan, 2013).

These preoccupations are related to the individual's psychological (career self-concept) and social (career-social circumstance/roles interface) aspects of career management and have a notable impact on the individual–environment fit (Savickas, 2013). Coetzee (2015) maintains that these preoccupations are constantly in the minds of individuals and result in life-career-related themes with these themes having an impact on the career-life stories of individuals at a certain point in time (Coetzee, 2015). In essence, individuals are constantly concerned about achieving the maximum environmental fit, levels of employability, growth and satisfaction (Coetzee, 2014b; Savickas, 2005, 2013).

Psychosocial career preoccupations (concerns) prepare individuals to develop the adaptive and proactive behaviour which will enable them to overcome environmental complexities (Coetzee, 2014b, 2015, 2016a, b).

### **2.2.2 Career adaptability**

As contemporary career models view career development as an ongoing process of refinement between the individual and the environment, it is important that individuals engage in the psychological growth activities of adaptability (Arthur, 2014; Coetzee, 2015; Savickas, 2005, 2013). Due to the substantial socioeconomic changes within the world of work, individuals need to be increasingly aware, flexible and adaptive in the way in which they structure their careers in order to ensure career wellbeing (Creed et al., 2009; Savickas, 2013). Savickas (2013) conceptualises the modern career as a sequence of adaptations which takes place during an individual's working life. Thus, an individual's career is in constant motion with the changes within the environment (Hamtaux et al., 2013).

Savickas (2005, 2013) maintains that career management is driven by ongoing adaptation to the work environment with the purpose of achieving a person-environment fit. When an individual is able to adapt to the work environment they will draw on certain psychological resources to display the adaptive behaviour that should lead to coping with environmental changes (Hobfoll et al., 2015; Savickas, 2013). Good person-environment fit is associated with both career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Lent, 2013; Kidd, 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2014; Savickas, 2013; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012).

The ability to be adaptable develops as a result of individuals' concerns about fitting into their environments (Coetzee, 2014b, 2015). During the individual-environment adaptation and intra-personal growth processes, individuals are inclined to become preoccupied with certain issues pertaining to the psychosocial facets of their careers (Savickas, 2005, 2013; Sharf, 2010). In view of the fact that the careers of individuals are constructed within a socio-cultural context at a certain point in their lives, they face concerns about how environmental changes and challenges will affect their careers in the long term (Savickas, 2013). Individuals who can adapt to the needs of the environment are more able to satisfy their preoccupations (Coetzee, 2014b).

It is essential that individuals demonstrate the predisposition to adaptability (possess the inherent capability to adapt) and be involved in the active process of changing (adapting) if they are to balance their interactions with their environments (Maggiori, Johnston, Krings, Massoudi, & Rossier, 2013). Savickas and Porfeli (2012) maintain that when individuals are adaptable they are able to take a long-term view of their careers, seek different career avenues or options, take conscious action and possess the self-efficacy to participate in activities that will assist them to achieve their career goals. Afioni and Karam (2014) indicate that individuals' perceptions of career satisfaction and career wellbeing are dependent on the way in which they adapt to and interact in the environment within which they construct their careers. Research by Zacher (2014) also shows a positive association between adaptability and career satisfaction.

Career adaptability may be conceptualised as a psychosocial construct that reflects the ability of individuals to manage their careers in a positive manner in spite of environmental challenges (Rudolph, Lavigne, & Zacher, 2017; Savickas, 2013). Career adaptability resources may change depending on the career stage, situation, or challenge with which an individual is confronted (Savickas, 1997; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012).

Several South African studies have analysed the construct of adaptability within the career context and found that career adaptability has a positive impact on person-environment fit, as the concept of career adaptability is related to several psychological career constructs. Career adaptability has been studied in relation to hardiness (Coetzee & Harry, 2015); emotional intelligence (Coetzee & Harry, 2015); employability (Coetzee, Ferreira, & Potgieter, 2015); sense of coherence and burnout (Harry & Coetzee, 2013); resilience (Maree, 2016b); time off work (Rabie & Naidoo, 2016) and employee engagement (Tladinyane & Van der Merwe, 2016) within the South African context.

Savickas and Porfeli (2012) describe four dimensions of career adaptability. The first dimension is termed 'career adapt-abilities' and has to do with the degree to which individuals may prepare for upcoming career tasks and challenges and are future orientated regarding their careers (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). When individuals are proactive in the management of their careers they are likely to experience both career satisfaction and career wellbeing as they have a clear understanding of the psychological needs that they need to satisfy within their careers (Kidd, 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2014).

Savickas and Porfeli (2012) describe the second dimension of adaptability as 'control'. This dimension refers to individuals' capability to take responsibility for their own careers and to influence their tasks, work environment and development by showing self-discipline and perseverance (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Autonomy has been associated with higher levels of career wellbeing and career satisfaction because, when individuals take control of their own careers, they feel that they are able to manage their careers in accordance with their specific needs (Abele & Spurk, 2009a; Kidd, 2008).

Savickas and Porfeli (2012) describe the third dimension of adaptability as 'curiosity', which involves individual preferences in exploring potential future selves and career prospects in terms of how working individuals would influence current and future roles and work environments (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Abele and Spurk (2009b) indicate that self-efficacy in the exploration of career options and the understanding of intrinsic career needs should result in career satisfaction.

The fourth dimension of adaptability is termed 'confidence' and describes individuals' convictions that they are able to transform their career goals and dreams into reality, overcome challenges and devise solutions to career-related problems (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Studies show that goal-oriented behaviour is associated with both career wellbeing and career satisfaction because, when individuals have clear career goals, this helps them to overcome environmental challenges (Kidd, 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2014).

Figure 2.1 presents a summary of Savickas and Porfeli's (2012) four dimensions of career adaptability.

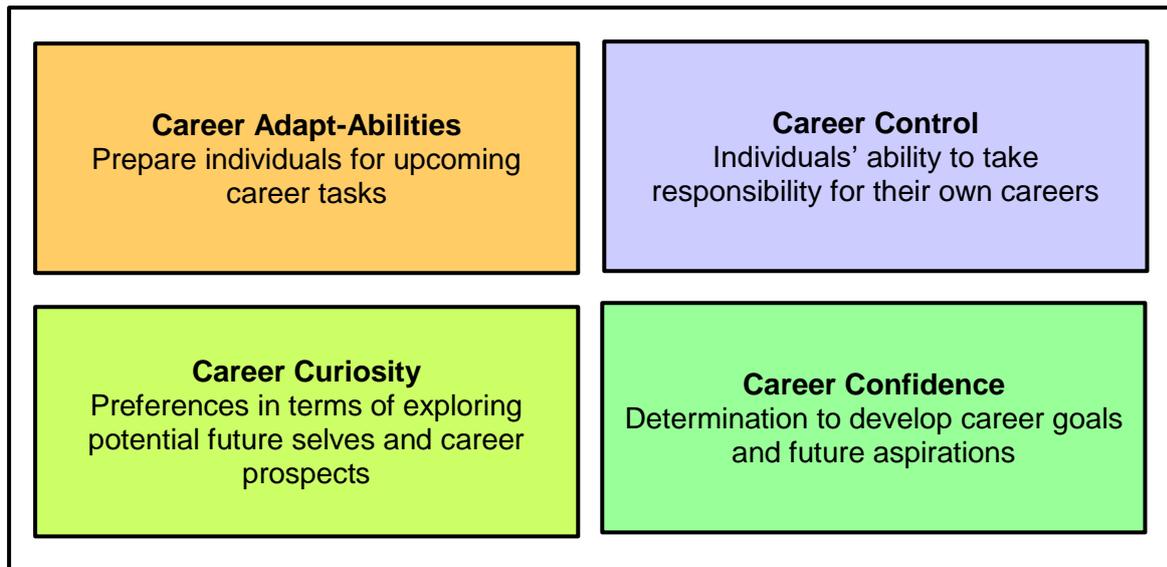


Figure 2.1: Four dimensions of career adaptability (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012, p. 665)

Individuals who are adaptable are willing and able to change their behaviour and attitude in order to meet the demands of the changing work environment (Savickas, 2013). Researchers have highlighted the significance of adaptability for individuals' employability, career development, career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Benson, Morgan, & Filippaios, 2014; Kidd, 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2014). Research shows that individuals who are concerned about developing their professional skills and employability manifest higher levels of career satisfaction (Abele & Spurk, 2009a; Ng et al., 2005). Individuals who are able to adapt and who understand the need to change their behaviour will respond better to the challenges within their environments and this will lead to career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Benson et al., 2014; Kidd, 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2014).

When individuals utilise the indicators/psychosocial resources of career wellbeing (i.e. career satisfaction, occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations), these indicators act as psychological career meta-competencies in terms of assisting individuals to show adaptive behaviour (Coetzee, 2008, 2014b; Vallerand, 2015). Individuals may draw from these meta-competencies in order to be flexible in terms of managing their careers and their environments. A well-rounded psychosocial career wellbeing profile may assist individuals to show adaptive behaviour in the face of environmental challenges (Kidd, 2008).

The construct of career adaptability is highly correlated with career wellbeing as individuals who are able to adapt can overcome the challenges within their environments and this will lead to a positive evaluation of their own careers and employability (Kidd, 2008). Individuals who possess the career wellbeing related-resources are more able to adapt to the needs of the contemporary career environment (Hobfoll et al., 2015; Kidd, 2008).

Generally, individuals who adapt successfully to their career environments are proactive in terms of anticipating the changes within the work environment and adopt an action orientation approach to succeeding within their work and careers (Savickas, 2013). This action orientation drives the development of new skills and knowledge, which assist individuals to adapt to their work environments and this subsequently helps them to achieve career satisfaction (Benson et al., 2014; Savickas, 2013).

The next subsection discusses individuals as career agents in utilising adaptive and proactive behaviour to ensure greater environmental fit that will lead to career satisfaction and career wellbeing.

### **2.2.3 Working adults as proactive career agents**

As indicated earlier, the boundaryless, protean, global, entrepreneurial and kaleidoscope career outlooks reflect new approaches to careers in terms of which the psychological contract between the individual and the employer is no longer characterised by lifetime employment and hierarchical career progression (Arthur, 2014; Hall, 2002; Inkson et al., 2012; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016; Sullivan, 2013). According to the above-mentioned career outlooks, individuals need to participate in a variety of proactive self-management activities in order to develop the options that will facilitate the realisation of their career goals and enhance their employability, career satisfaction and career wellbeing (De Vos & Soens, 2008; Kidd, 2008; Ng et al., 2005)

The key characteristics of the above-mentioned career outlooks are that individuals take on the primary responsibility for managing their careers and also that a strong sense of identity, values and self-regulation are essential in the making of career decisions (Briscoe et al., 2012). Research has found that individuals who adopt the above-mentioned contemporary career attitudes report higher levels of employability and career satisfaction, and that this relationship between employability and career satisfaction is mediated by the career insights of such individuals (De Vos & Soens, 2008).

Individuals' attitudes toward their careers and positions within the organisation are influenced by the organisation itself (Briscoe et al., 2012). Individuals who are proactive career agents take responsibility for their own careers instead of allowing their employers to manage their careers on their behalf (Sullivan, 2013). With the modern work environment becoming more complex, it is vital that individuals become the proactive agents of their own career management, with this requiring individuals to take the initiative themselves (Seibert et al., 2013). Self-regulation theory explains career agency in terms of the self-regulated proactive

behaviour of individuals within their career environments in order to have satisfactory careers (Raabe, Frese, & Beehr, 2007).

Self-regulation theory focuses on the self-regulated, proactive activities that individuals implement so as to achieve greater control over their careers (Raabe et al., 2007). This theory postulates that control refers to the fact that individuals direct their own career-related activities in alignment with their career-related goals (Merino-Tejedor et al., 2016; Raabe et al., 2007). According to self-regulation theory, individuals' interaction with their career environments (e.g. the organisation) assists them to direct their goal-orientated activities within changing circumstances and across time (Vohs & Baumeister, 2004), with their career-related goals, strategies and feedback playing a role in the regulation of career-related actions (Raabe et al., 2007).

Individuals' career-related actions include an analysis of the environment, followed by the development of career-related goals based on the information gathered during the analysis (Raabe et al., 2007). This information assists individuals to formulate the career-directed strategies that enable them to manipulate their environments in their favour (Raabe et al., 2007). The implementation of these career strategies results in feedback on the individual's career-related actions (Raabe et al., 2007). These proactive, self-regulated activities assist individuals in overcoming the challenges of their environments, thus resulting in both career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Kidd, 2008; Ng et al., 2005). Raabe et al. (2007) proposed two models that apply action theory to career self-management. These models are grounded in the perspective that self-management, which takes place through self-knowledge and commitment to goals, will affect the quality of the career strategy adopted (see Figure 2.2 below).

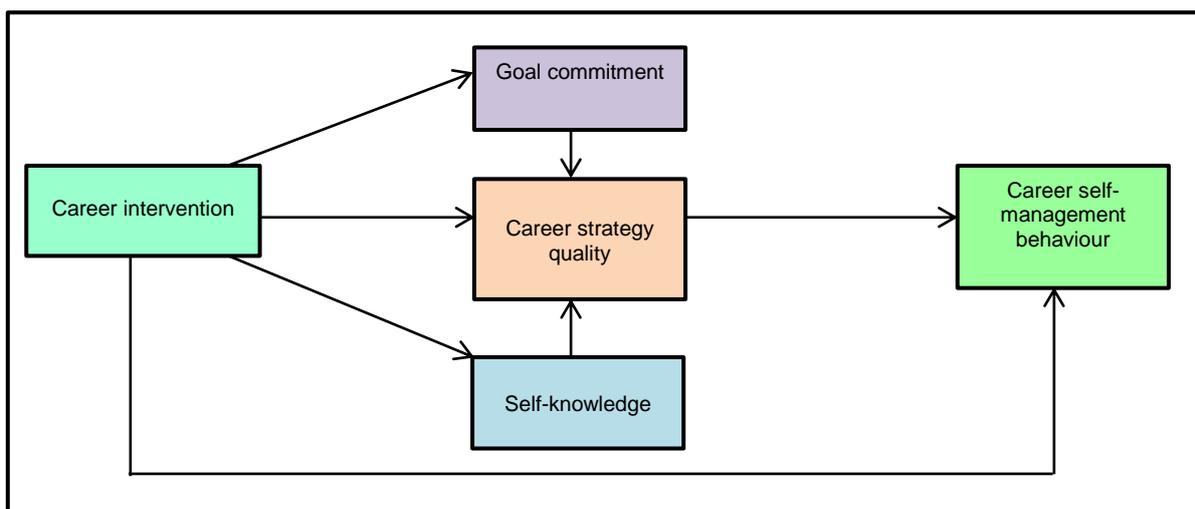


Figure 2.2: First career self-management model (Raabe et al., 2007, p. 299)

According to Raabe et al.'s (2007) second proposed model, the active implementation of career self-management will influence career satisfaction through the feedback that individuals receive from their environments (see Figure 2.3). Feedback as referred to in the model relates to the stimuli that individuals receive from their environments based on their actions (Raabe et al., 2007). This feedback may either be based on the proprioceptive feedback that individuals receive from the environment (for example, a smile from a co-worker), feedback from the objective environment (for example, a promotion) or via feedback intervention (for example, when others provide feedback to individuals in order to facilitate career growth) (Raabe et al., 2007).

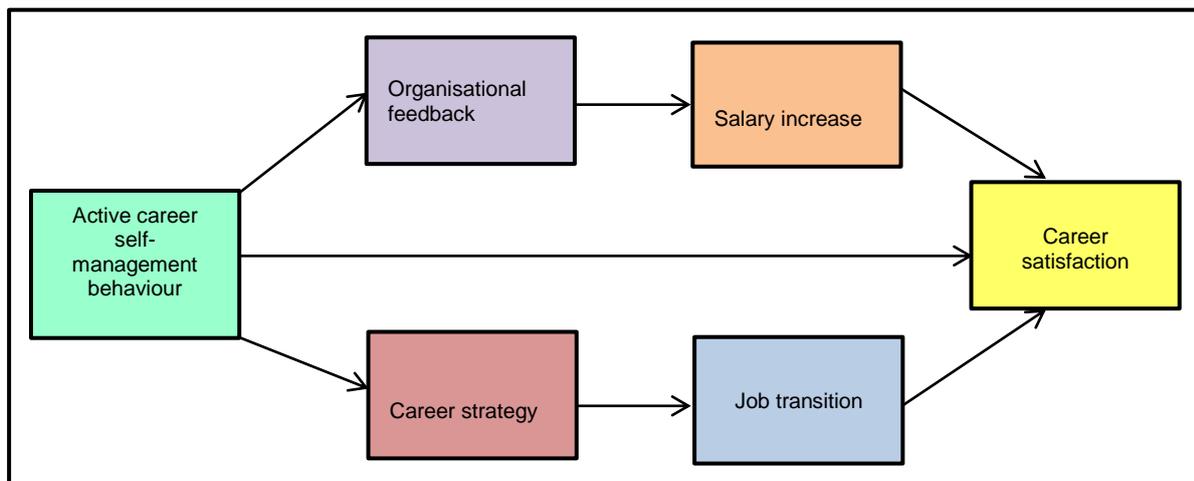


Figure 2.3: Second career self-management model (Raabe et al., 2007, p. 299)

As illustrated in Figures 2.2 and 2.3, career action theory consists of three variables, namely, commitment to goals, self-knowledge and the quality of the career strategy. These three variables all have a positive influence on both career agency and career self-management behaviour (Merino-Tejedor et al., 2016; Raabe et al., 2007). Individuals who understand their own strengths and development needs (self-knowledge) will formulate better quality career strategies (Raabe et al., 2007). The action theory indicates that the commitment to career goals is essential as goals are transformed into action only when individuals are committed to their career strategies (Raabe et al., 2007). The quality of the career strategy will be improved by the commitment to goals and self-knowledge that will result in career self-management behaviour (Raabe et al., 2007). The relationship between the career intervention that takes place and the quality of the strategy is mediated by the commitment to goals and self-knowledge (Raabe et al., 2007). Action theory states that career goals are transformed into strategies which are implemented and which result in goal-orientated behaviour (Raabe et al., 2007). However, effective career strategies require certain qualities, steps and contingency plans (Frese & Zapf, 1994).

When individuals achieve their goals, positive feedback is usually received from the environment and this results in career satisfaction (Raabe et al., 2007). Individuals who are active in their career self-management behaviours have greater control over their careers and this results in higher levels of career satisfaction (Raabe et al., 2007). Self-management is related to autonomy, control and involvement, which is positively related to career satisfaction (Raabe et al., 2007).

The impact of career self-management behaviour on career satisfaction is dependent on the way in which the career strategy is implemented by the individual (Raabe et al., 2007). When individuals adopt a proactive approach to the management of their careers they will constantly seek jobs that meet their career needs (Raabe et al., 2007). In addition, proactive individuals who apply self-management will seek out interventions that should assist them in realising of their career goals (Raabe et al., 2007). The sooner individuals find jobs that meet their career needs and offer them responsibilities that align to their self-concepts, the more satisfied they will be with their careers (Raabe et al., 2007). Individuals who are proactive in their self-management are also likely to obtain positive feedback from the organisation in terms of promotion and salary (Abele & Spurk, 2009a). It has been found that self-efficiency has a positive impact on career satisfaction (Abele & Spurk, 2009a). Raabe et al. (2007) found that career self-management has a strong correlation with career satisfaction, as such individuals feel in control of their own careers. Individuals who feel in control of their careers are more able to deal with the changes and challenges within the career environment, thus resulting in career satisfaction (Raabe et al., 2007).

Individuals who are aware of their career development needs would typically draw from their intrinsic motivation to seek interventions to meet these development needs (Raabe et al., 2007). Intrinsic motivation is a construct that has an impact on career satisfaction (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011). Intrinsic motivation assists individuals to become self-managing (Raabe et al., 2007). Schein's (2006) research on career anchors found that career motivation is dependent on the individual's comprehension of their own career abilities, psychological needs and values. According to Schein (2006), this understanding will have an impact on the career satisfaction that individuals experience. Individuals who are self-motivated in relation to focusing on their development possess the capacity to build a range of psychological meta-competencies from which they may then draw in order to overcome environmental challenges and ensure that they become more employable than would otherwise have been the case (Coetzee, 2008).

Traditionally, organisations took on the primary responsibility for the career management of individuals (Sullivan, 2013). However, in the contemporary work environment this responsibility

has shifted to the individual and entails the development of the skills, knowledge and career meta-competencies required to ensure employability (Sullivan, 2013). Individuals are thus responsible for their own career outcomes and are not dependent on the organisation to manage their careers (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016). This shift in responsibility has resulted in individuals no longer thinking of themselves as being employed, but rather as the self-employed managers of their own careers (Clarke, 2008).

Organisations should encourage individuals to accept career management activities and the active self-management of their careers instead of being dependent on the organisation to do this on their behalf (Savickas, 2013). Career self-management includes the proactive initiatives that individuals undertake to enrich their careers, for example training and development, coaching, mentoring and career counselling (Clarke, 2008). However, individuals need to have an understanding of their own career-related strengths and development needs (Afioni & Karam, 2014). Career management activities incorporate the self-management of individuals and assist them to overcome their weaknesses and leverage their strengths within the complex work environment (Seibert et al., 2013). When individuals participate in career self-management activities they develop a sense of greater control over their careers and this increases their career satisfaction and employability (Clarke, 2008; Seibert et al., 2013).

The modern career is characterised by individuals who need to be independent, adaptive and proactive agents of their careers and who take part in self-management activities that enable them not to be dependent on the organisation to manage their careers on their behalf (Savickas, 2013; Sullivan, 2013). Career self-management includes both those activities that assist individuals to make accurate self-evaluations of their own abilities and talents within the context in which they find themselves and the actions that individuals take to realise their career goals (Seibert et al., 2013). Examples of these career actions may include building a network, taking responsibility for more work and creating career opportunities (Savickas, 2013).

This study viewed individuals' career wellbeing and the indicators/psychosocial resources of career wellbeing, namely, career satisfaction, occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations, as career meta-competencies that comprise an important part of the career self-management behaviour of individuals. The indicators/psychosocial resources of career wellbeing are self-determined and may enhance the proactive self-management career activities of individuals. In addition, a well-rounded career wellbeing profile may assist individuals to display the proactive self-management behaviour that will help them to overcome the career-related challenges they encounter within their work environments.

#### **2.2.4 Evaluation and synthesis**

To summarise, this section discussed the career concerns of working adults, career adaptability, and the working adult as a proactive career agent. It was indicated that individuals experience certain career-related concerns (preoccupations) that assist individuals to show adaptive and proactive behaviour.

The section highlighted the importance of individuals' ability to show proactive and adaptive behaviour in order to cope with the challenges they may encounter in the environment in which they construct their careers (Savickas, 2013). The indicators/psychosocial resources of career wellbeing (career satisfaction, occupational passion, psychological career resources, and psychosocial career preoccupations) may serve as career meta-competencies or psychological resources that assist individuals to develop an understanding of their career needs, show proactive and adaptive behaviour, develop career consciousness and overcome career challenges.

It was found that the modern working adult needs to be highly adaptable and proactive in order to manage and fulfil career-related preoccupations (Savickas, 2013). There appears to be a lack of research in the South African context linking career adaptability and proactive behaviour to career wellbeing although this has been studied outside South Africa and in relation to other constructs (Savickas, 2013). In addition, there seems to be a gap in South African research regarding the relationship between the indicators/psychological resources of career wellbeing and the proactive and adaptive behaviour that individuals need to demonstrate in order to overcome environmental challenges.

The next section discusses career wellbeing within the framework of individuals needing to show proactive and adaptive behaviour in order to satisfy certain career-related needs and preoccupations.

### **2.3 CAREER WELLBEING**

Drastic socioeconomic changes within the work environment have resulted in several changes in terms of the way in which careers are perceived and constructed (Arthur, 2014; Inkson et al., 2012; Savickas, 2013; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016; Sullivan, 2013). Individuals have to show adaptive and proactive behaviour in order both to manage their careers successfully within the turbulent work environment and to satisfy certain psychological needs in the management of their careers (Tams & Arthur, 2010). When individuals deem the management of their careers as successful and satisfactory over time it is seen as career wellbeing (Kidd, 2008).

In the uncertain global economy, organisations need individuals working for them who are well so as to ensure productivity, growth and profitability (Rothmann, 2014; Seligman, 2011; Van Zyl & Rothmann, 2012). If individuals are to flourish, succeed, feel satisfied and adapt successfully to the changing work context they need to develop career-related psychological resources, dispositions and psychosocial meta-competencies (Anderzén, Lindberg, Karlsson, Strömberg, & Gustafsson, 2015; Coetzee, 2008). This section conceptualises the construct of career wellbeing and discusses both the theoretical framework for career wellbeing that was used in the study and the individual factors that influence career wellbeing.

### **2.3.1 Conceptualisation of career wellbeing**

Career wellbeing is a form of wellbeing that is related to the subjective judgements that individuals make about their career satisfaction (Kidd, 2008). Wellbeing may be described as a general term relating to the condition of an individual within a specific life sphere (Ryff & Singer, 2013). Wellbeing may also refer to various, interrelated dimensions of cognitive, social, physical and emotional wellbeing that extend beyond the classification of health (Ryff, 2013). Wellbeing may be either objective or subjective (Diener, 2013), although career wellbeing is interpreted in a subjective way (Kidd, 2008).

Objective wellbeing refers to the perceptions and evaluations of others that are related to an individual's wellbeing within a specific life sphere (Ryff, 2013). Objective wellbeing may be measured via individual actions, memories, attention, attitude, biology, and verbal and non-verbal expressions (Diener, & Ryan, 2009). Although measures of objective wellbeing have been found to show a high correlation with measures of subjective wellbeing (Diener, & Ryan, 2009), researchers prefer to focus on measures of subjective wellbeing as they provide a more comprehensive account of wellbeing and life satisfaction (Seligman, 2011).

Subjective wellbeing (sometimes referred to as happiness) relates to an individual's own perceptions and evaluations of their wellbeing within a specific life sphere (Abele-Brehm, 2014). Individuals' subjective wellbeing may be conceptualised as the intrinsic feelings of contentment, happiness and satisfaction experienced in both life and in work (Demo & Paschoal, 2013; Diener, 2013). Subjective wellbeing thus has to do with the various evaluations, positive and negative, that individuals make of their lives and the emotional reactions of individuals toward their experiences (Diener, 2013). According to research on subjective wellbeing, individuals respond differently to the same circumstances and they assess situations based on their individual expectations, standards and experiences (Anderzén et al., 2015).

Subjective wellbeing is a construct that comprises two dimensions, namely, the cognitive judgement of individuals' satisfaction with their lives and the affective behaviour that individuals show when interacting with their environments (Hartung & Taber, 2008). Thus, subjective wellbeing has to do with the subjective conclusions that individuals reach in relation to the value of their own lives, their assessment of their own existence and an evaluation of the frequency of positive and negative feelings and emotions over time (Huta & Waterman, 2014).

When individuals make an assessment of their interaction with others, their environments and society, their cognitive wellbeing is developed (Hofmann, Luhmann, Fisher, Vohs, & Baumeister, 2014). Individuals tend to assess their wellbeing in comparison to others and based on their social standing or their position within an organisation (Hofmann et al., 2014). Concepts such as goals and needs, satisfaction and disappointment and happiness are the result of individuals' assessments of their cognitive wellbeing (Daukantaitė, Hefferon, & Sikström, 2015). Thus, cognitive wellbeing refers to individuals' level of satisfaction with life as a whole and with specific domains in life such as work, career, leisure, finance, relationships and health. In other words, individuals are as well as they perceive themselves to be (Diener, 2013).

Another aspect of subjective wellbeing is affective wellbeing (Diener, 2013). Individuals' emotions, feelings and behaviour that result from an evaluation of their lives may be considered together as affective wellbeing (Daukantaitė et al., 2015). High negative affect is characterised by emotions, feelings and behaviour such as anxiety and hostility, while high positive affect is characterised by emotions, feelings and behaviour such as enthusiasm, optimism, happiness, and positive arousal (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2014). Affective wellbeing is seen as a dynamic process that provides individuals with an estimation of the progress they are making in their lives in relation to their activities, psychological resources and environments (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2014).

Studies on the determinants of subjective wellbeing indicate that half of the construct's variance may be explained by genetic and personality factors while the other half is due to the living environments and intentional actions of individuals (Lyubomirsky, Sheldon, & Schkade, 2005). Headey (2010) states that genetic and personality factors define a specific "set point", in other words, a reasonably stable, subjective level of subjective wellbeing. This level of subjective wellbeing changes in response to life events although it reverts to the set point after some time (Headey, 2010). The extent of stability of the set point differs depending on the component of subjective wellbeing being taken into account (Headey, 2010). For example, the set point of positive affect is less stable than the set point of negative affect (Headey, 2010).

Cultural values, norms, politics, education, physical health and income have been found to constitute some of the most important environmental factors influencing individual, subjective wellbeing (Diener, 2013). Key life events such as unemployment, marriage, trauma or career alterations have an impact on subjective wellbeing (Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2008). It has been found that, when individuals take part in proactive behaviour, this contributes up to 40% of the variability in subjective wellbeing (Lyubomirsky & Layous, 2013). Such proactive behaviour focuses on a sense of fulfilment and engagement and making a positive contribution to society (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011).

The key practical outcome of studies that have focused on subjective wellbeing has been the enhancement of individuals' lives to ensure the optimum removal of unhappiness (Diener, 2013). In view of the fact that subjective wellbeing is a significant aspect of individual quality of life, the measurement of subjective wellbeing is important to understand how the lives of individuals may be improved (Abele-Brehm, 2014). More studies are focusing on the impact of subjective wellbeing on the improved functioning of societies beyond the benefits that subjective wellbeing hold for individuals (Abele-Brehm, 2014).

Although early research focused on the sources of subjective wellbeing (Cantril, 1965; Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985; Pavot & Diener, 1993; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen 1988), recent studies have started to focus on the outcomes of subjective wellbeing (Diener, 2013; Diener & Biswas Diener, 2008; Layard, Clark, Cornaglia, Powdthavee, & Vernoit, 2014; Nelson, Fuller, Choi, & Lyubomirsky, 2014; Twenge, Sherman, & Lyubomirsky, 2016).

South African research on subjective wellbeing has tended to focus primarily on the sources of subjective wellbeing (Mokgele, & Rothmann, 2014). In South Africa, higher levels of wellbeing have been reported in the more rural areas of South Africa (Botha & Booyesen, 2014), while stable family environments have been found to be a predictor of subjective wellbeing (Botha & Booyesen, 2014). Research shows that, in South Africa, married individuals report higher levels of subjective wellbeing than non-married individuals (Posel & Casale, 2015). Physical wellbeing has been found not to be a predictor of subjective wellbeing (Blaauw & Pretorius, 2013).

In South Africa men report higher levels in certain areas of wellbeing (e.g. physical self-concept, positive, automatic thoughts, constructive thinking, cognitive flexibility, total self-concept, and fortitude), whilst women, on the other hand, score higher on other sources of subjective wellbeing (e.g. the expression of affect, somatic symptoms, and religious wellbeing) (Roothman, Kirsten, & Wissing, 2003). In addition, in the South African context, income has

been shown to be a predictor of subjective wellbeing (Kingdom & Knight, 2006; Lloyd & Leibbrandt, 2014).

However, the literature cautions that, although the evidence suggests that high subjective wellbeing improves the functioning of individuals on both a personal and a societal level, this does not necessarily mean that individuals need to be euphorically happy all the time in order to be well in their lives (Diener & Ryan, 2009). It has been found that the experience of high subjective wellbeing too often in one life domain may have a negative impact on other life domains (Diener, 2013). For example, when individuals are continuously striving for higher levels of subjective wellbeing they may be prone to indulge in potentially harmful behaviours such as work-related obsessions. Therefore, while it is important to acknowledge the benefits of high subjective wellbeing for individuals and societies, the achievement of constant euphoria is not a desired objective (Diener & Ryan, 2009). Nevertheless, there is a growing body of research indicating that high levels of subjective wellbeing have a positive impact on four life spheres, namely, relationships with others, societal benefits, longevity and careers (Diener, 2013; Diener, Oishi, & Lucas, 2015).

While studies have shown that high levels of subjective wellbeing are positively associated with high levels of sociability, research also indicates that the causal arrow between the two constructs may fluctuate in both ways (Diener & Biswas Diener, 2008). Studies show that individuals with multiple relationships with friends, family and colleagues tend to develop higher levels of subjective wellbeing (Diener & Biswas Diener, 2008). However, individuals with initial higher subjective wellbeing typically have more positive, intimate and supportive social relationships than those who develop subjective wellbeing over time (Diener & Biswas Diener, 2008). Regarding the social relationships that individuals develop, it is clear that positive human interaction has a positive impact on high subjective wellbeing (Siedlecki, Salthouse, Oishi, & Jeswani, 2014). Social bonds may intensify or help individuals to develop subjective wellbeing. The other side of the causal arrow demonstrates that individuals with high subjective wellbeing tend to exhibit higher levels of leadership capability, sociability, self-confidence and warmth, which allow them to develop their own social support networks (Li, Ma, Guo, Xu, Yu, & Zhou, 2014; Siedlecki et al., 2014).

Subjective wellbeing is not only positively related to interpersonal relationships but also has a positive impact on society as a whole (Tov & Diener, 2008). There is a misconception that individuals who strive for subjective wellbeing or happiness are selfish and reckless and engage in activities solely for their own gain (Diener et al., 2015). In fact, research shows that the opposite is true as, compared to individuals with low subjective wellbeing, individuals who strive for high subjective wellbeing engage more often in selfless, pro-societal undertakings

such as volunteering and community development projects (Diener et al., 2015; Tov & Diener, 2008). It has also been found that individuals who report high subjective wellbeing tend to spend more hours on volunteering and community development projects (Diener & Ryan, 2009; Tov & Diener, 2008).

Studies show that individuals who experience higher levels of subjective wellbeing tend to be more accommodating towards others, more trusting of others, demonstrate higher tolerance for different cultural and racial groups and show more confidence in democracy (Diener, & Ryan, 2009; Tov & Diener, 2008). Cohesive high levels of subjective wellbeing may thus result in more productive, stable and effective societies (Diener et al., 2015). Both the work environment and subjective career experiences may have an impact on the subjective wellbeing of individuals as individuals spend a large proportion of their lives at work (Chen, & Haller, 2015). In view of the fact that work and career play such an important role in people's lives, career wellbeing has been found to be a major predictor of general wellbeing in individuals (Diener, 2013).

Career wellbeing stems from subjective wellbeing (Diener, 2013; Kidd, 2008; Ryff & Singer, 2013). The concept of career wellbeing is used to determine individuals' subjective emotions in relation to their career experiences (Anderzén et al., 2015; Creed & Blume, 2013). Career wellbeing is influenced by individuals' cognitive, spiritual, physical and social experiences within the work environment (Clark, 2010; Kidd, 2008). The level of career wellbeing that individuals experience can be described on a scale from flourishing to languishing (Rothmann, 2014). Individuals who are flourishing are satisfied with their careers and the progress that they are making within their careers, while the opposite would be true for individuals who are languishing (Rautenbach, 2015; Rothmann, 2014). Because career wellbeing is typified by outcomes such as positive emotions, achievements, relationships and meaning, it is perceived as a positive psychological state (Kidd, 2008; Rothmann, 2014; Schotanus-Dijkstra et al., 2016).

Career wellbeing is conceptualised by Kidd (2008) as a continuous assessment of an individual's career experiences over a period of time and indicates the degree of satisfaction experienced by the individual with their career. Kidd (2008) states that, when individuals are dissatisfied with aspects of their career wellbeing, this may result in individuals demonstrating proactive and adaptive behaviour in order to rectify the area of dissatisfaction. In addition, Kidd (2008) maintains that career wellbeing may be differentiated from work wellbeing due to the time element involved. In other words, career wellbeing emphasises an individual's wellbeing over time whilst work wellbeing focuses on an individual's wellbeing at a specific point in time. This study used Kidd's (2008) conceptualisation of career wellbeing due to the fact that career

wellbeing is self-determined, associated with adaptive behaviour, subjective, set within a specific psychosocial framework and aligned to the key outcomes of the humanistic paradigm, existential psychology, positive psychology, and the cognitive-behaviouristic paradigm.

In line with previous research into subjective wellbeing (e.g. Ryff, 1989), Kidd (2008) found a number of components that make up the construct of career wellbeing. Kidd (2008) postulates that there are six components that make up career wellbeing, namely, purpose and meaning, positive relationships with others, autonomy, employment, environmental mastery and professional growth (learning and development).

The first component that Kidd (2008) identified was labelled career purpose and meaning and referred to individuals making the decision to transition into occupations, organisations or positions that provide them with new challenges and opportunities (Kidd 2008). Increased purpose and meaning have been found to be psychologically beneficial as they provide individuals with the psychological freedom to move between occupations, organisations and/or positions (Scott & Zeidenberg, 2016). Career mobility has been positively associated with career satisfaction (Olson & Shultz, 2013). Individuals who are able to transition across organisational and societal boundaries in the pursuit of career purpose and meaning are more likely to be adaptable and be satisfied with their careers (Wang, 2013).

Kidd's (2008) second proposed component of career wellbeing involves positive relationships with others. This dimension is in alignment with the research on psychological wellbeing at work and according to which both psychosocial and instrumental support have a positive impact on wellbeing (Li et al., 2014). Kidd (2008) found that career wellbeing is negatively affected when individuals experienced stressful relationships within the work environment. Research by Ng and Feldman (2014) found a significant, positive relationship between positive social relationships and feelings of connectedness, and career satisfaction.

According to Kidd (2008), the third component of career wellbeing has to do with the individuals' autonomy in relation to managing their careers. Hall (2004) stated that, when individuals experience feelings of independence regarding their own careers, this has a positive impact on career satisfaction and is, in fact, one of the key outcomes of the protean career model. Individuals who are able to regulate their own careers have greater autonomy and control in terms of their career-related decisions and this results in career wellbeing (Raabe et al., 2007).

According to Kidd (2008), there is a positive correlation between employability (fourth dimension) and career wellbeing. Individuals who feel that their skills and knowledge are needed within their industry will experience higher levels of career wellbeing (Brown &

Hesketh, 2004; Kidd, 2008). Hall (2004) maintains that, when individuals feel that they are employable, they will be more satisfied with their careers and will be more able to adapt to the needs of their work contexts.

Kidd (2008), states that environmental mastery (fifth dimension) is a key component of career wellbeing. Research by Hogan et al. (2013) shows that active involvement in work and the mastery of one's work environment is one of the key dimensions of positive psychological functioning. Individuals who are able adapt to environmental challenges are more likely to master their environments (Savickas, 2013).

The final component of career wellbeing is the opportunity to develop new skills or the expectation that new skills will be developed in the future (Kidd, 2008). Feeling unstimulated, bored, or unchallenged has been negatively correlated with career wellbeing (Creed & Blume, 2013). A lack of opportunities to develop new skills may have a negative impact on career wellbeing (Kidd, 2008). In addition, learning new skills and knowledge assists individuals to adapt to their environments (Savickas, 2013). This assertion is related to the findings of Hall and Mirvis (1996) that professional development is a key component of both career satisfaction and the ability to adapt.

Kidd (2008) is of the opinion that, when individuals are able to incorporate the various components of the career wellbeing model into their professional profiles they are able to adapt more readily and proactively to changes in the environment.

Figure 2.4 presents a summary of the components that make up career wellbeing (Kidd, 2008).

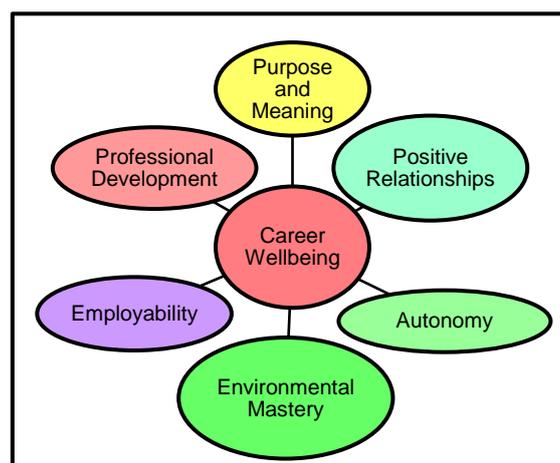


Figure 2.4: Components of career wellbeing (Kidd, 2008)

In short, this subsection provided insight into how the literature conceptualises the construct of career wellbeing. It was found that the construct of career wellbeing is a multifaceted construct that has a great impact on overall individual wellbeing. The respective components of career wellbeing, as provided by Kidd (2008), was discussed and it was found that career wellbeing holds a number of benefits for the individual and the organisation. Next, the theoretical frameworks of career wellbeing are discussed.

### **2.3.2 Theoretical frameworks of career wellbeing**

Several theoretical models of subjective wellbeing (career wellbeing) encapsulate the proactive and adaptive behaviour that individuals are required to show, over time, in order to achieve career wellbeing. These models include the conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002) the adaptation theory of subjective wellbeing; the disease model, the positive psychology model; the PERMA model (Seligman, 2011); theories on hedonia and eudaimonia; telic theories of wellbeing; cognitive theories of subjective wellbeing; evolutionary models of subjective wellbeing and relative standards models of subjective wellbeing. These are discussed in this subsection.

#### *2.3.2.1 Conservation of resources theory*

The conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002) has been suggested as an integrative stress (subjective wellbeing) theory that takes into account environmental and internal processes with relatively equivalent value. Resource-based theories of stress such as the COR have received greater consideration in recent years (Halbesleben et al., 2014; Hobfoll, 2002; Hobfoll & Schumm, 2009; Hobfoll et al., 2015; Holmgreen, Tirone, Gerhart, & Hobfoll, 2017).

The COR theory was originally proposed for the management of traumatic stress and the consequences of stress (Hobfoll, Canetti-Nisim, & Johnson, 2006; Norris, Perilla, Riad, Kaniasty, & Lavizzo, 1999). However, an influential study by Hobfoll and Shirom (2001) converted the COR theory into a theoretical framework for the comprehension and predicting of stress (subjective wellbeing) and resilience within the context of work and career management. Subsequently, the COR theory has become an important theory in the field of industrial psychology, work-related subjective wellbeing, research on career outcomes and positive psychology (Chen, Westman, & Hobfoll, 2015; Halbesleben et al., 2014; Hobfoll et al., 2015). As the COR theory emphasises the importance of resource possession, the impact of the lack of resources, the process of resource attainment and loss, it is an important theory for the interpretation of the positive and negative influence of subjective wellbeing and the process of building resilience within the turbulent contemporary career environment (Chen et al., 2015).

The theory perceives 'resources' as those objects, psychological traits, environmental conditions, individual motivation and energy that have value in their own right or that are valued as they are seen as individual assets in the achievement of certain outcomes (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998). The value of resources is based on resources being desired goal objects for individuals (for example a satisfactory career and status within the organisation) and from them being essential in the attainment or maintenance of desired resources (for example a positive self-esteem leads to the attainment of career satisfaction) (Chen et al., 2015). Resources can thus be seen as outcomes and vehicles that facilitate the achievement of certain outcomes. For example, psychological resources such as a positive self-esteem and self-efficacy may both be seen as desired in their own right and also important because they contribute to career outcomes such as career satisfaction and the maintenance of a strong resource reservoir (Hobfoll et al., 2015). The COR theory is based on two principles in relation to the acquisition, management and retention of personal resources (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002).

**Principle 1:** The primacy of resource loss. The first principle of COR theory is that individual resource loss is more prominent than resource gain. This principle states that when resource loss and resource gain are provided equivalent quantities of loss and gain, the loss of resources will have a considerably higher impact (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002; Hobfoll et al., 2015). Resource gains are perceived as obtaining their importance in the light of loss (Hobfoll et al., 2015). Subsequently, in the context of resource loss, resource gains become more important (Hobfoll et al., 2015). For example, employment is highly valued once an individual has experienced the negative aspects of unemployment (Lucas, Clark, Georgellis, & Diener, 2003).

**Principle 2:** resource investment. The second principle of COR theory is that individuals must invest in resources in order to protect against the loss of resources, recover from the loss of resources and gain new resources (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002; Hobfoll et al., 2015).

A related corollary of resource investment (corollary 1) is that individuals who have more resources or better developed resources are less exposed to resource loss and more proficient in managing resource gain (Hobfoll et al., 2015). Conversely, individuals with fewer resources are more susceptible to resource loss and less able to gain resources (Hobfoll et al., 2015). For example, it has been found that individuals who have greater levels of the psychosocial resources of self-efficacy (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2014), adaptability (Chan & Mai, 2015) and affective commitment (Wang, Weng, McElroy, Ashkanasy, & Lievens, 2014) experience greater levels of the outcome resource of career satisfaction.

In terms of resource investment (principle 2), the COR theory postulates, that individual resources aggregate in resource caravans in both an immediate and a life-span sense when resource investment takes place. Rini, Dunkel-Schetter, Wadhwa, and Sandman (1999) state that one major resource is typically associated with having other resources and likewise for the absence of a major resource. For example, when individuals have a sense of self-efficacy it is likely to be associated with optimism and social support in challenging work context, where low self-efficacy is likely to be associated with low levels of social support, low self-esteem and lower levels of coping resources (Holmgreen et al., 2017). From a life-span perspective it appears that these resources seem to be continuous for example when someone is in a state of lack of resources, at a certain point in time, it tends to carry over to future periods (King, King, Foy, Keane, & Fairbank, 1999). Studies show that change in resource levels can take place, but consistent with the concept of a caravan, the entourage of resources tend to travel together over time, unless impacted by internal or external influences (Baltes, 1997). Thus, when studying a specific resource, reference should be made to the probability of other underlying resources which are linked to the major resource (Turner, Lloyd, & Roszell, 1999).

The COR theory also points out that when resources are lost they can be replaced for example when self-esteem is lost attempts can be made to re-establish self-esteem (Hobfoll & Schumm, 2009). The COR theory states that resources can also be substituted when lost with other resources that have the same value for example resources which are lost through interpersonal conflict at home can be partially compensated for by greater investment in work-related resources such as positive professional relationships (Hirsch & Rapkin, 1986). The degree to which resource substitution or replacement is partial or of a less highly valued resource, the more negative the wellbeing-related outcome would be (Hobfoll, 2002). When resources are too exhausted or mismatched to allow optimisation in certain life domains individuals would attempt to compensate for the loss of resources (Hobfoll, 2002). From a career management perspective, seeking career counselling, intervention or coaching are all examples of compensation following either losing the resource of employment, for example, or changes in the career environment that renders existing resources ineffective (Hobfoll et al., 2015). The compensation can be external, as in pursuing support from others, or intrinsic, as in altering one's attitude toward the work environment (Hobfoll et al., 2015).

According to the COR theory the principle of resource investment also indicates the significance of proactive behaviour which leads to coping (Hobfoll et al., 2015). The COR theory indicates that the attainment, preservation and development of resources are basic motivational objectives that require significant input and other resource costs (Hobfoll et al., 2015). Individuals proactively cope with the challenges within their environments by (1) striving

to obtain and preserve their resource reservoirs, (2) taking action promptly when first threatening signs of some imminent problems are evidenced, and (3) by placing themselves in environments that fit their resources best or places them at an advantage over others (Hobfoll et al., 2015).

With regard to the conservation, development, and protection of resources the COR theory emphasises the importance of adaptive behaviour which is also known as reactive coping (Chen et al., 2015). During challenging situations the COR theory states that for resources to be preserved and to buffer against the loss of resources individuals need to show adaptive behaviour (Chen et al., 2015). An example of this is when individuals attempt to maintain a positive attitude during stressful times at work to ensure that professional relationships remain intact.

The first two principles of the COR theory, pertaining to loss primacy and the investment of resources, in turn, result in two other corollaries which are concerned with resource loss and resource gain spirals (Hobfoll, 1988, 1998).

Corollary 2 of the COR theory indicates that individuals who are resource deprived are susceptible to resource loss and that the initial loss will result in future loss of resources (Chen et al., 2015).

Corollary 3 echoes Corollary 2, by indicating that individuals who have resources are more able to gain resources and that the initial gain will result in the future gain of resources (Hobfoll, 1988, 1998). However, as the COR theory states, in principal 1, that loss is more dominant than; gain loss cycles will be more impactful and more accelerated than gain cycles (Chen et al., 2015). As resource loss is highly demanding and because individuals must invest resources to counterbalance further resource loss, once initial losses take place, individuals become progressively susceptible to ongoing loss (Chen et al., 2015).

Corollary 4 of COR theory suggests that individual who lack resources are likely to adopt a defensive position to safeguard their resources (Hobfoll, 1988, 1998). Studies have found that resource depleted individuals often opt for a defensive strategy of not investing their coping mechanisms or resources in order to protect their resource reserves (Chen et al., 2015). It has been found that individuals who are psychologically less capable will use counterproductive forms of denial as they lack resources (Chen et al., 2015). Contrary to this, individuals who are psychologically more resilient (have more psychological resources) will only use provisional and more restricted forms of denial, such as denying the need to take action instantly or denying major influence on the self, whilst they permit themselves to recover and return to the

coping strategy with improved determination after a short psychological interval (Chen et al., 2015).

In summary, as illustrated by figure 2.5, the processes of resource maintenance and conservation are a result of the environments that individuals find themselves in and chronic or acute resource loss situations (Hobfoll, 1988, 1998). The COR theory indicates that the lack of resources results in the generation or enablement of resource loss processes (Hobfoll et al., 2015). When resource losses take place, individuals tend to apply resource conservation approaches, whereby they employ resources which are obtainable to them in order to adapt as effectively as possible (Hobfoll et al., 2015). Successful adaptation results in the development of new resources which, in turn, restock individuals' resource reservoirs and counterbalance the circumstances that cause acute and chronic resource losses (Hobfoll et al., 2015). Ineffective adaptation, in contrast, results in negative functional and psychological outcomes and depletion of the resources invested (Hobfoll et al., 2015). Ineffective adaptation additionally produces secondary resource losses which results in the exacerbation of the chronic or acute loss situations and weakens the resource reservoir.

Figure 2.5 provides a summary of the COR theory.

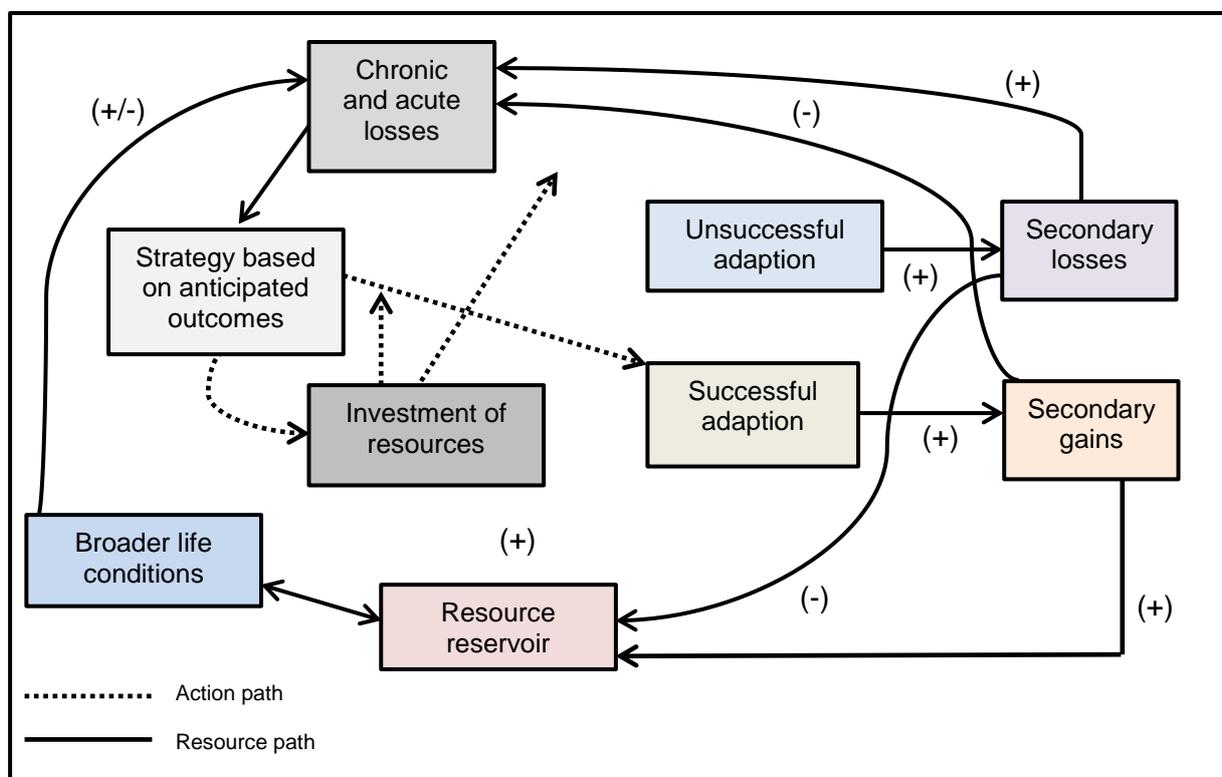


Figure 2.5: The COR model (Hobfoll, 2001, p. 358)

The COR theory (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002) is utilised within the current research as the theoretical lens through which career wellbeing is studied. Career wellbeing is seen as both as a resource that is valued as an outcome, but also a means to achieve other outcomes such as overall wellbeing (Diener, 2013). In line with the COR theory career wellbeing is seen as a primary resource which accompanied or underlined by other resources (Holmgreen et al., 2017). According to the present research, the psychosocial resources that are valued in their own right, but also lead to the resource outcome of career wellbeing are career satisfaction, occupational passion, psychological career resources, and psychosocial career preoccupations. The relationship dynamics between these psychosocial resources are studied to provide insight into the outcome resource of career wellbeing. In the current study, the manner in which the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) enhance or impede the relationship between the dependent variable (occupational passion) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction) provides some interesting insights in terms of resource investment, replacement and enhancement (Hobfoll et al., 2015).

A number of other subjective wellbeing theoretical models are seen as relevant to the current research as they explain the proactive and adaptive behaviour that individuals develop and display in order to experience subjective wellbeing. The relevant models are discussed next.

#### *2.3.2.2 Adaptation theory of subjective wellbeing*

According to the adaptation theory of subjective wellbeing of Brickman, Coates, and Janoff Bulman (1978), individuals' experiences of their success in utilising the developmental tasks of adaptability assists them to achieve subjective wellbeing (Brickman et al., 1978). The model postulates that individuals use their past experiences of adaptation to challenging environments as a standard against which to estimate their own subjective wellbeing (Brickman et al., 1978). In the career context, this would mean that if their current position, occupation or career-related experiences exceed previous experiences, they would deem themselves to be well (Huta, & Waterman, 2014).

The adaptation theory of subjective wellbeing also postulates that the power of experiences to have an impact on emotions diminishes over time (Brickman et al., 1978). An example of this in the career context would be that, after a person has been promoted, the person will experience a spike in their level of career wellbeing as the promotion would be above the person's previous standard. However, over time the promotion will become the new standard and this will impact negatively on its ability to affect the individual's emotions. In other words, recent changes and preoccupations in an individual's lives and careers will have a temporary

impact on individuals' career wellbeing before their new standards adapt to the new conditions. This process is known as the hedonic treadmill (Brickman & Campbell, 1971).

### *2.3.2.3 The disease model and the positive psychology model*

There are two opposing models, which describe the wellbeing of individuals within the career context, namely, the disease model and the positive psychology model. According to Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2014), the disease model is founded on the psycho-pathological sufferings of humans, namely, ill health and deviance. Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2014) are of the opinion that individuals who struggle to adapt to the changing work environment will likely experience lower levels of career wellbeing.

On the other hand, the positive psychology model focuses on the positive subjective experiences of individuals' traits that have a positive impact on wellbeing and decrease the development of psycho-pathology which may be described as subjective wellbeing or happiness (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009, Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2014). In view of the fact that both career wellbeing and career satisfaction have to do with individual experiences career wellbeing and career satisfaction form part of the positive psychology paradigm related to wellbeing (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2014).

Ryff and Singer (2013) maintain that taking part in positive, adaptive, and proactive activities, such as actively managing one's career development, assist individuals to experience work and career as positive life contributors.

### *2.3.2.4 The PERMA model*

The PERMA model, as developed by Seligman (2011), suggests five dimensions of wellbeing, namely, positive emotions (P), engagement (E), positive relations (R) meaning and purpose (M) and accomplishment (A).

According to the model, the concept of positive emotions (P) refers to individuals having as much pleasure as possible through the experience of positive affect. Seligman (2011) states that individuals who are in a positive state of mind possess an advanced ability to process complex information more strategically while individuals in a negative state of mind tend to process information in a more systematic way. The model states that individuals in a positive frame of mind perform better at processing information than those in a negative frame of mind and this helps them to adapt to their changing environments (Seligman, 2011). Improved work performance, adaptive behaviour, and creative problem solving are some of the results of career wellbeing (Siu, Cheung, & Lui, 2015).

The term engagement (E) in the model refers to individuals being able both to understand their own strengths and to structure their strengths in such a way that the life domains of work, relationships and leisure may benefit from this (Seligman, 2011). Positive relationships (R) refer to the positive, satisfactory, and mutually-beneficial relationships that individuals have with each other and that give them a sense of wellbeing (Seligman, 2011).

Seligman (2011) maintains that meaning and purpose (M) occur when individuals understand what their best talents and strengths are and have the ability to use them for the greater good of the community. Accomplishment (A) in the model refers to individuals' personal sense of success, achievement and mastery within both the life and work contexts (Seligman, 2011).

Studies show that individuals with a positive attitude toward work focus on their individual strengths, formulate clear accomplishment goals, are motivated, build positive work relationships and are engaged in their work (Seligman, 2011; Tolentino, Garcia, Lu, Restubog, Bordia, & Plewa 2014). They are also more able to adapt to challenging work environments and experience higher levels of career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Seligman, 2011; Tolentino et al., 2014).

#### *2.3.2.5 Theories on hedonia and eudaimonia*

Studies on subjective wellbeing tended to place the emphasis primarily on two approaches related to cognitive and affective wellbeing, namely, hedonia and eudaimonia (Diener, 2013; Turban, & Yan, 2016).

Hedonic wellbeing is experienced by individuals when the notion of pleasure is elevated and negative emotions are minimised as far as possible (Diener, 2013). Hedonic wellbeing has also been termed the bottom-up process of wellbeing (Diener, Suh, Lucas & Smith, 1999). The bottom-up process of wellbeing refers to the way in which external situations, environments and demographics have an impact on subjective wellbeing (Diener, & Ryan, 2009; Steptoe, Deaton, & Stone, 2015). The bottom-up process of wellbeing was based on the notion that basic human needs are important and that individuals are well when these needs are satisfied (Diener et al. 2008). The experience of pleasant events is related to both positive cognitive wellbeing and positive affect (Diener, 2013). In addition, individuals who experience positive cognitive wellbeing and positive affect are more able to show adaptive behaviour (Diener, 2013; Savickas, 2013).

Hedonic wellbeing, within the career context, refers to the extent to which individuals perceive work as pleasurable and fun (Huta & Waterman, 2014). It should be noted that hedonia differs from the concept of work engagement as individuals may be focused on and engrossed in their jobs and not experience hedonic wellbeing (Ryan et al., 2013). However, as the concept of

hedonic wellbeing is determined by experiencing the ultimate levels of pleasurable feelings, this may result in a life of superficial values, low levels of satisfaction and an inability to adapt (Huta & Waterman, 2014).

The concept of eudaimonic wellbeing may be conceptualised as individuals striving for the personal development, in line with certain moral standards, that assists them to realise their purpose in life (Aristotle, 1925; Turban & Yan, 2016). Eudaimonic wellbeing places the emphasis on the factors that make up an individual's life and how these factors assist an individual to live an optimal life (Ryan et al., 2013). A central principal of the eudaimonic perspective of wellbeing is that individuals will experience wellbeing when they are making a positive contribution to the wider community and when they are reaching their optimal potential (McMahan & Estes, 2011).

Eudaimonic wellbeing has also been referred to as the top-down process of wellbeing. The top-down processes to wellbeing has been associated with individual aspects such as personality, satisfaction, adaptive behaviour, and happiness (Diener & Ryan, 2009; Ryff & Singer, 2013). Certain scholars have used the term 'happiness' as a synonym for subjective wellbeing (Veenhoven, 2013). Veenhoven (2013) defines happiness as the degree to which individuals make judgements on the holistic quality of their lives and decide whether their lives are favourable. Happiness is considered as overall satisfaction with life, low negative affect and high positive affect (Ryff & Singer, 2013).

Eudaimonia within the career context refers to the subjective judgements that individuals make regarding the content of their work and how work assists them to develop, provides them with a sense of purpose and assists them to make a positive contribution to society as a whole (Ryff, 2013). Individual development is an important aspect of eudaimonic wellbeing (Turban & Yan, 2016). Thus, eudaimonia occurs, within the work context when individuals perceive their work as an opportunity to learn new skills, develop their aptitude, and utilise their learnings and potential (Ryff, 2013).

Ryff and Singer (2008) maintain that an essential facet of eudaimonia is the focused and goal-oriented, proactive and adaptable behaviour that individuals utilise and which gives them with a sense of purpose and meaning in their careers. When individuals see their career-related activities as honourable in terms of contributing to the greater good of society, they will experience eudaimonic wellbeing (Huta & Waterman, 2014). Due to the fact that career wellbeing entails the subjective assessments that individuals make about their careers, is dependent on proactive, adaptive behaviour and entails the development of skills and

knowledge, it may be said that career wellbeing is a form of eudaimonic wellbeing (Creed & Blume, 2013; Huta & Waterman, 2014; Kidd, 2008; Ryff, 2013).

#### *2.3.2.6 Telic theories of subjective wellbeing*

According to the telic (outcomes-based) theoretical frameworks of subjective wellbeing, subjective wellbeing is achieved when a certain end point, such as a goal or objective, is achieved (Pavot, & Diener 2013). The question thus arises as to what this end point entails (Bibi, Chaudhry, & Awan, 2015). Some researchers have asked the question whether the fulfilment of desires results in subjective wellbeing, or whether certain desires are detrimental to subjective wellbeing (Diener, 2013). Some of the telic theories of subjective wellbeing have argued that the process of moving toward the desire may be more fulfilling than the actual fulfilment of the desire itself (Diener & Ryan 2009). Two telic theories of wellbeing, namely the psychological wellbeing model (Ryff & Singer 1996) and the self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci 2000), state that there are certain intrinsic needs which individuals seek to fulfil in order to achieve subjective wellbeing.

Ryan and Deci (2000) are of the opinion that the motivation to satisfy certain intrinsic needs will assist individuals to be adaptable within their environments and experience greater career wellbeing.

#### *2.3.2.7 Cognitive theories of subjective wellbeing*

Cognitive theories of subjective wellbeing focus on the impact of cognitive processes on subjective wellbeing (Diener & Biswas Diener, 2008). An example of a cognitive theory of subjective wellbeing is the AIM (Attention, Interpretation, and Memory) model (Diener & Biswas Diener, 2008). According to the AIM model, individuals who experience high levels of subjective wellbeing are likely to focus their energy on tasks that provide positive stimuli, they are likely to comprehend events in a positive manner, and they look back at past events in a positive way (Diener & Biswas Diener, 2008). In comparison to those who focus on negative stimuli, individuals who are able to focus their attention on positive stimuli tend to report higher levels of overall wellbeing as they adapt more successfully to their challenging environments (Diener & Ryan 2009). Cognitive theories of subjective wellbeing state that a significant predictor of wellbeing is the ability to direct attention outward away from oneself (Diener & Ryan 2009). In other words, individuals who usually experience high levels of wellbeing may experience lower levels of wellbeing if they focus their attention inward (Diener, 2013).

Cognitive theories of subjective wellbeing also state that although individuals with high levels of subjective wellbeing do still have negative experiences, they are able to deal with these

experiences well as they tend to recall past negative events as more positive, which helps them to adapt to their current difficult circumstances (Diener & Ryan, 2009).

#### *2.3.2.8 Evolutionary theories of subjective wellbeing*

According to the evolutionary models of subjective wellbeing, the experiences of subjective wellbeing are generated by those aspects of life that facilitate human survival (Diener, 2013). Theorists argue that negative emotions such as fear and anger have constituted some of the core aspects that have aided humans to adapt to and overcome environmental threats over time (Diener & Ryan, 2009). Fredrickson's (1998) broaden and build theory focuses on the impact of positive emotions on assisting individuals to build up their action repertoires, subsequently allowing them to build up their psychological, social, cognitive and physical resources over time.

Fredrickson (1998) states that a combination of high subjective wellbeing and positive emotions allow individuals to explore their career environments with confidence and, thereby, acquire the essential personal resources that will assist them in their adaptation, survival and development in the career environment.

#### *2.3.2.9 Relative standards models of subjective wellbeing*

Relative standards models of subjective wellbeing suggest that subjective wellbeing is a result of individuals' comparison between certain standards, for example, individual goals, ideals and past successes and actual conditions (Michalos, 2008). According to relative standards models of subjective wellbeing, such as the social comparison theory, individuals use other people as the standard for their subjective wellbeing, thus indicating that they would experience higher levels of subjective wellbeing if they perceived themselves to be better off than others (Michalos, 2008). Easterlin (1974) states that the satisfaction that individuals experience with their careers will depend on the progress made by others in their careers who are part of their societal framework. Moreover, Diener, Larsen, Levine, and Emmons (1985), indicate that social comparison is one of the most significant predictors of subjective wellbeing in many life spheres with individuals experiencing career wellbeing and career satisfaction based on their comparison of their own success versus the success of others within their environmental contexts.

Table 2.3 provides an overview of the key assumptions of the theoretical models related to the construct of career wellbeing.

Table 2.3

*Summary of the Theoretical Models Related to Career Wellbeing*

Theoretical models	Conceptualisation	Elements	Core conclusions
<b>Conservation of resources theory</b> (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002)	Career wellbeing is seen as an important outcome resource and also as a resource that assists individuals in achieving career outcomes.	Principle 1: The primacy of resource loss. Principle 2: resource investment.	Individuals who lack/lose resources find it difficult to develop and ascertain new resources. The contrary is true for individuals who possess resources
<b>Adaptation theory of subjective wellbeing</b> (Brickman et al., 1978)	Individuals who adapt to changing work environments will experience greater levels of subjective wellbeing.	Positive experiences impact emotions. Power of experiences to impact emotions for short-periods.	Recent events have a short-term impact on wellbeing before new standards of wellbeing are set.
<b>The disease model and the positive psychology model</b> (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2014)	The disease model is based on the psychological sufferings of individuals whilst positive psychology focuses on the positive experiences of individuals.	Human suffering. Positive psychological experience.	Career wellbeing focuses on strengths of individuals and thus forms part of positive psychology.
<b>The PERMA model</b> (Seligman, 2011)	Positive, proactive and adaptive behaviour results in subjective wellbeing.	Positive emotions (P) Engagement (E) Positive relations (R) Meaning and purpose (M) Accomplishment (A)	Individuals who possess the elements of the PERMA model are more able to proactively adapt to the needs of the modern career environment.
<b>Theories on hedonia and Eudaimonia</b> (Aristotle, 1925; Turban & Yan, 2016)	Hedonic wellbeing is experienced when pleasure is maximised. Eudemonic wellbeing is dependent on meaningful experiences.	Work is experienced as pleasurable and fun. Work is experienced as meaningful.	Hedonic wellbeing is concerned with achieving maximum pleasure. Eudaimonia is dependent on individuals' sense of purpose.
<b>Telic theories of subjective wellbeing</b> (Pavot, & Diener 2013)	Subjective wellbeing is achieved when goals are reached.	Fulfilment of desires/needs leads to or are detrimental to subjective wellbeing. Moving toward desires lead to subjective wellbeing.	The satisfaction of intrinsic needs/desires lead to subjective wellbeing.
<b>Cognitive theories of subjective wellbeing</b> (Diener & Biswas Diener, 2008)	The focus of stimuli will impact subjective wellbeing.	Individuals who focus on positive stimuli experience higher levels of subjective wellbeing than those who focus on negative stimuli. Subjective wellbeing is dependent on an outward focus.	Individuals can manage negative experiences better by drawing on positive memories.
<b>Evolutionary theories of subjective wellbeing</b> (Diener & Ryan, 2009)	Aspects of life that stimulate human survival develop subjective wellbeing.	Fear and anger assist individuals to overcome environmental threats. Positive emotions assist individuals to build up action repertoires.	Positive and negative feelings and emotions assist individuals to develop personal resources which lead to subjective wellbeing.
<b>Relative standards models of subjective wellbeing</b> (Michalos, 2008).	Individuals compare themselves to external factors in order to assess their own wellbeing.	Individuals set own standards of wellbeing. External factors/goals/people are used as benchmarks for wellbeing.	Social comparison impacts individuals' perceptions of their own wellbeing.

In short, this subsection provided insight into the career wellbeing theoretical models that are applicable to this study. The COR theory was provided as a theoretical lens through which career wellbeing is studied within the current research. It was found that career wellbeing is a resource that is valued in its own right, but also assists individuals to reach certain outcomes (Hobfoll et al., 2015).

This subsection also provided information on supplementary theories of career wellbeing such as the adaptation theory of subjective wellbeing (Brickman et al., 1978); the disease model and the positive psychology model (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2014); the PERMA model (Seligman, 2011); theories on hedonia and Eudaimonia (Aristotle, 1925; Turban & Yan, 2016); telic theories of subjective wellbeing (Pavot & Diener 2013); cognitive theories of subjective wellbeing (Diener & Biswas Diener, 2008); evolutionary theories of subjective wellbeing (Diener & Ryan, 2009) and relative standards models of subjective wellbeing (Michalos, 2008). In essence, these theories support the fact that individuals who display and develop certain psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators and show adaptive and proactive behaviour will experience greater levels of subjective wellbeing.

Next, the person-centric variables that influence career wellbeing are discussed.

### **2.3.3 Person-centred variables influencing career wellbeing**

Career wellbeing is a form of subjective wellbeing where individuals assess their satisfaction with their careers over time (Abele-Brehm, 2014; Kidd, 2008). Career wellbeing has been found to have a major impact on overall wellbeing (Diener, 2013). This section discusses the person-centred variables of race, gender, age, qualification, and job level that influence career wellbeing.

#### **2.3.3.1 Race**

Although many studies show that most individuals of all races report high levels of career-related subjective wellbeing there are, nevertheless, some distinct differences between certain nationalities, races and cultural groups in relation to levels of subjective wellbeing (Aknin et al., 2013; Diener & Ryan, 2009). Research shows that individuals who work in the more industrialised and individualistic societies report higher levels of subjective wellbeing (Diener & Diener 1996; Wu et al., 2015).

The level of economic development in a particular country may explain the level of subjective wellbeing reported by individuals with lower levels of subjective wellbeing being reported in the poorer, less-industrialised countries (Diener & Suh, 2000; Wu et al., 2015). However, studies have also shown that individuals in countries with higher income levels and that are more

industrialised do not necessarily report significantly higher levels of subjective wellbeing because their basic needs are met (Wu et al., 2015). Research on the wellbeing of the more impoverished nationalities, for example, certain African groups has shown above average lower levels of subjective wellbeing (Biswas-Diener, Vitterso, & Diener, 2005).

Studies have also found that esteem is a strong predictor of subjective wellbeing, especially in respect of the individualistic cultures but not so in the collectivist cultures (Diener & Diener, 1995). In addition, there are differences in terms of how emotions are perceived across cultures. Eid and Diener (2001) reported high instances of guilt in the collectivist cultures while pride was accorded more valued in certain individualistic cultures. Tsai, Knutson, and Fung (2006) found that collectivistic cultures value low arousal positive affect (calmness) more than individuals from individualistic cultures, and also that individuals from the individualistic cultures value high positive affect (excitement) more than individuals from the collectivistic cultures.

As noted earlier, the ability of individuals to adapt to their environments has an impact on career wellbeing (Brickman et al., 1978). Coetzee and Stoltz (2015) indicate that black South African employees tend to show higher levels of career adaptability than their white colleagues.

A South African study by Van den Berg and Van Zyl (2008) cited significant differences between white, black, coloured, and Asian working individuals in terms of the way in which career-related stressors were perceived as well as the number of stressors to which individuals from different racial backgrounds were exposed. Van den Berg and Van Zyl (2008) found that black South Africans reported the highest level of career-related stress. Stressors pertaining to a lack of infrastructure and resources in the work environment significantly contributed to the stress experienced by black South Africans (Van den Berg & Van Zyl, 2008).

#### *2.3.3.2 Gender*

Numerous studies have examined the differences between genders in terms of career-related subjective wellbeing (Diener, 2013; Diener & Ryan 2009; Fujita, Diener, & Sandvik, 1991; Steptoe et al., 2015). Diener and Ryan (2009) found that women appear more regularly in samples of being either extremely satisfied or extremely dissatisfied with their careers due to the fact women experience positive and negative emotions more regularly and intensely than men. However, according to Fujita et al. (1991), while gender represents less than 1% of the variance in subjective wellbeing, it represents over 13% of the variance in the intensity of emotional experiences. Therefore, whilst there are no major differences between the genders in terms of average subjective wellbeing women tend to live at more extreme ends of the wellbeing scale (Diener, 2013).

Studies on the factors making up the negative spectrum of career-related wellbeing have shown a small, but significant, effect of gender on factors such as cynicism and exhaustion. A study by Purvanova and Muros (2010) found that, on the negative spectrum of career-related wellbeing, women tended to be more inclined towards emotional exhaustion while men tended to be more pessimistic about their careers in comparison with their female counterparts.

A study by Kidd (2008) on the components which make up career wellbeing found that women and men do not differ substantially in terms of average career wellbeing. Rautenbach (2015) reported similar levels of career flourishing for both males (35.2%) and females (36%) for a general population South African study. Rautenbach's (2015) study, however, showed that more female individuals were languishing (10.8%) in their careers in comparison to their male counterparts (6%). Rautenbach (2015) argues that the reason for this could be the male-dominant South African career context, the inequalities within the workplace due to South Africa's employment history and the lower levels of representation of females in the workplace.

As noted earlier, the ability of individuals to adapt to their environments has an impact on career wellbeing (Brickman et al., 1978). Ferreira (2012) found that females demonstrate higher levels of career adaptability than men, thus perhaps indicating that they are better prepared to adapt to changes within the career context.

During the pre-1994 era in South Africa, the majority of management positions were preserved for white males. However, with the transformation in the socio-political dispensation and the implementation of the Employment Equity Act No. 55 of 1998 (Republic of South Africa, 1998), there have been numerous changes in the South African work environment (Bernstein & Osman, 2016). South African females from all racial backgrounds are occupying more and higher levels of employment in the work context than before (Bernstein & Osman, 2016). This shift to more inclusive work environments has resulted in South African women being exposed to greater career demands and work pressures than in the past and these may impact negatively on their career wellbeing (Van den Berg & Van Zyl, 2008).

#### 2.3.3.3 Age

While earlier studies on subjective wellbeing in relation to age have argued that youth is a strong predictor of wellbeing (Bradburn & Caplovitz, 1965; Gurin, Veroff, & Feld, 1960), more recent studies have shown that career wellbeing either increases or does not decrease with age (Diener & Ryan, 2009; Zacher, Feldman, & Schulz, 2014). Mroczek and Spiro (2005) maintain that, in spite of significant individual variances, career wellbeing improves from age 40 to age 65. In addition, both longitudinal and cross-sectional data indicate that positive affect and negative affect reduce slightly with old age (Mroczek & Spiro, 2005). It should be noted

that career wellbeing is likely to decline more rapidly with age in the impoverished countries than in wealthy countries (Deaton, 2008).

Jivraj, Nazroo, Vanhoutte, and Chandola (2014) found that, although older individuals may enjoy higher levels of subjective wellbeing than their younger colleagues when in similar work conditions, they also experience quicker declines in subjective wellbeing than younger individuals when placed under considerable pressure. According to Jivraj et al. (2014), due to the potential rapid decline in the subjective wellbeing of older employees, organisations should implement different interventions in the support of the career wellbeing of the various age groups.

Changes in the age at which individuals retire and the aging workforce organisations are altering the strategies that organisations are implementing in terms of supporting the career wellbeing of their employees (Mauno, Ruokolainen, & Kinnunen, 2013). Research has found that organisational support in relation to career wellbeing place more emphasis on development interventions for younger employees while interventions to ensure the career wellbeing and career maintenance of older employees are more necessary than for younger employees (Kooij et al., 2013).

Mauno et al. (2013) report that, when individuals of different ages are confronted with highly insecure and ambiguous career environments, younger individuals tend to report higher levels of work–family enrichment and vigour in comparison to older individuals. Mauno et al. (2013) explain that youth acts as a buffer against the negative aspects of career insecurity while older age acts as a buffer against the negative impact of high career–family conflict on career wellbeing.

A study by Kidd (2008) on the components that make up career wellbeing indicated that individuals from different age groups do not differ substantially in terms of average career wellbeing while a South African study by Rautenbach (2015) on career flourishing found that a total of 36% of employees under the age of 34 were flourishing and 7% were languishing.

South African studies on the negative spectrum of career wellbeing have indicated clear differences between the various age groups. Studies show that younger employees demonstrate more vigour and optimism in relation to dealing with the demands of the changing work environment while older employees are more able to deal with work–life interferences related to the construction of their careers (Colff & Rothmann, 2014). Akintola, Hlengwa, and Dageid (2013), who studied the career wellbeing of South African individuals in highly pressurised work conditions, found that older individuals were able to deal better with the

overload and the lack of support in their roles than their younger counterparts, thus indicating higher levels of career wellbeing.

#### *2.3.3.4 Qualification*

Research has found a positive relationship between educational qualification and subjective wellbeing (Diener & Ryan, 2009; Michalos, 2008). Studies have shown a positive (yet weak) relationship between educational qualifications and career wellbeing with education explaining only 1 to 3% of the variance in career wellbeing (Witter et al., 1984).

#### *2.3.3.5 Job level*

Millán, Hessels, Thurik, and Aguado (2013) indicate that, compared to individuals at lower levels, individuals at higher levels within an organisation typically earn higher incomes and have more job security and this results in higher levels of career wellbeing. However, certain researchers argue that, once individuals feel that they are being well compensated for their efforts, their jobs compensation is no longer a significant predictor of their career wellbeing (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Ng et al. (2005) indicate that, in accordance with the sponsored mobility model, organisations provide more support for career development to those individuals with more power within the organisation. According to Millán et al. (2013), because individuals in higher job levels have more access to organisational resources, they are better able to construct their work and also have access to development opportunities that would allow them to experience higher levels of career wellbeing.

Bakker and Demerouti (2008) maintain that all individuals, no matter the level within the organisation, want to experience reciprocity between effort and reward in order to feel satisfied with their careers. In other words, when individuals are in challenging and unstable jobs and show high levels of performance without being promoted, this will have a negative impact on the career wellbeing of such individuals across all levels (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008).

Shuck and Reio (2014) indicate that employee engagement is a positive predictor of subjective wellbeing. Research has shown that managers report higher levels of engagement than individuals in non-managerial roles (Robinson, 2007). However, individuals in lower-level customer-facing roles experience higher levels of engagement as opposed to managers who are not in customer-facing roles (Robinson, 2007).

A study by Kidd (2008) on the components that make up career wellbeing indicated that individuals from different levels within the organisation do not differ substantially in terms of average career wellbeing. A South African study on career flourishing found that 48.5% of managers were flourishing, 48.5% were moderately mentally healthy while 3% were languishing (Swart, 2012). Diedericks and Rothmann (2013) found that a key determinant of

the career wellbeing of individuals in specialist roles in the South African context is the amount of support that they receive from their supervisors.

#### 2.3.3.6 *Tenure*

Studies show that career wellbeing decreases over the first year of employment but does not change significantly during subsequent years of employment (Boswell, Shipp, Payne, & Culbertson, 2009). However, Riza, Ganzach, and Liu (2016), challenge this view by stating that career wellbeing decreases with tenure. Clark (2016) found that men showed the same levels of low career wellbeing during the third year of unemployment as they did during the first year of unemployment.

A South African study by Rautenbach (2015) on career flourishing found that 45% of individuals with long organisational tenure (more than 15 years) were flourishing while 4.5% were languishing. Rautenbach (2015) also found that 34% of individuals with tenure of less than 15 years were flourishing whilst 7.8% were languishing and 1% of individuals who had been in their roles for two years or more were flourishing while 5.3% were languishing. In Rautenbach's (2015) sample, 30.2% of individuals with tenure of between two and fifteen years were flourishing while 8.8% were languishing. The sample also indicated that, of individuals with tenure in their roles of more than twenty years, 53% were flourishing while 6% were languishing. This may indicate that individuals with longer tenure experience higher levels of career wellbeing than those with shorter tenure.

In short, this subsection provided insight into the person-centric (namely race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) variables that influence career wellbeing. Although research shows that the environment in which certain race groups find themselves in would affect individual career wellbeing, there seems to be a scarcity within the research in terms of the differences between career wellbeing between races within the South African context (Wu et al., 2015). Studies show similar levels of career-related wellbeing for both men and women (García-Bernal, Gargallo-Castel, Marzo-Navarro, & Rivera-Torres, 2005; Kidd, 2008; Rautenbach, 2015). Research shows differences in career wellbeing between different age groups where older individuals may experience greater levels of career wellbeing than their younger colleagues (Colff & Rothmann, 2014; Rautenbach, 2015).

A study by Millán et al. (2013) found that individuals from different levels within the organisation differ in terms of average career wellbeing. Education has also been found to not have a relationship with the levels of career wellbeing experience by individuals (Witter et al., 1984). As race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure were identified as sociodemographic variables influencing career wellbeing, they were considered as key socio-demographic

variables to be considered in the analysis of the indicators/psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators of career wellbeing (namely occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction).

There seems to be an opportunity to study the construct of career wellbeing and its related indicators/psychosocial resources across different sociodemographic groups and within the South African context as limited research currently exists.

#### **2.3.4 Evaluation and synthesis**

This section provided insight into the available literature on the construct of career wellbeing. Most studies on the construct's conceptualisation has been conducted from a qualitative perspective and on international samples (Anderzén et al., 2015; Clark, 2010; Creed & Blume, 2013; Diener, 2013; Kidd, 2008; Ryff & Singer, 2013; Schotanus-Dijkstra et al., 2016). Kidd's (2008) conceptualisation and components of career wellbeing were provided within this section. It was found that career wellbeing is subjective in nature as it is concerned with the degree of satisfaction that individuals have with their careers over time (Kidd, 2008). The literature points out that career wellbeing is an important construct to be studied owing to its relevance to individual wellbeing and organisational performance.

This section provided insight into the theoretical models related to career wellbeing and COR theory was provided as the lens through which the construct was studied in the current research. Other theoretical models were also provided as they give perspective to the psychosocial resources, intrinsic motivators and adaptive and proactive behaviour that individuals develop and display in order to experience subjective wellbeing (career wellbeing). It became evident in the literature review that there is a need for an empirically validated theoretical framework of career wellbeing as no such model currently exists within the South African career management context.

The section concluded with an analysis on the person-centric variables that influence career wellbeing. It was pointed out that the construct needs to be studied across different sociodemographic variables to discover whether differences exist between individuals within the South African context.

In the next section, the construct of career satisfaction is discussed.

### **2.4 CAREER SATISFACTION**

Career satisfaction is seen as the subjective feelings that individuals have toward their careers (Ng et al., 2005). Career satisfaction is related to career wellbeing in the sense that individuals

who are generally satisfied with their careers will experience career wellbeing (Kidd, 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2014). In the turbulent work environment of the 21st century, individuals are finding it more challenging than before to have meaningful and satisfactory careers (Stumpf, 2014). While research shows that traditional, hierarchy-orientated, careers are still popular (Chudzikowski, 2012), studies also show that modern employees are more willing to move across organisational boundaries due to their need to have satisfactory careers (Hall, 2004; Savickas, 2013; Verbruggen, 2012). Individuals' estimations of their ability to show proactive and adaptive behaviour and fit into their environments are regarded as constituting career satisfaction, which serves as an indicator of career wellbeing in this study (Ng et al., 2005).

Career satisfaction is an important construct to study as it indicates how satisfied individuals are with their own career progress and is closely linked to career wellbeing (Kidd, 2008; Ng et al., 2005). The next section conceptualises the term career satisfaction, provides information on the theoretical models of career satisfaction that applied to the study and discusses the person-centric factors that have an influence on career satisfaction.

#### **2.4.1 Conceptualisation of career satisfaction**

Career satisfaction is seen as an individual's evaluation of their own career success. It is thus an important construct to study as it influences the way in which individuals construct and manage their careers (Arthur, Khapova, & Wilderom, 2005). Career success has been one of the most widely researched constructs in recent years due to its impact on living standards, wellbeing and organisational success (Baruch, Szűcs, & Gunz, 2015). Career success may be seen as objective (material) as well as subjective (psychological) (Ng & Feldman, 2010; Savickas, 2013; Sullivan & Arthur, 2006). Career satisfaction is perceived as subjective career success (Ng et al., 2005; Ng & Feldman, 2014).

Objective career success is seen as the external perception of an individual's career progress (Abele & Spurk, 2009a; Seibert et al., 2001). Perceptible measures of an individual's career progress are included in the definition of objective career success (Ng et al., 2005). These measures include indicators such as career advancements, remuneration, productivity, salary increases and promotion within the organisational hierarchical structure (Dries, Pepermans, Hofmans, & Rypens, 2009). These measures are objective due to the fact that they may be socially shared (Ng & Feldman, 2010). Judge, Cable, Boudreau, and Bretz (1994) classify objective career success as job level and monetary achievement. Objective career success measures may thus be externally verified (Ng & Feldman, 2010).

Research shows that there are correlations between objective and subjective career success (Abele & Spurk, 2009b; Hall, 2002). Studies have shown salary has the strongest impact on

subjective wellbeing for those who do not earn much (Abele-Brehm, 2014; David, Boniwell, & Conley, 2013; Stumpf & Tymon, 2012), but as individuals' salaries increase, the impact on subjective wellbeing decreases (Tay & Kuykendall, 2013).

Becchetti, Trovato, and Bedoya (2011) found that compared to individuals in lower income groups, individuals in higher income groups report lower levels of career wellbeing as they take less pleasure in ordinary events and feel that they have increased responsibility. Weiting (2013) reports that promotion has a negative impact on subjective wellbeing as individuals often then have to work longer hours due to the greater level of responsibility and this has a negative impact on their autonomy to construct their lives and careers in a satisfactory way.

As measures of objective career success (e.g. salary and promotion) have been found not always to have a positive relationship with career wellbeing (Becchetti et al., 2011; Tay & Kuykendall, 2013; Weiting, 2013), a subjective measure of career success, namely, career satisfaction, is applied within the current research.

As a result of the rapid socioeconomic changes that are influencing the world of work, organisations are no longer taking responsibility for the management of their employees' careers (Briscoe et al., 2006). This shift in responsibility has caused individuals to focus on their intrinsic career-related needs and seek employment, and career paths that satisfy these needs (Greenhaus & Callanan, 2013). The subjective evaluations that individuals make regarding their career success have been found to be more important than objective measures of career success (e.g. salary and promotion) within the contemporary career (Abele & Spurk, 2009b; Ng et al., 2005; Ng & Feldman, 2010, 2014).

The intellectual and affective evaluations made by individuals are perceived as subjective career success and indicate individuals' understanding of their career achievements (Ng et al., 2005; Ng & Feldman, 2010, 2014). Furthermore, subjective career success may be seen as a person's estimation of their career advancement and career achievements, and the attainment of specific career goals (Abele & Spurk, 2009a; Ng & Feldman, 2010, 2014; Park, 2010; Seibert et al., 2001). Research has shown that subjective career success refers to an individual's intrinsic recognition and measurement of their career progress in relation to various career areas that are important to that individual (Arthur et al., 2005). Subjective career success may thus be seen as an individual's internal assessment of and satisfaction with their career progress (Greenhaus et al., 1990; Ng & Feldman, 2014; Spurk & Abele, 2011).

South African studies that have focused on subjective career success and career experiences over the past decade have included research into career adaptability as a predictor of subjective career success (Coetzee & Harry, 2014; Maree, 2012); the subjective career

success of working adults in a South African context (Du Toit & Coetzee, 2012) and career anchors as a meta-capacity of subjective career success (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2014). Other South African studies have investigated the subjective career success of women (Chinyamurindi, 2016; Doubell & Struwig, 2014; Obers, 2014; Riordien, 2007; Riordan & Louw-Potgieter, 2011); the subjective career success of South African managers (Koekemoer, 2014; Visagie & Koekemoer, 2014) and the experiences of career success of graduate interns (Kanye & Crous, 2007). Some South African studies on subjective career success have focused on mentoring as an enhancement to the subjective career success of protégés (Rankhumise, 2013); career indecision and subjective career success (Maree, 2016a); career resources and the subjective work experiences of individuals (Coetzee et al., 2010).

As pointed out by the above-mentioned studies, subjective career success is based on individuals' experiences of psychological success and is also known as their career satisfaction (Hall, 2002, 2013; Ng & Feldman, 2014). If an individual is to feel that they have a meaningful and well-rounded career, career satisfaction has been seen as an integral component of career wellbeing (Abele & Spurk, 2009b; Diener, 2013; Kidd, 2008; Ng et al., 2005; Ng & Feldman, 2014; Seibert et al., 2001; Spurk & Abele, 2011). Within this study subjective career success is classified as career satisfaction.

Studies on career satisfaction stipulate that the construct pertains to an individual's general contentment with their choice of career path and the activities that make up this specific career path (Greenhaus et al., 1990; Jen, 2010; Locke, 1976; Spector, 1997). According to Holland's (1997) vocational theory, career satisfaction has to do with an individual's career-fit, while other research indicates that career satisfaction refers to an individual's positive emotions pertaining to specific career-related accomplishments and overall career success (Poole et al., 1993; Wickramasinghe & Jayaweera, 2010).

The opportunities that individuals have to build meaningful professional relationships have been found to affect their career satisfaction (Ng & Feldman, 2014). When individuals feel that their work brings them into contact with other individuals who may assist them in their professional development, enhance their chances of being employed or with whom they enjoy spending time, their career satisfaction will increase (Ng et al., 2005). Positive relationships with colleagues, managers and other individuals in their professional network are thus essential for individuals to perceive their careers as satisfactory (Koekemoer, 2014).

Individuals' perceptions of their employment or their own employability have been found to be a major predictor of career satisfaction (Ng et al., 2005; Ng & Feldman, 2014), while unemployment has been found to be negatively correlated with career satisfaction (Clark,

2016). Individuals' employability is highly dependent on their ability to adapt proactively to changes within the work environment, master their jobs and learn and develop new skills (Bozionelos et al., 2016). Career satisfaction is thus dependent on an individual's ability to be proactive, and to adapt, learn and master the work environment (Bozionelos et al., 2016; Ng et al., 2005; Ng & Feldman, 2014).

Socioeconomic changes have resulted in individuals moving across both organisational and national boundaries to ensure employment as well as greater satisfaction with their careers (Arthur, 2008, 2014; Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Inkson et al., 2008; Tams & Arthur, 2010). Individuals who show autonomous, proactive behaviour are more able to deal with the challenges posed by the modern workplace (Arthur, 2008) and those who have autonomy in managing their own careers will experience greater levels of career satisfaction (Greenhaus et al., 1990). Autonomous, proactive behaviour is thus a key component of career satisfaction (Abele & Spurk, 2009b; Ng et al., 2005; Ng & Feldman, 2010, 2014).

Career satisfaction is an important construct for research, as subjective feelings of accomplishment are correlated with many aspects of positive career wellbeing (Abele & Spurk, 2009a; Ng et al., 2005; Ng & Feldman, 2014). The relationship between career satisfaction and other constructs has been measured in several studies. Research indicates that career satisfaction correlates positively with subjective wellbeing (Abele-Brehm, 2014; Bowling, Eschleman, & Wang, 2010; Hart, 1998; Judge & Watanabe, 1993; Leung, Cheung, & Liu, 2011; Lounsbury et al., 2004; Rain, Lane, & Steiner, 1991). There are a number of researchers who believe that the relationship between career satisfaction and subjective wellbeing is reciprocal, thus implying that when a person is satisfied with their career, the person will experience wellbeing and vice versa (Abele-Brehm, 2014; Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Bowling et al., 2010; Lounsbury et al., 2004). Numerous other benefits are also associated with career satisfaction.

Career satisfaction holds several benefits for organisations. Studies have identified a positive correlation between career commitment and career satisfaction (Ballout, 2009). Barnett and Bradley (2007) identified a relationship between organisational support, career commitment and career satisfaction. Seibert, Crant, and Kraimer (1999) found a positive correlation between career satisfaction and salary progression, while Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, and Lima (2004) found that individuals who are more satisfied with their careers are more willing and will be better mentors than other employees.

Wallace (2001) found that individuals who were satisfied with their careers were absent less often and were willing to work longer hours than their less satisfied counterparts. Studies have

indicated that when employees feel satisfied with their careers, their general work morale is higher and their turnover intent is lower (Anastasiadou, 2007; Kokou & Lerodiakonou, 2007; Martin & Roodt, 2008). Another benefit of having employees who have the opportunity to reach their career goals was found to be an overall satisfaction with and engagement in their roles (Reitman & Schneer, 2003). Career satisfaction has also been found to be an important indicator of individuals' career wellbeing (Hirschi, 2012; Maggiori et al., 2013).

Spector (1997) maintains that career satisfaction may be defined on two levels: firstly, it may be defined on a holistic level which indicates whether an individual is satisfied with their career as a whole and, secondly, on a facet level where an individual indicates whether they are satisfied with the different aspects of their career path (Spector, 1997). Stumpf (2014) notes that career satisfaction also includes multifaceted psychological reactions to individuals' perceptions of their careers and indicates that these individual reactions may include cognitive, emotional and/or behavioural factors.

According to Ng et al. (2005), when individuals have the impression that their careers are not making progress and that they are stagnating and/or they are demotivated, they will feel dissatisfied with their careers. Ng et al. (2005) are of the opinion that career satisfaction refers to the individual's perception and evaluation regarding the achievement of career-related goals, psychological needs, plans and outcomes within a specific social environment. Thus, in essence, career satisfaction refers to individuals' subjective opinions on their own career-related accomplishments (Ng et al., 2005). Like career satisfaction, career wellbeing is also associated with the affective psychological reactions of individuals to their careers, (Kidd, 2008; Ng et al., 2005). Career wellbeing is seen as individuals' satisfaction with their careers over time (Kidd, 2008).

Next, the theoretical frameworks of career satisfaction are discussed.

#### **2.4.2 Theoretical frameworks of career satisfaction**

Career success may be seen as both objective (e.g. salary, job level) and subjective (level of satisfaction with own career) (Judge et al., 1994; Ng & Feldman, 2014; Sullivan & Arthur, 2006), while career satisfaction refers to individuals' evaluations of their own career success and is thus subjective (Arthur et al., 2005). As discussed in chapter 1, the theoretical lenses through which career satisfaction was studied include the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002) and the self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Career satisfaction is perceived as a psychosocial resource and intrinsic motivator that can be implemented to attain other resources such as career wellbeing and is also perceived as an

outcome resource that is valued on its own right. The emphasis of this section is on discussing specific theoretical frameworks concerning career satisfaction.

A number of theoretical models of career satisfaction (subjective career success) attempt to conceptualise career satisfaction in terms of the autonomous, proactive and adaptive approaches that individuals need to adopt if they are to have satisfactory careers within the contemporary world of work. These models include the theory of work adjustment, the indigenous model of career satisfaction, the individual aspiration perspective of career success, the calling model of career success, the contest-mobility model of career success, and the sponsored-mobility model of career success. These theoretical frameworks are discussed in this section.

#### *2.4.2.1 Theory of work adjustment*

The theory of work adjustment (TWA) (Dawis, 2002, 2005) is based on the concept that individuals take autonomous, proactive and adaptive steps to ensure greater environmental fit and career satisfaction during the management of their careers (Dawis, 2002, 2005). The TWA is a type of career management theory that is based on the individual-difference concept of vocational behaviour, namely, the person-environment correspondence theory (Dawis, 1992, 2002, 2005; Dawis & Lofquist, 1984).

The person-environment correspondence theory views career management and career choice as a continuous process of proactive adaptation and adjustment. Accordingly, (a) the individual searches for employment environments that would best match their requirements in terms of career-related needs while (b) the employment environment in turn searches for individuals with the requirements that would best meet the needs of the environment (Dawis, 2005). The term 'career satisfaction' is used in person-environment correspondence theory to indicate the level of contentment of individuals with their environments (Dawis, 2005). If individuals are to feel satisfied within their environments, it is important that their psychological needs are met (Dawis, 2005). The degree to which an individual's psychological needs are met and the employer's level of satisfaction with the individual's capabilities both have an impact on the individual's tenure within a specific employment environment (Dawis, 2005).

The TWA suggests four adjustment styles that have an impact on person-environment fit, namely, flexibility, activeness, reactivity, and perseverance (Dawis, 2005). Flexibility refers to the individual's tolerance of the individual-environment dis-correspondence and whether the individual will become dissatisfied with their environment over time (Dawis, 2005). Activeness, on the other hand, indicates the individual's propensity to proactively change or behave in relation to the environments in order to reduce the dis-correspondence and dis-satisfaction

(Dawis, 2005). Conversely, reactiveness indicates whether an individual would self-adjust in order to manage the dis-correspondence but without proactively changing or acting on their environments (Dawis, 2005). Finally, perseverance indicates the level of determination and persistence shown by individuals to adjust to their environments before choosing to leave the environment (Dawis, 2005).

One of the key strengths of the TWA is that a number of measures have been developed and validated across different cultures which test the four adjustment styles proposed by the theory (Dawis, 2005; Feij, Van der Velde, Taris, & Taris, 1999; Griffin & Hesketh, 2003; Tziner, Meir, & Segal, 2002). A significant number of studies have been conducted on the relationship between the theory of work adjustment and career satisfaction, career needs and values, tenure, and career abilities and skills (Dawis, 2005).

Holistically, the TWA attempts to provide insights into career management and career satisfaction with regard to individual-environment alignment and thus it also provides insights for career management professionals to assist individuals with career choice and career adjustment concerns (Dawis, 2005). It has been found that the factors that make up the dimensions of the TWA are measurable within a cross-cultural environment (Dawis, 2005).

#### *2.4.2.2 The indigenous model of career satisfaction*

Haar and Brougham's (2013) indigenous model of career satisfaction was developed within a predominantly collectivistic culture and thus a culture very similar to the South African work environment (Eaton & Louw, 2000; Haar & Brougham, 2013). In addition, the model has been found to be closely related to the construct of subjective wellbeing (Haar & Brougham, 2013). The model conceptualises the proactive and adaptive measures that individuals from a collectivistic cultural background take to achieve career satisfaction while also taking into account certain person-centric characteristics (Haar & Brougham, 2013).

Haar and Brougham (2013) developed the indigenous model of career satisfaction as a result of the argument that there was limited research available on the career satisfaction of employees who originate from collectivistic cultures. Using a sample of 172 Maori working adults, the indigenous inhabitants of New Zealand, Haar and Brougham (2013) constructed a model of career satisfaction.

The indigenous model of career satisfaction has its roots in both Ng et al.'s (2005) sponsored mobility model of career success and Pachulicz, Schmitt, and Kuljanin's (2008) model of career success. Ng et al.'s (2005) sponsored mobility model of career success is grounded on the premise that organisations will sponsor or support certain individuals based on their acquired skills, knowledge and/or sociodemographic variables, thus enabling them to achieve career

satisfaction. This sponsorship of certain individuals over others will ensure that some individuals achieve higher levels of career satisfaction in comparison to their counterparts (Ng et al., 2005). Pachulicz et al.'s (2008) model of career success includes four factors, namely, (1) human capital, (2) sociodemographic variables, (3) organisational sponsorship and (4) individual difference.

During the development of their model, Haar and Brougham (2013) considered the collectivistic culture of the Maori people as a potential moderator and found that collectivism interacts significantly with subjective wellbeing. This indicates that subjective wellbeing is highly correlated with career satisfaction irrespective of the collectivist orientation (Haar & Brougham, 2013).

Figure 2.6 presents a summary of the indigenous model of career satisfaction (Haar & Brougham, 2013).

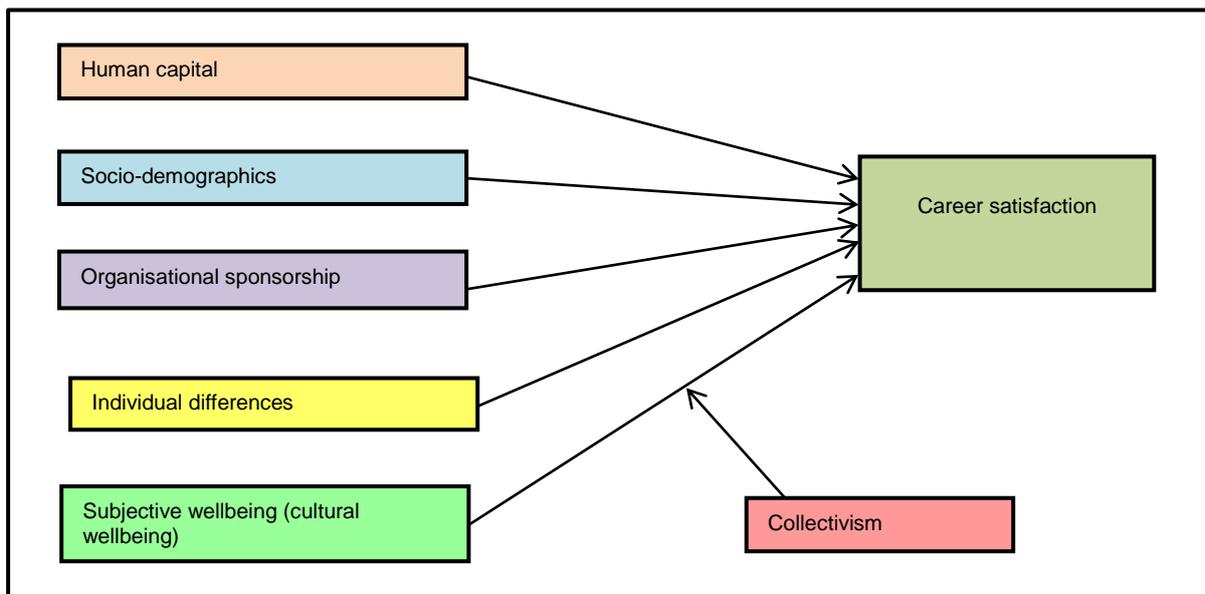


Figure 2.6: The indigenous model of career satisfaction (Haar & Brougham, 2013, p. 882)

#### 2.4.2.3 The individual aspiration perspective of career success

Ullrich (2010) and Dolan, Bejarano, and Tzafirir (2011) found evidence for the individual aspiration perspective of career success. Dolan et al.'s 2011 conceptual model shows the relationship between individual aspirations and career success as moderated by the sociodemographic factor of gender (see Figure 2.7). Dolan et al. (2011) used the research of Derr (1986), which stipulates five factors of career success, to determine the relationship between individual career aspirations and career success while controlling for gender differences (Dolan et al., 2011). Derr's (1986) career success aspiration taxonomy may be described as follows:

- *Getting high*: Involves the pursuit of expertise and excitement in work in order to gain a respectable reputation within the work environment. According to Dolan et al. (2011), when individuals are interested in developing their expertise they are able to develop the skills and knowledge that assist them to adapt to their environments.
- *Getting free*: Involves the pursuit of autonomy and independence in one's work and career aspirations. Dolan et al. (2011) are of the opinion that when individuals manage their careers in an autonomous manner they are more prepared to confront the challenges posed to them by their environments.
- *Getting balance*: Involves the pursuit of balance between the challenges of work and personal life. Research states that when individuals are able to adapt to the needs of both their personal lives and their work they will experience greater career satisfaction (Dolan et al., 2011; Ng & Feldman, 2014)
- *Getting secure*: Involves the pursuit of stability in both employment and career. Dolan et al. (2011) maintain that when individuals are interested in their employment and career stability, they will adapt to the needs to their organisations in order to ensure they are more employable than they may otherwise have been.
- *Getting ahead*: Involves the pursuit of status or a good reputation within the organisation or society. Dolan et al. (2011) state that this aspiration assists individuals to persevere when their environments pose challenges.

According to Dolan et al. (2011), the attainment of individual aspirations is a predictor of both objective and subjective career success. Dolan et al. (2011) postulate that when individuals aspire to achieving freedom, security, balance and "getting high", they will be able to adapt to the challenges posed by their work environments and attain greater satisfaction in their careers.

Figure 2.7 illustrates the relationship between individual aspirations and career success as moderated by gender.

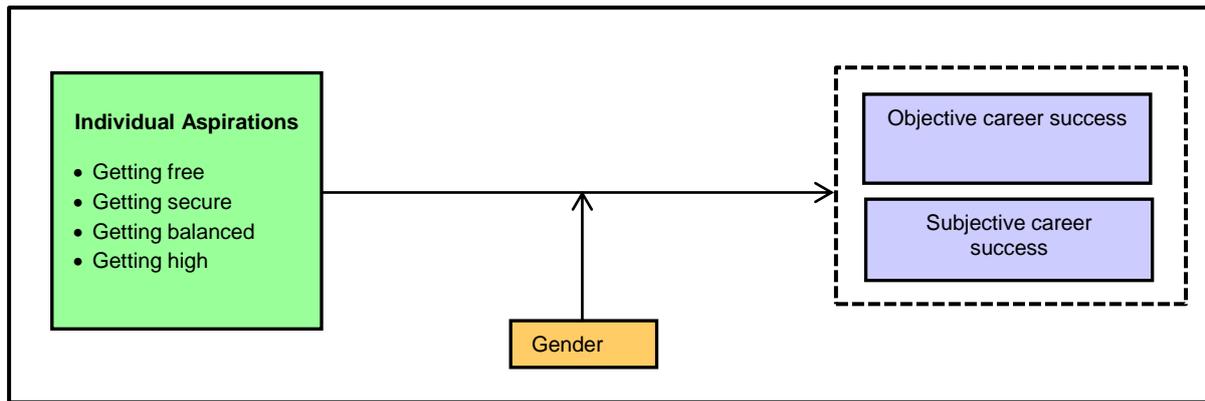


Figure 2.7: Career aspirations, career success, and gender (Dolan et al., 2011, p. 3151)

#### 2.4.2.4 The calling model of career success

The calling model of career success stipulates that if individuals perceive their career as a calling or assisting them to achieve a higher purpose, it creates a feedback loop success cycle that enables individuals to construct their careers in an adaptive, flexible and self-directed manner (Hall & Chandler 2005). As depicted in Figure 2.8, this multifaceted cycle repeats itself over the career span of individuals and is an indicator of how individuals adapt to both their work environments and their career contexts and develop confidence in terms of dealing with changes (Hall & Chandler, 2005).

The calling model of career success has been reinforced by previous studies on the enhancement of self-confidence by setting clear goals and by expending extra effort to achieve greater career satisfaction (Hall & Chandler, 2005). According to the model, calling comprises a number of factors, namely, (a) each individual has their own unique calling; (b) calling includes requirements such as talent, willingness to explore one's purpose, and also feeling passionate about the calling; (c) calling allows individuals to enjoy their hard work; and (d) a calling is not always easy to realise as individuals need to persevere, build relationships, reflect on past events and explore different options (Hall & Chandler, 2005). Individuals who incorporate elements of the calling model will achieve greater satisfaction in their careers as they perceive their careers as fulfilling a greater calling rather than merely satisfying personal needs (Hall & Chandler, 2005).

Figure 2.8 summarises the factors and process involved in the calling model of career success (Hall & Chandler, 2005).

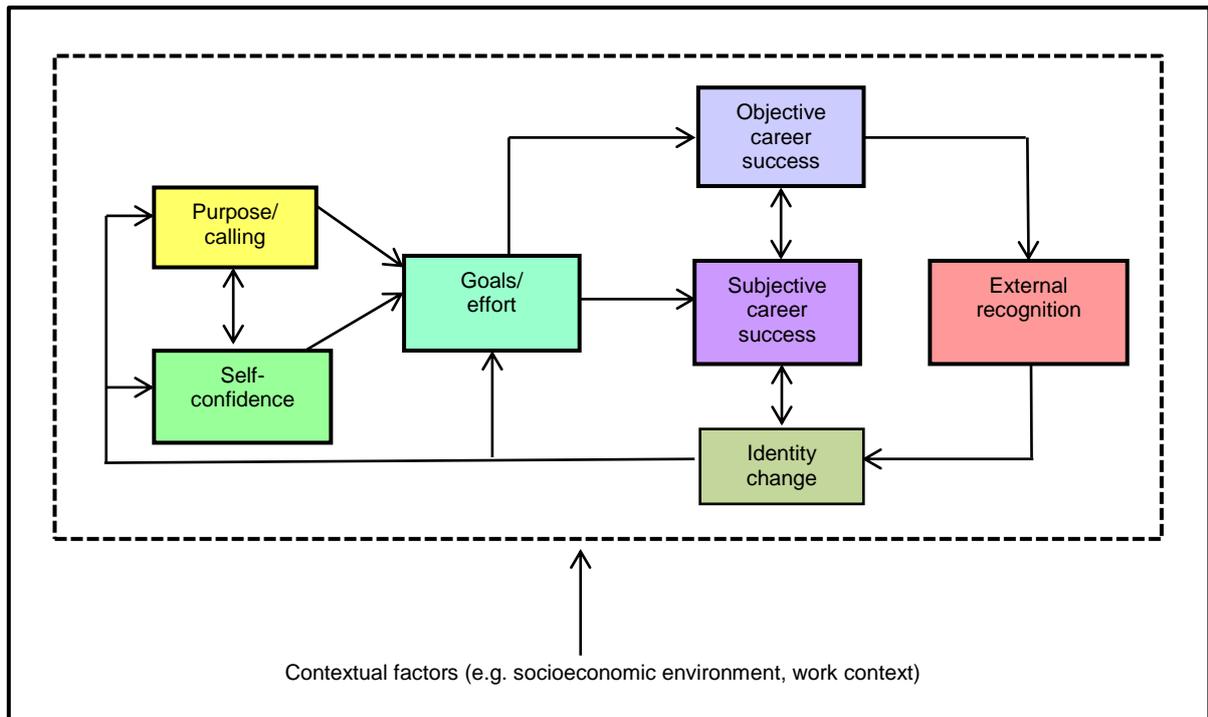


Figure 2.8: The calling model of career success (Hall & Chandler, 2005, p.165)

#### 2.4.2.5 Contest-mobility model of career success

Turner (1960) recommended the contest-mobility model according to which every individual is in open contest with other individuals in their careers to achieve both objective and subjective career success. The model suggests that each individual utilises different strategies in order to attain certain credentials that are related to certain goals such as career satisfaction (Turner, 1960). The model postulates that no individual has any advantages over others but that the individuals who emerge as successful will be the individuals who possess the qualities required to achieve success.

Rosenbaum (1984) supports this viewpoint by stating that individuals are in constant competition with others and are constantly improving themselves in order to succeed within challenging work environments. Ng et al. (2005) build further on this point by stating that certain individual factors such as education and tenure will assist individuals to achieve higher levels of career satisfaction than others. Ng and Feldman (2014) state that the individual trait of adaptability assists some individuals to achieve greater levels of career satisfaction when compared to others.

#### 2.4.2.6 The sponsored-mobility model of career success

According to the sponsored-mobility model (Ng et al. 2005), individuals have access to a limited number of career strategies only and only those individuals who possess certain characteristics and contacts within an organisation will emerge as successful. Turner (1960)

argues that success within organisations is not earned but is given to individuals based on certain criteria.

Ng et al. (2005) go on to state that, for individuals to be successful in an organisation, they need the support and sponsorship of those in power. This means that individual success is not necessarily based on effort, but rather on whom those in power choose to sponsor (Ng et al., 2005). In the organisational context, this means that individuals who are supported by leadership will have more access to the resources such as training and development opportunities that will allow them to experience more objective and subjective career success. Individuals who are able to adapt to the needs of their organisations are more likely to be sponsored by those in power (Ng et al., 2005).

Table 2.4 provides an overview of the key findings of the theoretical models related to career satisfaction.

Table 2.4

*Summary of the Theoretical Models Related to Career Satisfaction*

Theoretical models	Conceptualisation	Elements	Core conclusions
<b>Theory of work adjustment</b> (Dawis, 2002, 2005)	Individuals take proactive, independent, and flexible steps to adjust to their work environments and achieve career satisfaction.	Flexibility. Activeness. Reactiveness. Perseverance.	Proactive and adaptive behaviour will lead to greater individual-environment alignment and career satisfaction.
<b>Indigenous model of career satisfaction</b> (Haar & Brougham, 2013)	The model focuses on the proactive and adaptive measures that individuals from collectivistic background take to achieve career satisfaction.	Human Capital. Sociodemographics. Organisational Sponsorship. Individual differences. Subjective wellbeing (Cultural wellbeing).	Collectivism interacts significantly with subjective wellbeing and career satisfaction.
<b>Individual aspiration perspective of career success</b> (Dolan et al., 2011; Ullrich, 2010)	The attainment of individual aspirations is a predictor of both objective and subjective career success.	Freedom. Security. Balance. Getting high.	When individuals aspire to achieving the elements of the model they will be able to achieve career satisfaction.
<b>Calling model of career success</b> (Hall & Chandler 2005)	Career success is seen as achieving a higher calling.	Unique calling. Key requirements to achieve calling. Enjoy hard work. Calling is not always easy.	When individuals align themselves to their career calling they will experience greater career satisfaction.
<b>Contest-mobility model of career success</b> (Turner, 1960)	Individuals are in contest with others to achieve objective and subjective career success.	Individuals utilise different strategies to achieve career satisfaction. Individuals are in contest with others.	Individuals who develop and display certain characteristics will be more satisfied with their careers than those who are less effective.



Table 2.4 cont'd

Theoretical models	Conceptualisation	Elements	Core conclusions
<b>Sponsored-mobility model of career success</b> (Ng et al., 2005)	The organisation will sponsor certain individuals, based on certain characteristics, to achieve career success.	Individuals who have more resources have more power. Individuals will be sponsored based on certain characteristics. Individuals' success is not always based on effort.	Individuals who possess certain traits and resources will be sponsored by those in power which will lead to more career satisfaction.

In short, this subsection provided an overview of the theoretical models related to career satisfaction. The TWA (Dawis, 2002, 2005) emphasised the point that modern employees need to be flexible, adaptable and proactive in order to have satisfactory careers (Dawis, 2002, 2005). The indigenous model of career satisfaction (Haar & Brougham, 2013) was also provided in this subsection as a model of career satisfaction which has been validated in a work environment similar to the South African context. The indigenous model of career satisfaction indicates that collectivism is positively related to both subjective wellbeing and career satisfaction (Haar & Brougham, 2013).

The foregoing literature review indicated that the individual aspiration perspective of career success postulates that individuals who achieve their own career aspirations are more satisfied with their careers (Dolan et al., 2011; Ullrich, 2010). This subsection discussed the calling model of career success which points out that individuals who achieve a greater calling are more satisfied with their careers (Hall & Chandler 2005). The contest mobility model of career success points out that individuals who possess certain resources, traits and characteristics are more able than others to achieve career satisfaction (Turner, 1960). Lastly, the subsection discussed the sponsored-mobility model of career success which points out that the organisation will sponsor certain individuals to achieve career success who possess certain resources, traits and characteristics (Ng et al., 2005).

Next, the person-centred variables that affect career satisfaction are discussed.

### 2.4.3 Person-centred variables influencing career satisfaction

Career satisfaction is conceptualised as an individual's subjective assessment of their career success (Arthur, 2008). Several person-centred variables have been found to have an impact on the level of career satisfaction that individuals experience (Ng et al., 2005). This section discusses the person-centred variables of race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure that influence career satisfaction.

#### 2.4.3.1 Race

Hofstede (2001) conducted an in-depth investigation into the sociodemographic variables that influence individuals' perceptions of success. The study found that the degree to which an individual is either individualistic or collectivistic has an impact on career satisfaction (Hofstede, 2001). The study also showed that power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and gender bias all have a significant impact on career satisfaction (Hofstede, 2001).

Hofstede (2001) suggested that different cultural groups (measured in this study in terms of race groups) have different perspectives of work-related values and thus their interpretations of career satisfaction are also different. Culture has been found to have a considerable impact on the distribution of career prospects across different groups, for example in certain societies women are not allowed to work while some cultures are divided into caste systems and others in terms of equality (Hofstede, 2001). Being employed, having the opportunity to work and being treated fairly are also major predictors of career satisfaction (Ng et al., 2005).

In Western societies, the most common ideological paradigm that has an impact on career satisfaction is capitalism, which postulates that meritocracy (i.e. hard work, talent and competence) should be rewarded by career outcomes such as promotion (Dries et al., 2009). Individuals in capitalistic societies are more satisfied with their careers when they feel that they are being rewarded fairly for their efforts (Dries et al., 2009). On the other hand, the ideological paradigm of communism is more popular in other societies. According to this paradigm equality is a key value (i.e. all individuals are equal, regardless of their position in society) and personal sacrifices and hard work serve the community and not the individual (Lucas, Liu, & Buzzanell, 2006). In these communistic societies career satisfaction is not the key value for individuals as greater emphasis is placed on the needs of the community (Lucas et al., 2006).

Research by Du Toit and Coetzee (2012) on the subjective career success of working adults in South Africa found six factors of subjective career success to be important for a predominately young, black sample. These factors include fair payment, job characteristics, development prospects, manager support, career mobility, and work–life balance. A study by Koh, Shen, and Lee (2016) found that white individuals demonstrated slightly higher levels of career satisfaction compared to their black counterparts.

The results of a survey of individuals in the South African work context showed that black South Africans tend to experience greater workplace racial harassment than other racial groups and, as a result, show lower levels of career satisfaction (Stoermer, Hitotsuyanagi-Hansel, & Froese, 2017). Moreover, Stoermer et al. (2017) found that the impact of workplace

racial harassment on career satisfaction is amplified for black individuals who are highly career-orientated and driven to succeed.

Research shows that salary, promotions, skill development and skill utilisation all have a significant influence on career satisfaction (Ng et al., 2005; Ng & Feldman, 2014). Theoretical models of career satisfaction (e.g. Ng et al., 2005) imply that compared to the other racial groups, African and coloured individuals (both collectivistic cultures) manifest lower career satisfaction due to their lower levels of salary and education, and the low skill professions they are in (Eaton & Louw, 2000; Ng et al., 2005).

This finding contradicted the findings of João and Coetzee (2012), who indicate that black individuals in the South African work context view career progression, growth prospects and career development support as more significant than do the other racial groups. Coetzee and Stoltz (2015) argue that the higher levels of career satisfaction of black individuals in the South African work context is due to the employment equity, affirmative action and skills development legislation in the country.

The South African Employment Equity Act (No. 55 of 1998) requires organisations to afford black employees enhanced career training and development opportunities (Republic of South Africa, 1998). Thus, the higher levels of career satisfaction of black individuals may be explained by the employment legislation which encourages organisations to assist black South Africans in their career advancement and development efforts (Republic of South Africa, 1998). White South African employees have been found to place more emphasis on work–life balance in comparison to black employees (Van Dyk & Coetzee, 2012). Due to the demands that the modern workplace puts on employees' work–life balance white individuals report lower levels of career satisfaction (Van Dyk & Coetzee, 2012).

#### *2.4.3.2 Gender*

Evers and Sieverding (2014) conducted a study on the factors that influence career satisfaction for both men and women. They found that a discontinuous career history has a negative impact on career satisfaction and also that certain human capital factors are better compensated for men than for women. According to Evers and Sieverding (2014), although women today have enjoyed better representation in organisations and experience greater ease in finding employment compared to women in the past, it would appear that women are continuing to experience lower levels of career satisfaction than their male counterparts. Ng et al. (2005) used salary and promotion as indicators of objective wellbeing and found overall larger effect sizes for gender differences in salary than in promotions, with this resulting in lower levels of career satisfaction for women. Evers and Sieverding (2014) argue that traditional gender roles

play the most important role in explaining gender differences in terms of career satisfaction as men tend to be promoted more frequently than women.

García-Bernal et al. (2005) found that women reported equal or greater career satisfaction than men. According to García-Bernal et al. (2005), women report these higher levels of career satisfaction as they are not as competitive as men and also because it would appear that men voice their dissatisfaction more readily than women. However, García-Bernal et al. (2005) also found that the impact of family responsibility and the content of the job did not account for any difference between men and women in terms of career satisfaction.

According to Evers and Sieverding (2014), traditional gender roles are not only associated with specific responsibilities; specific personality characteristics are also to be expected of the respective genders. Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell, and Ristikari (2011) maintain that the typical personality characteristics that men show continue to be perceived by organisations as the characteristics of successful employees. Evers and Sieverding (2014) also point out that because women generally tend to assume responsibility for the raising of children, their career trajectories are often interrupted and this has a negative impact on their career satisfaction.

In a study by differences in terms of productivity and salary as measures of career success, Kirchmeyer (2005) found that the productivity levels of women, in the middle period of their careers, were up to 35% lower than the levels of productivity of their male counterparts. In addition, women earned lower remuneration returns from promotions than men. Kirchmeyer (2005) states that lower levels of salary, promotion and productivity have a negative impact on career satisfaction. According to Kirchmeyer (2005), a possible reason for the differences in salary, promotion and productivity may be that many women still assume the traditional role of primary family caregivers and are thus forced to work fewer hours in a month than men (Kirchmeyer, 2005). A study by Ng and Feldman (2010) found a strong relationship between the education and salaries of women and their career satisfaction.

Several studies have shown that females experience more career satisfaction than their male counterparts (Bradley, Brown & Dower, 2009; Clark 1997; Gaziougly & Tansel, 2006; Van Praag, Frijters, & Ferrer-i-Carbonell, 2003). Judge et al. (1995) found that men and women have different outlooks in relation to career prospects like skills development and career attainments like promotions because women are more content with their career success than men. From a subjective career success perspective, Eby, Butts, and Lockwood (2003) reported that education is a more powerful predictor of career satisfaction for women when compared to men.

Eddleston, Baldrige, and Veiga (2004) found that mentoring programmes had a positive impact on the career satisfaction of both men and women. Maintier, Joulain, and Le Floch (2011) pointed out that there are differences in terms of the way in which career satisfaction is perceived by women in comparison to men.

The literature also shows that other sociodemographic factors such as number/gender of siblings and marital status may influence the differences in career satisfaction between the genders (Punnett et al., 2006). Stumpf and Tymon, (2012) found that gender moderates the relationship between objective and subjective career success.

A South African study by Martin and Barnard (2013) found differences in the subjective career success of men and women. According to Martin and Barnard (2013), women in the South African work context often struggle to have successful careers due to the prevalence of gender discrimination and bias. Martin and Barnard (2013) also state that in industries that are typically characterised by higher levels of male representation than female representation, organisations often do not accommodate women in terms of their physical and work–life balance needs and this has a negative impact on their career satisfaction.

Another South African study by Kiaye and Singh (2013) found that certain elements of the so-called glass ceiling for women still existed. According to Kiaye and Singh (2013), factors such as gender discrimination, disrespect, and work–life interference have a negative impact on women's ability to have satisfactory careers. Obers (2014) found in line with the sponsored mobility model (Ng et al., 2005) that organisations often provide men with more training, development and mentorship to enhance their careers.

#### 2.4.3.3 Age

Buckley and Petrunik (1995) indicate that time, stages of career and circumstances all have an impact on career satisfaction. Zacher (2014) found that young age positively predicted career adaptability and career satisfaction over time. Zacher (2014) points to the existence of a strong correlation between career adaptability and young age and that younger individuals are more motivated to achieve career satisfaction than their older colleagues.

Research by Judge et al. (1995) and Ng et al. (2005) found old age to be negatively related to subjective career success. According to Riordan and Louw-Potgieter (2011), as individuals set the goals for their own careers, the unsuccessful attainment of these goals by a certain age has a negative impact on career satisfaction.

Jung and Takeuchi (2014) conducted a longitudinal study to determine the impact of age on career planning and career success from a lifespan perspective. They found that younger

individuals were more able to implement career self-management practices in order to achieve career satisfaction than their older colleagues. Jung and Takeuchi (2014) also highlighted that middle-aged individuals tended to value investment in their own career development to achieve career satisfaction more than their younger and older counterparts.

Traditional career theories (Super, 1957, 1990) perceive career paths in terms of lifespan as divided into distinctive phases with the associated challenges, tasks and career satisfaction factors being related to each phase. Although contemporary research states that the development tasks associated with the modern career are not necessarily age-related or divided into distinct phases (Coetzee, 2014b), many of the assumptions made by Super's (1957, 1990) lifespan theory still apply today (Savickas, 2013). According to Super (1957, 1990), the career stages are characterised through respective ages with 18 to 35 years as early adulthood or career establishment; 36 to 50 years as mid-life or career achievement and 50+ years as the late life stage. Researchers maintain that young adults (18–35 years) are required to adjust to numerous new roles involving work, family, and social life, often simultaneously (Feldman, 1976). Individuals who are successful in their careers during this phase are labelled as 'high potentials' (Dolezalek, 2007).

According to research, 'the dream' that was developed in young adulthood is re-evaluated in mid-life (36–50 years) (Erikson, 1963, 1966; Levinson, 1978). For individuals who feel that they have reached a career plateau the mid-life may be perceived as a time of diminished opportunities with this leading to lower levels of career satisfaction (Nachbagauer & Riedl, 2002). Individuals who have achieved high levels of career satisfaction in the latter stages of their careers are labelled as 'high flyers' (Ismail, Rasdi, & Wahat, 2004).

A South African study that utilised the above-mentioned life-stage theory of career success (Super, 1957, 1990) found no differences between employees' career success (objective and subjective) in relation to their career establishment, mid-life and late life career stages (Riordan & Louw-Potgieter, 2011).

#### *2.4.3.4 Qualification*

Educational qualifications have been examined in a number of studies as a predictor of career attainment and success (Judge et al., 1994; Wayne, Liden, Kraimer, & Graf, 1999). Ng et al. (2005) are of the opinion that educational qualifications add to an individual's value in the job market and are thus a significant predictor of career satisfaction. Becker (1964) maintains that low educational qualifications constitute a noteworthy barrier to individuals who want to attain high status occupations and this impacts negatively on their career satisfaction. According to Ng and Feldman (2014), low educational qualifications may have a negative impact on career

satisfaction as individuals may feel that there are constraints in relation to their achieving their career goals.

Eddleston et al.'s (2004) study shows that education has a direct impact on the readiness of individuals to make certain adaptations and changes to both their careers and their own perception of their career marketability and this subsequently has an impact on their career satisfaction.

#### *2.4.3.5 Job level*

Ng et al. (2005) argue that those individuals who have more control over organisational resources, that is, in higher job levels, will have more support from the organisation in terms of developing themselves and achieving career satisfaction. Ng et al. (2005) also highlight that, according to the sponsored mobility model, organisations often sponsor certain individuals based on specific sociodemographic traits, for example job level, for promotion. Becker (1975) maintains that organisations allocate compensation, such as promotion, to their employees according to their inputs into the organisation. An individual's ability to make more inputs into the organisation than another individual is often based on the individual's control over certain resources (Brown & Hesketh, 2004). In view of the fact that managers usually make a significant contribution to the organisation it may be said that they will be promoted more quickly than those in non-managerial roles and they will thus experience higher levels of career satisfaction (Ng et al., 2005).

Bakker and Demerouti (2008) found a positive relationship between engagement and career satisfaction, while Robinson (2007) found that managers tend to be more engaged in their work than non-managers. This may mean that managers experience higher levels of career satisfaction than non-managers as they are more engaged in their work (Robinson, 2007).

#### *2.4.3.6 Tenure*

Ng et al. (2005) found that there is not necessarily a positive relationship between tenure and subjective wellbeing. In addition, Ng et al. (2005) found a weaker relationship between organisational tenure and career satisfaction for women in comparison to men. According to Kirchmeyer (1998), managers who have been with the organisation for longer than other managers experience higher levels of both objective (salary) and subjective career success (satisfaction). Kirchmeyer (1998) also found that managers who have been with the organisation for longer periods of time have stronger networks and professional relationships than their counterparts and thus they experience higher levels of career satisfaction.

Kameny et al. (2014) found that minority groups and individuals who have not been with the organisation for a long time are less likely to be promoted than their counterparts and this

negatively affects their career satisfaction. Kameny et al. (2014) also found that individuals who are less tenured are less likely to receive support from the organisation in terms of resource allocation to assist them in advancing their careers and this then negatively affects their career satisfaction.

According to Ferreira (2012), there is a positive relationship between role embeddedness and tenure as time allows for the development of work-related competence and networks. Stumpf (2014) found positive relationships between role embeddedness, job mobility, promotions and career satisfaction.

In summary, this subsection discussed the person-centric variables that affect career satisfaction. As indicated by Ng et al. (2005) and the sponsored mobility model of career success, there are certain person-centred variables that will have an impact on who those in power in an organisation are willing to sponsor. It has been found that race, gender, age, tenure, qualification, and job level will influence who the organisation chooses to sponsor (Evers & Sieverding, 2014; Ng et al., 2005; Ng & Feldman, 2014; Shields, & Cassada, 2016). These person-centred variables will thus have an impact on the level of career satisfaction that different individuals will experience (Dolan et al., 2011; Hall & Chandler, 2005; Kidd, 2008; Ng et al., 2005).

It was found that black South Africans report higher levels of career satisfaction than other racial groups (Coetzee & Stoltz, 2015). Moreover, it was found that racial harassment has a negative impact on the career satisfaction of individuals in South Africa. Nevertheless, there seems to be a gap in the research in terms of some of the other negative career-related experiences (Stoermer et al., 2017). The literature review pointed out that females experience higher levels of career satisfaction in relation to men (Clark 1997; Gaziougly & Tansel, 2006; Kirchmeyer, 2005; Van Praag et al., 2003). Studies found that young age positively predicted career adaptability and career self-management practices which would lead to career satisfaction (Zacher 2014). A South African study, however, found no differences between employees' career satisfaction in terms of their age-related career stages (Riordan & Louw-Potgieter, 2011).

Ng et al. (2005) argue that those who have more control over organisational resources such as those in higher job levels will have more support from the organisation in terms of developing themselves and achieving career satisfaction. This finding was replicated by Kameny et al. (2014) who found that individuals who are less tenured are less likely to get support from the organisation in terms of resource allocation to assist them in advancing their careers. Studies show that career satisfaction decreases over the first year of employment,

but does not change significantly during the years of employment after that (Boswell et al., 2009). Ng and Feldman (2014) indicate that low educational qualifications could have a negative impact on subjective career success.

There seems to be an opportunity to study career satisfaction across diverse sociodemographic contexts as well as in the South African context, as most studies have either focused on specific industries, job levels or groups (Koekemoer, 2014).

#### **2.4.4 Evaluation and synthesis**

The term 'career satisfaction', as an indicator of career wellbeing, was conceptualised in the section. It was found that career satisfaction is a multifaceted construct and is dependent on individual career experiences (Abele & Spurk, 2009b; Ng & Feldman, 2010, 2014; Ng et al., 2005). The research shows that career satisfaction has several benefits for both the individual and the organisation (Koekemoer, 2014).

A number of theoretical frameworks of career satisfaction that encapsulate the psychological experiences of working adults during the construction of their careers were discussed. The theoretical frameworks that were discussed agree that individuals need to develop and display proactive and adaptive behaviour in order to achieve career satisfaction within the 21st century world of work. It was found that career satisfaction is theoretically closely related to career wellbeing, which makes it possible for the construct to serve as an indicator of career wellbeing (Abele & Spurk, 2009b; Ng & Feldman, 2010; 2014; Ng et al., 2005). At the time of the study, there seemed to be paucity in the research which relates career satisfaction to the career wellbeing related resources of occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations.

The section concluded with a review of the available literature on the person-centric variables that influence career satisfaction. In the South African context, there is clearly a need for more research into career satisfaction across different sociodemographic groups. South African research on career satisfaction has focused primarily on career satisfaction of managers with graduate degrees (Koekemoer, 2014) and did not consider other sociodemographic factors such as gender, age, job level and tenure that may have an influence on career satisfaction.

### **2.5 CHAPTER EVALUATION AND SYNTHESIS**

The chapter emphasised that the modern work context is typified by the rapid changes that stem from globalisation, technological advancement, and the need for knowledge workers in the 21st century world of work (Savickas, 2013; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016; Sullivan, 2013). These changes have made it more challenging for individuals to manage their careers,

experience career growth, and ensure their career wellbeing, thus resulting in the responsibility for career advancement being shifted from the organisation to the individual (Arthur, 2014; Savickas, 2005, 2013). These changes have thus resulted in the evolution of careers within the 21st century workplace.

The modern career encapsulates a number of changes and movements and no longer follows a traditional, hierarchical process within a single organisation (Savickas, 2013). The changes within the modern workplace have resulted in the emergence of a number of career perspectives in an attempt to describe the movements, challenges, and success factors that characterise the modern career (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016). These career outlooks include the boundaryless career outlook, the protean career outlook, the global career outlook, the entrepreneurial approach to careers, and the kaleidoscope career outlook (Arthur, 2008; Fayolle & Liñán, 2014; Hall, 2004; Inkson et al., 2012; Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005; Savickas, 2005, 2013).

It was identified that working adults have certain career concerns which preoccupy their minds and which emerge during the individual's career management (Coetzee, 2014b). The chapter pointed out that, within the challenging work environment of today, individuals need to show autonomous, proactive, and adaptive behaviour in order to manage their careers successfully and experience greater career satisfaction and ultimately career wellbeing.

The construct of career wellbeing, which stems from subjective wellbeing, was described as a multidimensional construct (Kidd, 2008). In view of the fact that work and careers play a pivotal role in the lives of individuals, work and careers have an impact on the overall wellbeing of individuals (Diener, 2013). In essence, career wellbeing refers to the degree to which individuals are satisfied with their career decisions and the extent to which they experience subjective distress related to their career decisions over time (Creed & Blume, 2013; Kidd, 2008). Career wellbeing is associated with a number of work and life related outcomes. The construct of career satisfaction was conceptualised in this chapter as a key indicator of career wellbeing within the contemporary world of work. Certain sociodemographic variables were also discussed in order to determine whether individuals from diverse backgrounds differ significantly in terms of their race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure when it comes to the constructs of career wellbeing and career satisfaction.

Figure 2.9 illustrates the key purpose of this chapter namely to provide the meta-theoretical context of the study in terms of providing insight into career wellbeing and career satisfaction within the contemporary world of work.

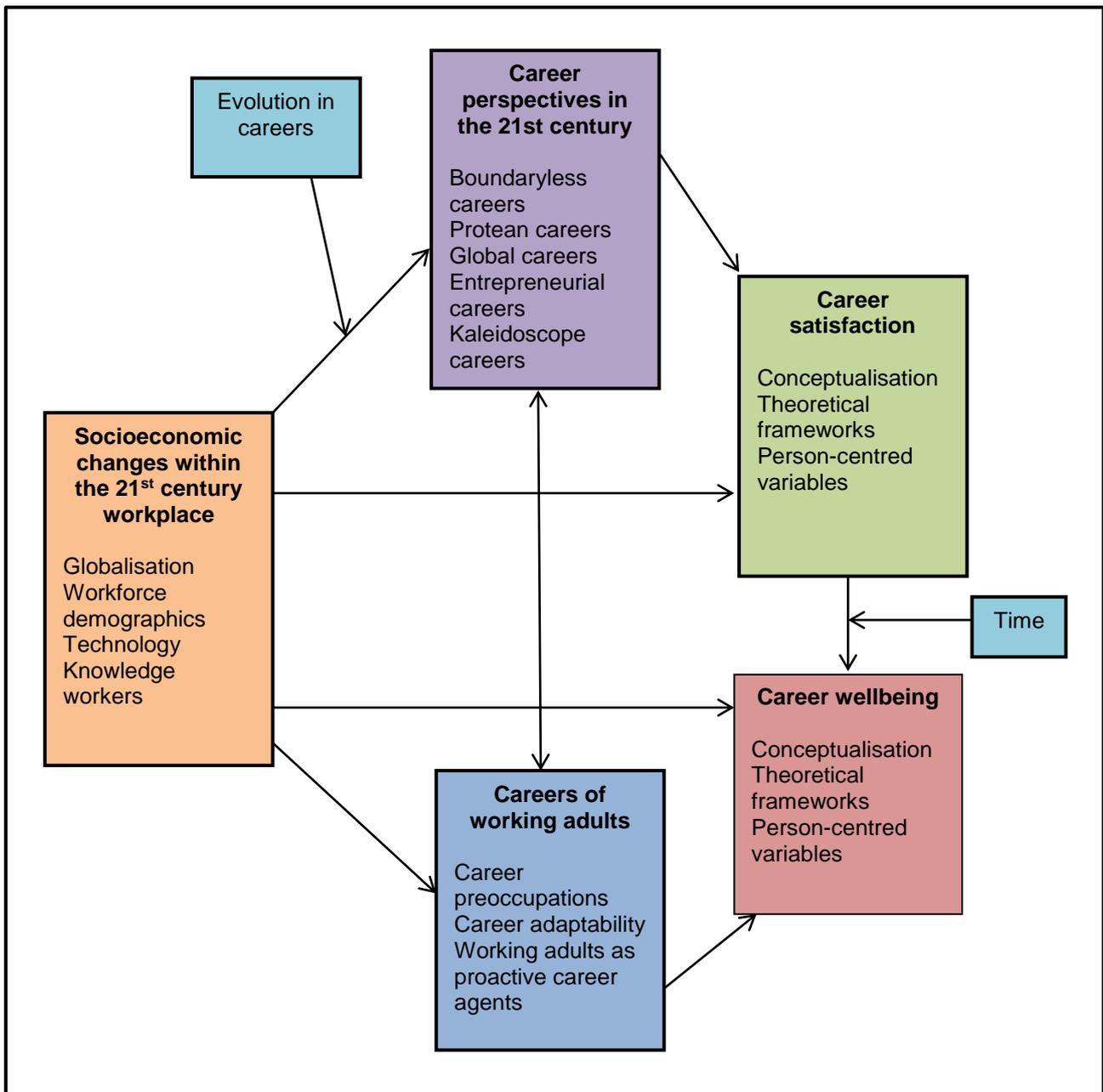


Figure 2.9: Career wellbeing and career satisfaction within the contemporary workplace

## 2.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 2 addressed the first literature research aim, namely, how the existing literature defines career wellbeing and career satisfaction within the contemporary world of work. This chapter aimed to provide information on the meta-theoretical context of the study in terms of career wellbeing and career satisfaction within the contemporary world of work. The chapter provided context in terms careers in the contemporary world of work and analysed the socioeconomic factors influencing career satisfaction and career wellbeing as well as different career perspectives in the 21st century.

The study looked to discuss the careers of working adults in terms of the psychological life tasks/challenges and vocational tasks of proactive behaviour and career adaptability that arise due to career-related preoccupations.

The literature discussed wellbeing in terms of objective and subjective wellbeing. It was found that career wellbeing is a form of subjective wellbeing. The construct of career wellbeing was discussed as conceptualised in the relevant literature. The chapter also discussed career satisfaction as an indicator of career wellbeing.

Literature research aim 1 was thus achieved:

Research aim 1: To determine how the literature defines career wellbeing and career satisfaction within the contemporary world of work context.

The following chapter discusses the second research aim, namely, to determine how the literature conceptualises the constructs of occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations in relation to career wellbeing and career satisfaction.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **OCCUPATIONAL PASSION, PSYCHOLOGICAL CAREER RESOURCES AND PSYCHOSOCIAL CAREER PREOCCUPATIONS**

Chapter 3 addresses the second literature research aim pertaining to the conceptualisation of the constructs occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations, which serve as psychological resources and intrinsic motivators of career wellbeing. The variables that are associated with each of the constructs are discussed in this chapter.

More specifically, information regarding the conceptualisation, the relevant theoretical models and the person-centric factors for of the constructs of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations are provided in this chapter. This is congruent with step two of phase one of the research method, as identified in Chapter 1 of this study. This chapter evaluates the implications of the research hypothesis for career management, as well as the career wellbeing of working adults, and discusses career wellbeing possible interventions.

Finally, the review of the literature discussed in Chapters 1, 2 and 3 will enable the researcher to develop a conceptual framework for exploring the relationship between the variables of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction from various theoretical perspectives. This framework will form the basis of the proposed integrated theoretical model of career wellbeing which is discussed in chapter 4.

#### **3.1 OCCUPATIONAL PASSION**

The construct of passion toward work, that is, occupational passion, has received much research attention in recent years (Burke et al., 2014; Ho & Lee, 2011; Vallerand 2010; Vallerand, 2015; Vallerand & Houliort, 2003; Vallerand et al., 2003; Zigarmi et al., 2009). In this section a critical evaluation on the definitions and conceptualisations, from various scholars, of the construct of occupational passion is provided. Theoretical frameworks that apply to the concept of occupational passion that are relevant to the study are discussed and the person-centric variables that influence occupational passion are described.

##### **3.1.1 Conceptualisation**

Many researchers and philosophers have attempted to conceptualise the concept of passion over the years. This section describes the different conceptualisations that are associated with the term 'passion' and passion toward work, that is, occupational passion.

As the word 'passion' is derived from the Greek word *pathos* and the Latin word *patio*, which both mean suffering, ancient Greek philosophers saw the concept of passion as synonymous with hardship (Konstan, 2006). Research by Duckworth, Peterson and Kelly (2007) found that passion allows individuals to persevere in difficult circumstances and anxiety, and that passion can thus be seen as the driving force behind overcoming hardship. Ancient religious scholars believed that passion was a negative uncontrollable state of mind or an unregulated form of energy imposed by the gods as a result of people's sin which overruled all reason and rationality (Konstan, 2006; Vallerand, 2015). Aristotle (384–322 BC) stated that passion is a human trait that is developed on the basis of experiences and is not necessarily a negative concept (Konstan, 2006).

Saint Augustine (354–430) stated that passion is a natural human response to environmental stimuli, that the response can either be positive or negative and that individuals should control their passions at all times (Nye, 2015; Russell, 2015). Descartes (1961) built on St Augustine's philosophies, stating that passion represents a strong emotional impulse which may result in individuals losing rationality. Descartes (1961) defined different types of passion, which he believed were experienced in the soul, but acted out by the body, namely, love, aspiration, hate, respect and unhappiness. Passion is thus seen as a state of intense emotion (Wolf, Lee, Sah, & Brooks, 2016). Mullen, Davis, and Polatajiko (2012) state that passion can be seen as a range of negative and positive emotions that individuals have towards an activity or object.

The British philosopher David Hume (1711–1776) and the German philosopher Immanuel Kant (1724–1804) both suggested that passion is a distinct construct from emotions, as the rational mind plays a role in the production of passion (Cohen, 2014). Kant stated that passion differs from emotions as emotions are often short-lived whilst passion is an enduring human characteristic (Cohen, 2014). Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712–1778) disagreed with the ancient Greek philosophers to the extent that he maintained that passion went above and beyond reason and that it is such a powerful force that it can only be controlled by other passions (Verburg, 2016). The existentialist philosopher, Kierkegaard (1844–1900), went as far to say that passion is essential to fulfil a meaningful existence (Russell, 2015).

Vallerand (2015) states that individuals can only be passionate when their passion is directed at a specific entity, activity, or object and not to at all aspects of life. Vallerand (2015) continues, saying that passion can be towards an activity (e.g. work), toward an object (e.g. an individual's car), another person (e.g. a sporting hero) or even an abstract concept (e.g. a dream, a goal, or a cause).

Frijda (2010) argues that passion is a motivational force that energises individuals to reach a desired outcome, as well as that passion is a tendency, desire, goal and determination toward an entity that provides pleasure. Similarly, Hall (2002) indicates that passion is a conceptualised as a desire to achieve a positive outcome. Some researchers have described passion as love directed at an activity, object or person, as both passion and love can be described as goal-directed motivation, reward, self-representation and appraisal (Baum & Locke, 2004; Cardon et al., 2009).

Other researchers have stated that passion can be defined as an important attitude that individuals have toward a philosophy or person (Krosnick, 1990). Passion can thus be seen as inclination to be drawn toward an outcome that individuals regard as meaningful (Krosnick, 1990). Individuals who are passionate about certain outcomes only believe that life is worth living and meaningful when they are able to engage in the activity or with the object or person that they are passionate about (Krosnick, 1990).

Persistent energetic behaviour towards an activity that individuals are passionate about is one of the key defining characteristics of passion (Amiot, Vallerand, & Blanchard, 2006; Vallerand, 2015). A key element that defines someone's passion towards something or an activity is their willingness to put time and effort into the pursuit of the object of their passion in an energetic, determined and sustainable manner (Carbonneau et al., 2008; Vallerand, 2015).

Vallerand et al. (2003) state that a key characteristic of passion is that it forms part of an individual's identity. Vallerand et al. (2003) found evidence for passion in terms of individual–activity interaction where the activity that individuals are positive about became an important part of their identities. Joussain (1928) argues that individuals' passions can have an influence on their lifestyle, as well as enduring characteristics such as personality and outlook on life. In many cases the object or activity that individuals are passionate about will become part of the individuals, their identities, and how they perceive life and others (Cardon, 2008). For example, when individuals are passionate about their work they perceive their work as forming a central part of their identity (Birkeland & Buch, 2015).

The internalisation of a passionate activity or object into the identities of individuals has an effect on how individuals engage with the activity or object as well as how persistently they engage with it (Vallerand et al., 2003). Many individuals who are passionate about their work could thus find it difficult to retire as work forms such an integral part of their identity (Houliort et al., 2015).

In view of the fact that passion can refer to negative aspects such as hardship and uncontrollable behaviour and uncontrollable emotions and positive aspects such as motivation,

love and goal orientation, the duality of passion needs to be considered (Vallerand, 2015). In other words, there is a positive and negative side to passion. Jousain (1928) argued that some passions could result in intrinsic conflict between those passions and other parts of individuals' lives, whilst other passions may coexist in harmony with each other and with other aspects of individuals' lives.

Vallerand et al. (2003) were the first contemporary researchers to conduct an empirical study on the concept of passion with regard to activities. Vallerand et al. (2003) propose a multidimensional definition of passion that is based on the previous conceptualisations of passion as described above. The definition by Vallerand et al. (2003) covers the following seven points. First, passion can only be present if it is directed at a specific object or activity and individuals are not regarded as passionate if they have passion for everything (Vallerand et al., 2003). There is thus a special connection between the individual and the focus of their passion (Vallerand et al., 2003). Second, passion can be conceptualised when individuals like or even love a specific activity or object for a continuing period of time (Vallerand et al., 2003). Third, passion for an object or activity can be conceptualised as being present when individuals value the object or activity greatly and it takes up a central role in their lives. Fourth, passion entails a motivational drive to gravitate towards the activity or object that individuals see as meaningful (Vallerand et al., 2003). Fifth, when an individual has passion for an activity it may become part of their identity and may be symbolic of their key features (Vallerand et al., 2003). Sixth, individuals take part in the activities that they are passionate about with drive and energy and will take part in these activities on a frequent basis (Vallerand et al., 2003). Seventh, passion may be experienced in both a positive and negative way and may have a positive and negative impact on the different life spheres of individuals, which indicates the duality of passion.

Vallerand and Houliou (2003) built on Vallerand et al.'s (2003) definition to define occupational passion, that is, passion toward work. Vallerand and Houliou (2003) conceptualise the construct of occupational passion as the work-related activities that energise individuals, that are worth spending time on, that engage individuals, that individuals perceive as important and that provide satisfaction. Vallerand and Houliou (2003) state that passion is the preference for certain work-related activities that are internalised in such a way that they form part of a person's identity and will have an effect on the level of harmony that they have with their work environment.

Vallerand and Houliou's (2003) definition of occupational passion is used in this study as a result of its close relationship with the construct of career wellbeing. As career wellbeing is seen as individuals' satisfaction with their careers over time, and Vallerand and Houliou

(2003) state that occupational passion is the work-related activities that engage, satisfy and provide energy to individuals over time, the two constructs are closely aligned.

Next, passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion are discussed.

#### *3.1.1.1 Passion prevalence*

Zigarmi et al. (2009) state that occupational passion is a constructive, personally adopted, permanent state resulting from a degree of satisfaction in terms of perceived personal work benefits. A person is passionate when they have a strong inclination toward a self-defining activity that they enjoy, find significant and invest energy in on a frequent basis (Vallerand, 2010). Vallerand (2015) states that when individuals frequently take part in certain enjoyable work-related activities these may be incorporated into the individual's identity, become highly valued by the individual and thus encourage the development of passion towards these activities. A person is thus perceived as passionate when there is an enjoyment of job-related activities, when these activities are deemed to be important and when the individual engages in purposeful behaviour to take part in the activity (Vallerand, 2015). However, the mere enjoyment of an activity does not mean that an individual is passionate about that activity (Vallerand, 2015). It is only when an individual spends time and energy on a regular basis on an enjoyable activity that we can say that the individual is passionate about that activity (Vallerand, 2015).

The difference between a passion and an interest is the fact that individuals will go out of their way to engage in a passion, while an interest will merely remain an activity that individuals enjoy (Vallerand, 2015). When individuals are passionate about certain career-related activities they will consume a large part of their thought patterns, their career outlook, their relationships with others, what they talk about and how they spend their time (Vallerand, 2015).

Vallerand et al. (2003) state that individuals can be passionate about a number of activities and that most individuals experience passion for certain activities. However, individuals can only be seen as passionate when they engage in the activities that they are passionate about on a purposeful and frequent basis (Vallerand et al., 2003). The more passionate individuals are toward certain activities the more time and energy they will invest in them (Vallerand, 2015).

The degree to which a certain activity forms part of an individual's identity can also describe both the prevalence and the level of passion that an individual has towards an activity (Vallerand et al., 2003). The activities that individuals are passionate about can modify their behaviour, be a motivational force to persevere and consume thought patterns (Vallerand et

al., 2003). Individuals are more passionate about certain activities than others (Vallerand, 2015).

Mageau et al. (2009) found that supportive relationships are important for the development of passion and that autonomy support (or its opposite controlling behaviour) is strongly related to the development of passion for an activity. The way in which the social environment (e.g. co-workers, managers and clients) behaves toward the individual will influence their propensity to invest in the activity (Vallerand & Houliort, 2003). Liu, Chen, and Yao (2011) found that the level of perceived support that individuals receive from their immediate work teams greatly influences the level of passion that individuals have toward their work. Houliort et al. (2013) indicate that organisational culture has an impact on whether an individual develops passion toward their work or not.

Fernet, Lavigne, Vallerand, and Austin (2014) found that the type of work-related task could be a factor in whether an individual develops a passion toward it or not. According to Fernet et al. (2014), the level of autonomy that individuals have when engaging with the task would have an impact on whether individuals would develop a passion for the task. In alignment with the work of Bakker and Demerouti (2008), Fernet et al. (2014) found that the task demands (pressures related to the activity that are controlling in nature) and task resources (affordances provided to the individual to complete the task) would greatly influence the level and type of passion that is developed toward the activity/task.

Individuals who are passionate about a certain activity care greatly about the activity and also want to master the activity well (Vallerand, 2015). Thus, a relevant construct that could determine whether passion is developed is the concept of perfectionism. Flett and Hewitt (2005) describe perfectionism as holding exceptionally high standards of achievement for certain activities. Verner-Fillion and Vallerand (2016) found that self-orientated perfectionism and socially prescribed perfectionism are positively orientated to the development of passion.

The use of signature strengths has an impact on the prevalence of passion (Forest et al., 2012). Signature strengths are seen those things that individuals do best and have a positive effect on a number of outcomes such as subjective wellbeing (Govindji & Linley, 2007). Forest et al. (2012) found that individuals tend to develop passion for activities that align to their signature strengths.

Vallerand and Houliort (2003) indicate that psychological need satisfaction is implicated in the development of passion toward an activity. Further, Vallerand (2010) states that activities which makes an individual feel passionate are not only enjoyable but also satisfy their psychological needs. Examples of psychological needs that individuals may want to satisfy in

this way include the development of a positive self-esteem, relatedness and career satisfaction (Vallerand, 2010). The type and level of need satisfaction that is experienced when engaged in the activity about which one is passionate have an impact on the development of passion (Vallerand, 2015). Recurrent need deprivation in certain areas may result in the development of passion in other life domains (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Fuster, Chamarro, Carbonell, & Vallerand, 2014). Passion is thus seen as a psychological resource that is valued as an outcome, but may also contribute to the achievement of certain goals (Hobfoll et al., 2015; Vallerand, 2015).

According to Vallerand (2015), passion can also transform over time. Passion can diminish in intensity, be transferred to another activity or object, remain dormant for some time or even eventually disappear (Vallerand, 2015). Possible reasons for this transformation include changes in the motivation for the activity, changes in the love and energy that was invested in the activity, the activity no longer satisfies certain psychological needs, its value has changed or it no longer stimulates the individual (Vallerand, 2015).

Vallerand and Houliort (2003) indicate that occupational passion can be internalised in an individual's identity in either a positive or a negative way. Positive internalisation of the activity is called harmonious passion whilst the negative internalisation is referred to as obsessive passion. Harmonious passion is discussed next.

#### *3.1.1.2 Harmonious passion*

Vallerand and Houliort (2003) describe harmonious passion as the autonomous or unforced internalisation of a work-related activity that an individual chooses to participate in. Hodgins and Knee (2002) state that the process of autonomous internalisation will take place when the individual experiences the activity as important, enjoyable, meaningful and with no perception of ulterior objectives from external drivers. Harmonious passion will encourage individuals to perform their work with a sense of personal control and self-ratification (Vallerand & Houliort, 2003).

Following self-determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 2000), which stipulates that individuals incorporate aspects of their environment to define their identity through an activity, Vallerand (2015) states that being harmoniously passionate about an activity means that it plays an important but not overwhelming part in one's identity. When applying this to the work context, it means that harmoniously passionate individuals enjoy their work-related activities, they can freely dedicate themselves to their work and do not have a sense of constant obligation towards their work (Ryan & Deci, 2003; Vallerand, 2015). This lack of feelings of constant obligation gives individuals the ability to disengage themselves from their work when

necessary and the independence to participate in other enjoyable activities (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Vallerand, 2015).

Adding to this, Vallerand and Houliort's (2003) research found that harmoniously passionate individuals are not constrained by obligatory work-related activities but rather freely decide to take part in these activities as they give them a sense of success, satisfaction and pleasure. Deci and Ryan (2000) point out that individuals will take part in a task when they can see the intrinsic value that performing the task has for them even if the task is not always enjoyable. When individuals have harmonious passion, they will feel comfortable to allow certain work activities to form an important part of their identity, but these activities will remain in harmony with other aspects of the individual's identity and environment (Vallerand & Houliort, 2003).

In addition, harmoniously passionate individuals have the self-control to manage the extent to which they engage in work-related activities (Vallerand & Houliort, 2015). When harmoniously passionate individuals are prevented from taking part in activities that provide them enjoyment, they should be able to function optimally and concentrate on the current activity without constantly fixating on the activities they are passionate about (Ryan, Huta, & Deci 2008; Vallerand & Houliort, 2003). Research shows that one of the characteristics of harmoniously passionate individuals is that they can engage with other individuals regarding non-work activities without feeling insecure about their identities (Zigarmi et al., 2009). At work these individuals have the ability to fully immerse themselves in their work activities whilst also being able to concentrate on the task at hand and experience positive emotions towards their work engagement (Zigarmi et al., 2009).

Studies show that when individuals are given the opportunity to apply their perceived strengths in the generation of activity or have enough freedom to structure the tasks in their own job they are more likely to experience harmonious passion (Forest et al., 2011). Research that was based on highly harmoniously passionate individuals suggests that these individuals display highly functional work behaviours as they associate positively with certain work activities (Vallerand et al., 2008). Additional positive effects of harmonious passion include the autonomous realisation of and spontaneous engagement in enjoyable work-related activities, which leads to satisfactory experiences such as positive affect and avoiding conflict with substitute identities (Mageau et al., 2011). The general agreement in research is that harmonious passion leads to a more balanced approach to work engagement and that those individuals who are harmoniously passionate do not allow the activities they are passionate about to occupy an unhealthy space in their identities (Vallerand et al., 2008).

Harmonious passion is negatively correlated to experiences of conflict between individuals' passions and their other life domains. This lack of conflict allows individuals to experience a number of subjective wellbeing-related outcomes both during and after task engagement. Research shows that harmoniously passionate individuals experience high levels of quality relationships (Lafrenière, Jowett, Vallerand, & Carbonneau, 2011; Philippe, Vallerand, Houliort, Lavigne, & Donahue, 2010); high levels of concentration at work (Mageau et al., 2005); positive flow (Philippe, Vallerand, Richer, Vallières, & Bergeron, 2009; Wang, Khoo, Liu, & Divaharan, 2008), positive emotions (Mageau & Vallerand, 2007; Vallerand et al., 2008; Vallerand et al., 2006) and psychological wellbeing (Rousseau & Vallerand, 2008). Next, the controlled internalisation of an activity into an individual's self-concept namely obsessive passion is discussed.

### 3.1.1.3 *Obsessive passion*

There is, however, a negative side to occupational passion where the activities that an individual is passionate about can lead to outcomes such as low levels of career wellbeing (Vallerand et al., 2010). When an individual internalises an activity in a controlled manner, but the activity causes the individual to feel pressure to engage in that activity, it is called obsessive passion (Ho et al., 2011; Vallerand & Houliort, 2003; Vallerand, 2015). This controlled internalisation process results from internal or external pressures and is associated with rigid persistence (Ratelle et al., 2004). Although obsessive passion is a motivational power that drives an individual to achieve satisfactory work engagement, the engagement gets out of control (Vallerand & Houliort, 2003).

Certain intrapersonal and/or interpersonal contingencies such as a dependable self-image, interpersonal recognition and job performance expectations lead to the creation of obsessive passion for a certain activity (Séguin-Lévesque, Laliberté, Pelletier, Blanchard, & Vallerand, 2003). Research indicates that this kind of passion is underpinned by a strong inclination towards a certain job-related activity and a strong engagement in that activity, but the engagement becomes uncontrollable for the individual (Ratelle et al., 2004). At first the activity seems to be highly enjoyable for the individual; however, when the individual becomes obsessively passionate about the activity they cannot disengage from it because of all the contingencies related to the activity (Rip, Vallerand, & Lafrenière, 2012). These work-related activities become part of an individual's identity in such a way that they cannot make room for other life or work-related activities and a conflict arises between them and their work environment (Vallerand, 2015).

Activities that an individual is obsessively passionate about cause the individual to experience conflict with other areas of life (Cardon, 2008). These activities are pursued with such inflexible

determination that there remains little room for other activities in the individual's life to the point where interpersonal relationships and other life activities might suffer (Séguin-Lévesque et al., 2003). Even if an individual realises the negative impact that their obsessive passion may have on other spheres of their life, it will be difficult to disengage from these activities due to the influence of certain internal and external contingencies and the love for these activities (Preckel, Von Känel, Kudielka, & Fischer, 2005).

Individuals who are obsessively passionate about certain work-related activities will lose control over the role that the activity plays in their lives (Vallerand, 2008, 2010). Obsessively passionate individuals will position their lives around these activities and engage in them even if it is having a negative impact on other areas of their lives (Vallerand & Houliort, 2003). Activities or forces that hinder obsessively passionate individuals from taking part in these activities are perceived as threats and will lead to extreme behaviours (Rip et al., 2012).

Extreme behaviours that are caused by obsessive passion include aggressive behaviour, defensive behaviour, and the obsessive pursuit of career goals (Cardon et al., 2009). The obsessive levels of passion can lead to the inflexible persistence to participate in certain work-related activities and a pathological addiction to these activities (Vallerand, 2008, 2010; Vallerand & Houliort, 2003).

Except for short-term job engagement no clear relationship between obsessive passion and positive work outcomes has been found (Philippe et al., 2010; Vallerand et al., 2007). Research that has studied the correlation between obsessive passion and positive indicators of psychological health has indicated a negative relationship (Forest et al., 2011; Rousseau & Vallerand, 2008). In fact, Forest et al. (2011) found that obsessive passion negatively predicted an individual's subjective wellbeing and subjective vitality.

Table 3.1 provides an overview of the conceptualisation of occupational passion.

Table 3.1

*Summary of the Core Conclusions on the Concept of Occupational Passion*

<b>Occupational passion concepts</b>	<b>Core conclusions</b>
Conceptualisation of occupational passion	Occupational passion is conceptualised as the work-related activities that individuals are energised by, feel worth spending time on, enjoy and are internalised by individuals (Vallerand et al., 2003).
Passion prevalence	Individuals are perceived as passionate when they engage frequently with certain activities that they enjoy and are energised by (Vallerand et al., 2003).
Harmonious passion	Harmonious passion is seen as the harmonious internalisation of work-related activities into an individual's self-concept (Vallerand & Houfort, 2003).
Obsessive passion	Obsessive passion is perceived as the controlled internalisation of certain work-related activities into an individual's self-concept (Vallerand & Houfort (2003)

In summary, occupational passion is a multidimensional construct which has its roots in numerous theoretical and philosophical conceptualisations. From the foregoing literature review, occupational passion can be conceptualised as the work-related activities that provide an individual with energy and drive, that they value and enjoy spending time on (Vallerand & Houfort, 2003). The degree to which certain work-related activities form part of an individual's self-concept will influence the prevalence, type and level of passion that an individual has toward an activity (Vallerand & Houfort, 2003). The development and prevalence of occupational passion is dependent on a number of factors such as the social context, the organisational culture, the type of activity, how perfectionistic an individual is and which psychological needs an activity satisfies (Vallerand, 2015).

The harmonious internalisation of an activity in an individual's self-concept is known as harmonious passion, whilst obsessive passion refers to the forced or controlled internalisation of a work-related activity into a person's self-concept (Vallerand & Houfort, 2003). The literature review indicates that harmonious passion holds several benefits for the working adult and the organisation whilst the opposite is true for obsessive passion. Passionate individuals, and more specifically harmoniously passionate individuals, are more able to engage in a number of career satisfaction and career wellbeing-related behaviours such as the building of positive relationships, goal setting, proactive behaviour, persistence, creativity, positive self-concept, and skill development (Vallerand, 2015). Obsessively passionate individuals may find it difficult to engage career satisfaction and career wellbeing-related behaviours such as building relationships, the development of multiple skills, concentration and employability as they find it difficult to focus on any other activities than the activities that they are passionate about (Vallerand, 2015).

In short, the focus of this study is on occupational passion as one of the career wellbeing-related psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators. In respect of this study, the construct of occupational passion can be viewed as a blend of passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion as related to career satisfaction which serves as an indicator of career wellbeing. This study attempts to contribute to the research of the construct of occupational passion (as independent variable) in terms of the construct's relationship to career satisfaction (as dependent variable) in the development of a well-rounded psychosocial career wellbeing profile. It can be hypothesised that individuals with a well-developed occupational passion profile may experience higher levels of career satisfaction which would ultimately lead to a well-rounded psychosocial career wellbeing profile. Thus, occupational passion may assist individuals to persevere through the challenges and changes of the modern work environment and achieve career satisfaction which serves as an indicator of career wellbeing.

Next, theoretical models relevant to the construct of occupational passion are discussed.

### **3.1.2 Theoretical frameworks**

Within this subsection the different theoretical frameworks that are used to describe the construct of occupational passion in the current research are discussed. The theories of relevance to the study are the dualistic model of passion (DMP) and self-determination theory (SDT).

#### *3.1.2.1 The dualistic model of passion*

Vallerand and Houliort (2003) were the first researchers to describe passion in terms of work-related activities and interests. This conceptualisation of occupational passion was based on Vallerand et al.'s (2003) dualistic model of passion (DMP). The DMP is utilised as the theoretical framework for occupational passion in this study as numerous studies have confirmed the model's construct validity across different occupational contexts (Vallerand, 2015). Researchers have found evidence for a dualistic model of occupational passion which is underlined by theoretical and empirical research (Amiot et al., 2006; Mageau et al., 2005; Omorede, Thorgren, & Wincent, 2013; Ratelle et al., 2004; Thorgren & Wincent, 2013; Vallerand & Houliort, 2003; Vallerand et al., 2003; Vallerand 2015). The major contribution that the DMP has made to research, when compared to other definitions of passion, is that it proposes two processes of environmental engagement within the same theoretical framework (Baum & Locke, 2004; Cardon, 2008; Cardon et al., 2009; Lam & Pertulla, 2008).

These two processes can be described, according to Vallerand et al. (2003), as harmonious and obsessive passion. The principles of this model are strongly entrenched in Deci and Ryan's (2000) SDT. According to the DMP (Vallerand et al., 2003), there are three important

stages in the development of both forms of passion in an individual (Marsh, Vallerand, Lafrenière, Parker, Morin, & Carbonneau, 2013; Vallerand, 2015). Step one in the process is that an individual selects a work-related activity from all of the available activities to engage in. Step two would be for that individual to come to value the selected activity, which would be determined by the extent to which an activity satisfies an individual's psychological needs. The third step is that the valued activity becomes internalised in an individual's identity in one of two ways (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Vallerand & Houliort, 2003): either in an independently established manner, which is called harmonious passion, or through an extrinsic/forced manner, which is called obsessive passion. Figure 3.1 describes the processes that take place in terms of developing either harmonious or obsessive passion according to the DMP.

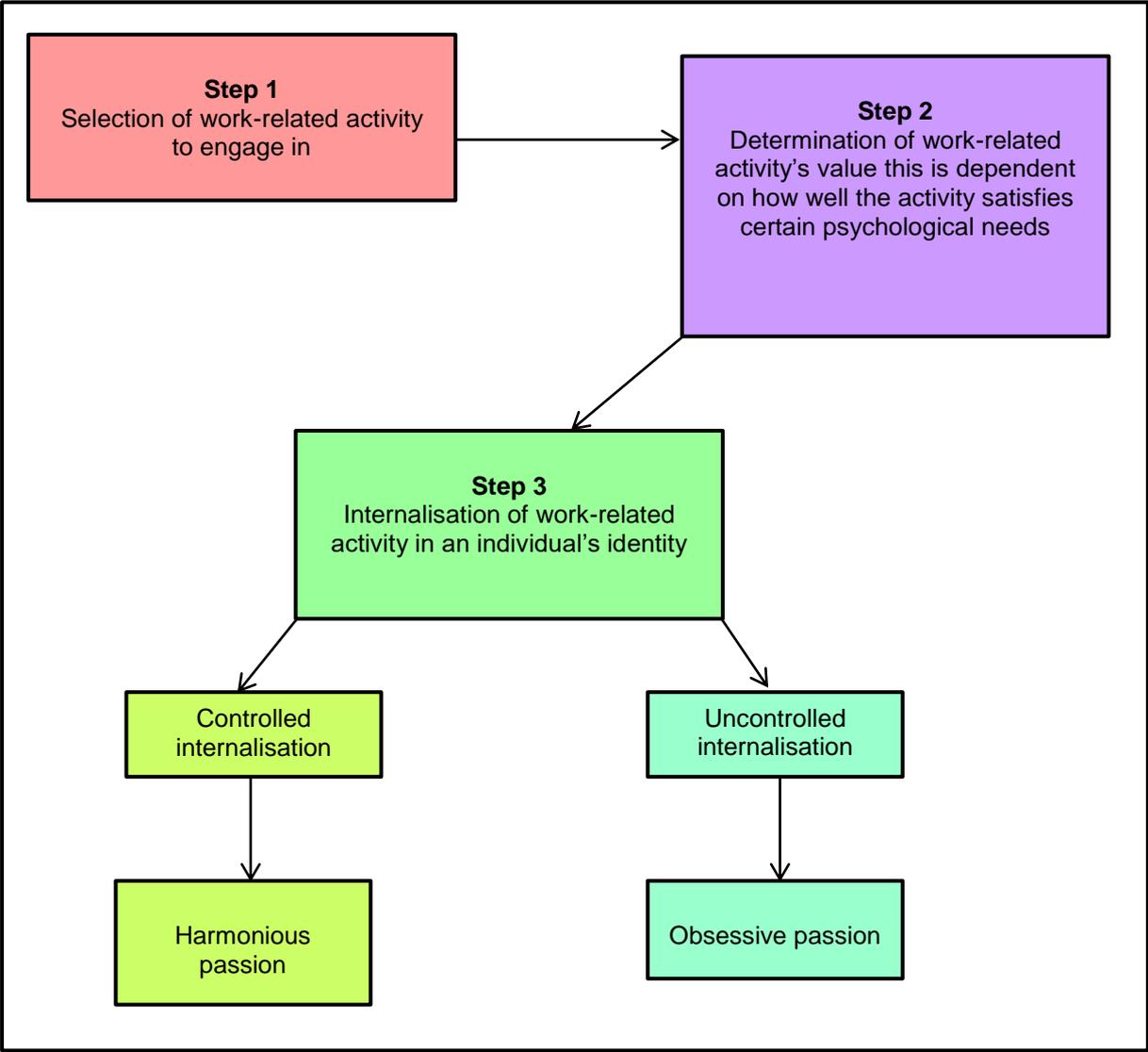


Figure 3.1: The dualistic model of passion (Vallerand et al., 2003)

As described in Figure 3.1, whether or not a work-related activity becomes a passion depends on its ability to satisfy the individual's basic psychological needs (Vallerand, 2015). Thus, the more an individual's needs are satisfied when engaging in the activity the more the individual will value the activity (Vallerand, 2015).

SDT provides insight into the need satisfaction of individuals and is discussed next.

### 3.1.2.2 *Self-determination theory*

Deci and Ryan (1985, 2000) developed the self-determination theory (SDT) as a broad psychological framework which describes individual motivation. SDT is applicable to the research because the construct of occupational passion has its roots in the theory (Vallerand & Houliort, 2003). Passion is an intrinsic, motivational force that assists individuals to overcome environmental challenges (Vallerand & Houliort, 2013).

SDT provides insight into human motivational behaviour from three perspectives (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000, 2003). Firstly, SDT provides a meta-theory for a framework for research associated with individual motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Secondly, SDT provides a formal theory which encapsulates intrinsic and various extrinsic sources of motivation and the roles that these sources of motivation play in relation to the development of cognitive development, social interaction and person-centric differences (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Thirdly, SDT provides insight into how certain sociodemographic factors enhance or impede individuals' sense of vocational preference, proactive action, the quality of their outputs and their wellbeing (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Environmental factors which support individuals' experience of autonomy, competence and relatedness are seen to have the greatest influence on individuals' career preferences, enhanced performance standards, motivational levels and types, persistence, innovation and entrenchment in activities (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

The components of psychological need enhancement and need impairment have been studied within many vocational and career settings. SDT has been studied in relation to career decision-making (Cordeiro, Paixão, Lens, Lacante, & Luyckx, 2015; Guay, 2005; Guay, Ratelle, Senécal, Larose, & Deschênes, 2006), career development (Blustein, 2013; Izzo & Lamb, 2003) and career planning (Sowers & Swank, 2017). From a career perspective, the SDT is seen as an organismic dialectical paradigm (Deci & Ryan, 2000). The theory postulates firstly that individuals are active entities with evolved inclinations toward developing, mastering challenges, and incorporating new encounters into a coherent self-perception that would assist them in achieving their career goals (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

SDT states that the inclinations that individuals have to develop do not develop spontaneously, but rather require constant social support and input. Thus, the social environment within which the individual functions, for example the work environment, can either encourage or impede the tendencies that individuals have to grow psychologically, engage in their environments and fulfil their career-related needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000). This dialectic interaction between the individual and the environment is the basis that SDT uses to predict human behaviour, experience and development (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

According to Deci and Ryan's (2000) SDT, individuals need three psychological supplements to be successful in their careers; namely, feelings of autonomy, competence and relatedness. In the work environment, the need for autonomy has to do with an individual's feelings of being free to make decisions and to behave in alignment with their work-related interests (Deci & Ryan, 2000). The need for competence is concerned with individuals' feelings of being able to engage in harmony with the work environment (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Lastly, the need for relatedness has to do with mutually beneficial relationships with colleagues within the work environment (Deci & Ryan, 2000). The extent to which these three needs are satisfied will affect an individual's subjective wellbeing and feelings of career satisfaction (Gillet, Fouquereau, Forest, Brunault, & Colombat, 2012; Tay & Diener, 2011; Vallerand, 2015).

The realisation of these three basic psychological needs is highly dependent on the work environment that individuals find themselves in (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Passionate activities have the potential to affect an individual's harmony with the environment (Vallerand, 2010). A passionate activity can assist an individual in mastering their environment (Vallerand, 2015). Engaging in a passionate activity may provide individuals will feelings of autonomy (when it is engaged freely) and reflect their identity (Vallerand, 2015). Also, passionate individuals who engage with an activity on a regular basis tend to master the activity and develop feelings of competence (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Vallerand, 2015). Lastly, if the activity that an individual is passionate about can be shared with others it could assist in the development of mutually beneficial relationships in the workplace. Adaptability, autonomy, competence and positive work-related relationships have a positive impact on an individual's career wellbeing and career satisfaction (Kidd, 2008; Ng et al., 2005).

As illustrated in Figure 3.2, SDT states that the facilitators for optimum human development and functioning are the basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness. When individuals feel that they have the freedom to make their own career-related decisions, and they have the competence to be employable and the capability to build and sustain work-related relationships, they will feel that their psychological needs are met (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Dagenais-Desmarais, Forest, Girouard, & Crevier-Braud, 2014; Howard, Gagné, Morin, & Van

den Broeck, 2016; Vallerand, Houfort, & Forest, 2014). The extent to which psychological needs are satisfied, on a continuous basis, will influence individuals' experiences of wellbeing, satisfaction, goal realisation and optimal functioning (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The darker side of human behaviour such as work obsession, workaholism, aggression toward colleagues, lack of commitment and anti-social behaviour are a result of certain psychological needs that have not been satisfied (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Figure 3.2 illustrates the basic psychological needs that individuals need to fulfil in order to ensure optimum functioning within their careers.

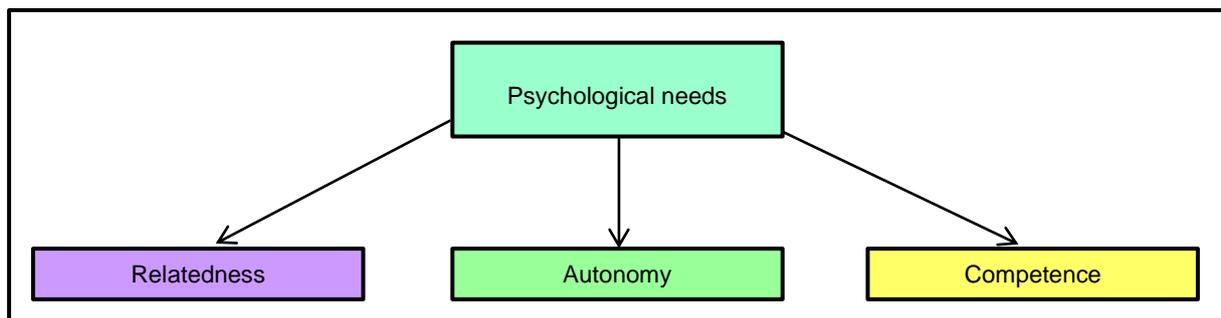


Figure 3.2: Needs realisation in terms of self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000)

Occupational passion can thus be seen as a motivational force that assists individuals to satisfy certain psychological needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Occupational passion is thus valued as an outcome, but can also be valued as a motivational psychological resource that can assist individuals to achieve certain career-related outcomes.

Table 3.2 below provides a summary of the above discussion regarding the theoretical models that are related to occupational passion.

Table 3.2

*Summary of the Theoretical Models Related to Occupational Passion*

<b>Theoretical models</b>	<b>The dualistic model of passion</b> (Vallerand et al., 2003)	<b>The self-determination theory</b> (Deci & Ryan, 2000)
Conceptualisation	Passion is internalised into an individual's self-concept in either a harmonious or obsessive manner.	Occupational passion is a self-determined motivational force that assists individuals in overcoming environmental challenges and meeting basic human needs.
Elements	Harmonious passion Obsessive passion	Realisation of three basic needs Competence needs Autonomy needs Relatedness needs
Core conclusions	The duality of passion exists. When work-related activities are internalised into an individual's self-concept in a flexible/autonomous manner, it will lead to harmonious passion. When work-related activities are internalised into an individual's self-concept in a forced/controlled manner, it will lead to obsessive passion.	The theory is concerned with understanding individuals' natural or intrinsic tendencies to behave in effective and optimum ways.

In summary, Vallerand et al.'s (2003) dualistic model of passion (DMP) is applicable to this study, since it provides a comprehensive framework for the development and duality of occupational passion in a social work environment. The DMP views passion as either harmonious or obsessive, which provides insight into the manner in which work-related activities are internalised (Vallerand et al., 2003). The prevalence and type of passion will indicate individuals' ability to manage the challenges of the modern work environment, which will in turn affect the level of career satisfaction individuals will experience (Vallerand, 2015).

Self-determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 2000) is applicable to this study as the DMP (Vallerand et al., 2003) has its roots in the theory. The theory posits that individuals possess motivational forces such as occupational passion that assist them to realise basic psychological needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Deci and Ryan (2000) state that individuals are motivated to realise autonomy, competence and relatedness needs. Passion is an example of a motivational force that assists individuals in the realisation of basic human needs or outcomes (Vallerand & Houffort, 2003).

Next, the person-centred variables that influence occupational passion are discussed.

### **3.1.3 Person-centred variables influencing occupational passion**

In this section, the person-centred variables of race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure which influence occupational passion, are discussed.

#### *3.1.3.1 Race*

Research by Burke et al. (2014) indicates that male Westernised Russian managers and multicultural Chinese managers will demonstrate higher levels of occupational passion than their individual comparison groups. Burke et al. (2014) also found that individuals who have families have greater levels of harmonious passion than those without families. Burke et al. (2014) suggest that there are differences in the type of passion that is manifested depending on the importance that certain cultures place on work, work–life balance and career progression (Burke et al., 2014). Obsessive occupational passion is positively related to career satisfaction and occupational commitment in Russia, but no relationship between the constructs was found in China (Burke et al., 2014). Burke et al. (2014) found that obsessive occupational passion was not related to any negative results in China and was actually related to several positive outcomes in Russia.

Studies of occupational passion in Westernised societies gave different results. Using Canadian and French samples, Vallerand et al. (2010) found that that harmonious passion is related to an increase in career satisfaction and a decrease in negative relationships with colleagues, whilst the opposite was true for obsessive passion. Results from the United States of America (Ho et al., 2011) and Canada (Vallerand et al., 2007), show that harmonious passion has a positive relationship with occupational commitment and in-role performance, whilst obsessive passion had a negative relationship with cognitive attention, but not in-role performance or organisational commitment.

#### *3.1.3.2 Gender*

Rousseau, Vallerand, Ratelle, Mageau, and Provencher (2002) found a partial relationship between gender and harmonious passion, indicating that men tended to report more harmonious passion toward gambling than women.

Curran et al. (2015) argue that since research states that females are highly influenced by gender-role orientations, such as appearance and self-worth needs (Duncan, Hall, Wilson & Jenny, 2010), which are linked to obsessive passion, females have higher levels of obsessive passion than males. Curran et al. (2015) indicate that the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction is larger for females than for males.

A study by Carpentier, Mageau and Vallerand (2012) on the relationship between passion and subjective wellbeing found no significant differences between genders. Vallerand et al. (2007) found no significant differences between genders when they measured the impact of passion on performance.

#### 3.1.3.3 *Age*

Passion has been shown to exist at all ages (Mageau & Vallerand, 2007; Philippe & Vallerand, 2007; Rousseau & Vallerand, 2008). Coleman and Guo (2013) state that different passions may develop at different ages due to the environmental context that individuals function in and the people that they interact with.

Studies on middle aged and older adults (Carbonneau et al., 2008; Houliort, Philippe, Vallerand, & Ménard, 2014; Philippe & Vallerand, 2007; Vallerand et al., 2010) have shown stronger effects for harmonious passion on subjective wellbeing than studies that researched the same relationship using younger adult samples (Przybylski, Weinstein, Ryan, & Rigby, 2009; Vallerand et al., 2007; Verner-Fillion, Lafrenière, & Vallerand, 2012).

In a study by Rousseau and Vallerand (2008) on the relationship between passion and subjective wellbeing in older adults (aged 52–80 years), it was found that harmonious passion had a positive relationship with subjective wellbeing. Rousseau and Vallerand (2008) found that obsessive passion is related to lower levels of subjective wellbeing when using a sample of older adults (aged 52–80 years). Rousseau and Vallerand (2008) state that when older adults participate in activities they are passionate about it is beneficial for their subjective wellbeing if they have harmonious passion for the activity; however, if they are obsessively passionate about the activity it is detrimental to their subjective wellbeing.

Birkeland and Buch (2015) found that harmonious passion increases with age, as individuals are likely to have other aspects of their lives that can bring balance to their identities when they get older such as family and other interests.

#### 3.1.3.4 *Qualification*

Vallerand et al. (2007) studied the impact of passion on the educational attainment of undergraduate students. It was found that harmonious passion was a positive predictor of individuals' ability to invest in deliberate practice which assisted them in attaining their educational qualifications. Obsessive passion was also found to predict deliberate practice in terms of assisting individuals in attaining educational qualifications, but it also predicted performance avoidance as obsessively passionate individuals could become overly competitive (Vallerand et al., 2007). Burke et al. (2014) found that even though some individuals have low levels of education they are still passionate about their work.

### 3.1.3.5 *Job level*

Studies show that harmonious passion tends to be free from extrinsic influences, as harmoniously passionate individuals are both intrinsically motivated and independently internalise work-related activities into their identities (Vallerand et al., 2003). Harmoniously passionate individuals may thus be passionate about their jobs no matter what job level they are in merely because they enjoy the work they do (Burke et al., 2014). This non-conditional characteristic of harmonious passion has been proven by empirical studies. Astakhova, DuBois, and Hogue (2010) found that although individuals in lower-level positions in the Italian fashion industry were underpaid, they perceived their work as meaningful due to the high levels of passion they had toward their work.

Research shows that individuals in lower-level jobs have high levels of ambition and are highly motivated to develop and prove themselves in the hope of achieving career success (Astakhova et al., 2010). Burke et al. (2014) build on this finding by stating that lower-level jobs may thus drive individuals' obsessive passion as they may internalise work-related activities in an obsessive manner in the hope that it would lead to advancement in the organisation. Burke et al. (2014) found that in spite of the low job levels that respondents were in they were still passionate about their work.

### 3.1.3.6 *Tenure*

Nordström et al. (2016) found that the longer individuals engage in entrepreneurial activities, the more their passion for entrepreneurship would decrease. Nordström et al. (2016) found that passion is less likely to be the key motivator behind success for individuals who form part of an entrepreneurial team and that being a team member of a group of entrepreneurs had a negative effect on the passion that they have for their work.

Ho et al. (2011) hypothesise that although individuals may show high levels of commitment toward the organisation and although they may have long tenure with the organisation, it does not mean that they have passion for their work. Qadeer, Ahmed, Hameed, and Mahmood (2016) support this point by stating that although individuals may be highly passionate about a certain work activity at a certain point in time, this passion may deteriorate over time as they may lose the motivation and interest to invest their time, energy and effort into the specific activity.

Birkeland and Buch (2015) found that harmonious passion increases with tenure as individuals are less concerned with fitting into the organisation and making a positive impact or impression that would influence their chances of being promoted. Conversely, obsessive passion is

positively predicted by the number of hours worked in a week, which would indicate that obsessive passion increases with workload and hours spent at work (Birkeland & Buch, 2015).

In short, this subsection discussed the person-centred variables (namely race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) influencing the construct of occupational passion. The literature showed that positive career outcomes are related to harmonious passion for individualistic cultures (Ho et al., 2011; Vallerand et al., 2010), whilst positive work outcomes are associated with obsessive passion in collectivistic cultures (Burke et al., 2014).

Moreover, Curran et al. (2015) indicate that the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction is larger for females than for males. Birkeland and Buch (2015) found that harmonious passion increases with age, as individuals are likely to have other aspects of their lives that can bring balance to their identities when they get older. Burke et al. (2014) state that lower-level jobs may drive individuals' obsessive passion in order to move into jobs of higher status. Nordström et al. (2016) found that the longer individuals took part in an activity (tenure) the more their passion for the activity would decrease. Burke et al. (2014) found that despite low levels of education, it is still possible for individuals to be passionate about their work.

#### **3.1.4 Evaluation and synthesis**

This section discussed the construct of occupational passion as conceptualised by the research. Both the DMP and SDT were discussed as theoretical frameworks for the concept of occupational passion.

The criteria for the prevalence of passion as well as the two kinds of passion, namely, harmonious and obsessive passion and their outcomes were discussed (Amiot et al., 2006; Mageau et al., 2005; Omorede et al., 2013; Ratelle et al., 2004; Thorgren & Wincent, 2013; Vallerand & Houliort, 2003). Individuals are perceived as passionate when they have more than a mere interest in an activity, when an activity satisfies certain psychological needs, when they engage in the activity on a frequent basis and when the activity forms part of their self-concept (Vallerand et al., 2003).

There would seem to be a paucity of South African research that analyses the relationship dynamics between occupational passion and career satisfaction as an indicator of career wellbeing. Based on the literature review there seems to be a gap in the literature in terms of studying occupational passion as a psychological resource of career wellbeing. There also seems to be scant South African research on the validation of the DMP within a diverse South African work context.

The section concluded by discussing the person-centred variables that influence occupational passion. Individual differences from respective races, genders, age groups, qualification, job level and tenure were discussed. Burke et al (2014) advise that more research needs to be conducted on the construct of occupational passion across different industry and sociodemographic contexts.

The next section discusses the construct of psychological career resources.

## **3.2 PSYCHOLOGICAL CAREER RESOURCES**

Psychological career resources are perceived as meta-competencies that assist individuals to achieve career-related outcomes (Coetzee, 2008). This section provides a conceptualisation of psychological career resources, the theoretical models that are applicable to the research, the components of psychological career resources and the person-centric variables that influence the development and utilisation of psychological career resources.

### **3.2.1 Conceptualisation of psychological career resources**

Resources are seen as psychological traits that are centrally valued within their own capacity (e.g. wellbeing, self-esteem and affection) or function as enablers to achieve centrally valued outcomes (Ferreira et al., 2010; Hobfoll et al., 2015). This conceptualisation forms part of a number of studies that provide theoretical insight into the construct of psychological resources (Hobfoll, 2002; Hobfoll & Schumm, 2009). From a career perspective, individuals' psychological resources are described by the concept of career meta-competencies (Ferreira, 2012).

Career meta-competencies are comprised of psychological career resources, which are underpinned by characteristics and aptitudes such as behavioural adaptability, self-insight, career orientation, career consciousness, reasoning ability, self-esteem and emotional literacy (Coetzee, 2008, Ferreira et al., 2010; Hall & Chandler, 2005). These career meta-competencies empower individuals to be autonomous learners and proactive and adaptive agents in the management of their own careers (Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee & Bergh, 2009).

Coetzee (2008) states that individuals' career awareness is related to their psychological career profile. Coetzee's (2008) findings are based on the research of Adler (1956), who conceptualised the term 'consciousness'. Coetzee (2008) indicates that career consciousness refers to individuals' mindfulness and career-related thoughts, which include understandings, awareness and self-estimations of their career preferences, attitudes, values, abilities and behaviours that are interpreted and recognised by individuals as essential factors in attaining their goals and experiencing career satisfaction.

Coetzee (2008) states that more research studies that pertain to individuals' career meta-competencies, as defined by individuals' psychological career resources, are needed within the South African context. Coetzee (2007a, 2008) identified specific factors of psychological career resources that individuals need to possess to be able to interact positively in agentic work/career behaviour. Coetzee's (2008) theoretical model of psychological career resources (from where these factors are derived) is discussed within the next subsection.

### *3.2.1.1 Career preferences and career values*

Coetzee's (2008) model of psychological career resources postulates that career preferences and career values are seen as the foundation for the forming of thought patterns regarding the career choices that an individual will make. Career preferences and career values also influence the way that an individual would cognitively perceive their careers as being meaningful (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009). In essence, these career preferences and values will assist individuals to make career decisions.

Ferreira et al. (2010) indicate that career preferences will assist an individual to make career-related decisions. Coetzee (2008) identified four categories of career preferences: (1) Stability/expertise: Within this career preference an individual strives for a career that has stability and holds the prospect for progression within a specific area of specialisation. (2) Managerial: This area of career preference is where an individual needs to progress their career into positions with more responsibility, power and authority to feel that they are making a success of their career. (3) Creativity/variety: Within this domain of career success an individual needs diversity in their work and have the opportunity to apply their skills and knowledge to solve a wide variety of problems. (4) Autonomy/independence: This career preference indicates an individual's desire to have freedom from external sources of influence and power to ensure autonomy in decision-making.

Coetzee (2008) states that the achievement of the above-mentioned career preferences is reinforced by two career values, as identified by Super (1990); namely, the growth/development value and the authority/influence career value. The former describes the significance that an individual place on professional opportunities to develop, while the latter refers to how important an individual regards the responsibility for decision-making and taking responsibility for others within the workplace. Super (1995) indicates that the need to accomplish certain career preferences is highly dependent on the expression of career values through certain activities. Values can further be conceptualised as an individual's perception that certain behaviour is personally and socially acceptable. Career-related values function as the benchmark against which certain career-related decisions are made (Tladinyane, 2013).

These values help an individual to have a sense of direction when navigating their careers (Coetzee, 2013).

Values serve as indicators or outlooks that assist individuals in their orientation toward their careers (Super, 1970). Individuals' career values serve as benchmarks to assess their career progress, management, development and satisfaction against (Chow, Krahn, & Galambos, 2014).

Table 3.3 summarises the range of career values as identified by Super (1970).

Table 3.3

*Summary of Super's Career Values*

<b>Career value</b>	<b>Description</b>
Altruism	The aptitude and readiness to assist others in the work context
Aesthetics	The visual ability to identify aspects/objects which are attractive.
Creativity	Individuals' openness to discovering new ideas and experiences
Intellectual stimulation	The cognitive ability to resolve problems in the work context
Achievement	The ability to produce effective work outcomes
Independence	The ability to achieve autonomous control over work-related activities and outcomes
Prestige	The ability to master a specific field of interest and increase in career stature
Management	The ability and willingness to exercise control over others
Economic return	The ability to identify the importance of financial remuneration
Security	The stimuli that encourage stability in employment
Surroundings	The ability to have a positive experience in the physical work environment
Relationships	Positive associations with co-workers
Associates	The ability and willingness to contribute to a team
Way of life	The ability to value oneself and quality of life
Variety	The openness to experience changes and manage ambiguity in the work context

Adapted from psychological career resources in relation to commitment: An exploratory study (Ferreira et al., 2010)

Work-related values have been found to influence the meaning that individuals attach to work, career choice, career wellbeing and career satisfaction (Sortheix et al., 2013). Individual values develop as a result of extrinsic socio-cultural influences and intrinsic psychological influences

that have an influence on individuals (Johnson & Monserud, 2012). Research by Weiss (2001) found that socio-cultural standards develop into individual goals that in turn develop into values. Individual values are thus perceptions that are influenced by society. Work or career values have to do with the significance that individuals place on respective job-related attributes and the type of rewards they are looking to gain from their work (Johnson & Monserud, 2012).

### *3.2.1.2 Career drivers*

Coetzee's (2008) model of psychological career resources states that the specific activities that drive and energise individuals to reach certain career-related goals are called career drivers. Career drivers encourage individuals to explore different career opportunities whilst taking into account their perception of their current and potential work-related abilities (Ferreira et al., 2010). Career drivers assist individuals to realise their intrinsic career-related goals (Ferreira et al., 2010). Individuals who incorporate these career drivers have been found to have higher levels of motivation and success in their work (Coetzee, 2008). Coetzee and Bergh (2009) state that career drivers include an individual's perception of their purpose in life, being committed and motivated towards their career goals and the level of career maturity that they have achieved. Coetzee (2008) describes career drivers as resources that influence an individual's career purpose, career directedness and attitude towards career-venturing.

The degree to which individuals have an understanding of their career-related goals and how they are going to gain direction on and assistance in achieving these goals is called career directedness (Coetzee, 2008). Ferreira et al. (2010) add to this by stating that career directedness occurs when an individual identifies new career prospects and knows where to obtain support to attain these prospects. Individuals will invest their knowledge, skills and abilities to reach their career goals once they comprehend what the achievement of the goals will entail. Sheldon (2002) indicates that individuals who have clearly defined internalised goals or purpose in their career will have higher levels of determination in achieving them.

Ferreira et al. (2010) state that career venturing has to do with an individual's openness to take calculated career-related risks. These risks are dependent on an individual's preference for discovering new career prospects (Ferreira et al., 2010). Career drivers assist individuals to discover different career avenues and reach career-related outcomes such as career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Coetzee, 2008).

### 3.2.1.3 *Career enablers*

Career enablers assist individuals to transfer every day, inventive, self-management and relational skills to help them succeed in their careers (Sternberg, 2003). Career enablers assist individuals to incorporate new opportunities and make sense of their lives. Coetzee's (2008) model of psychological career resources differentiates between two types of career enablers: practical/creative skills and self/other skills.

Coetzee (2008) states that an individual uses practical/creative skills when they apply their theoretical knowledge in their work-related activities in a novel way. Coetzee (2008) goes on to say that self/other skills, which are used as career enablers, are transferable skills such as social skills, creativity and conscientiousness that can assist an individual to have career satisfaction.

### 3.2.1.4 *Career harmonisers*

Coetzee's (2008) model of psychological career resources reveals that career harmonisers are psychological resources that assist an individual to control the career drivers through psychological resilience and adaptability and thus to ensure the wellbeing of the individual whilst managing their careers. Ferreira (2012) found that career harmonisers are predictors of an individual's life and career satisfaction, seeing their work as significant and feeling embedded in their work. An individual's self-esteem, their behavioural adaptability, their emotional literacy and their social connectivity have been found to be career harmonisers (Alessandri, Caprara, & Tisak, 2012; Coetzee, 2008, 2013, 2014).

An individual's self-esteem can be described as their subjective emotional evaluation of their own worth. This evaluation influences how an individual perceives them self (Hewitt, 2009). Tladinyane (2013) indicates that when an individual has high self-esteem they are likely to feel a sense of vigour or absorption in their work and career. Coetzee and Bergh (2009) state that self-esteem is how individuals assess themselves based on their own abilities, effectiveness and value in relation to others and their own set criteria.

Behavioural adaptability can be described as an individual's ability to adjust to, cope with and understand changes that need to be made to deal with the demands of their career (Pulakos, Arad, Donovan, & Plamondon, 2000). Ferreira et al. (2010) state that behavioural adaptability occurs when an individual can assess their own abilities and then make the necessary changes in order to reach their career goals. An individual with high levels of behavioural adaptability is able to set clear goals and implement certain interventions proactively to ensure career satisfaction (Ferreira et al., 2010).

Burman (2009) states that emotional literacy is an individual's capacity to comprehend their emotions, interact with other individuals and express their emotions productively. For an individual to be able to adapt to career changes they need to understand the impact that these changes have on their emotions, as well as express these emotions constructively to those who are assisting them in achieving their career goals (Ferreira et al., 2010).

Social connectivity can be described as an individual's ability to build and maintain healthy social relationships (Alessandri et al., 2012; Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee & Bergh, 2009). Social connectivity is an important psychological resource which assists individuals to build valuable relationships and networks with people in their work environments (Coetzee, 2008). Social connections in the form of positive professional relationships assist individuals to manage their careers well (Coetzee, 2008).

Table 3.4 provides a summary of the key conclusions with regard to the construct of psychological career resources.

Table 3.4

*Summary of the Core Conclusions on the Concept of Psychological Career Resources*

<b>Psychological career resources concepts</b>	<b>Core conclusions</b>
Conceptualisation	Psychological career resources are seen as individual career meta-competencies which consist of traits and abilities such as adaptive behaviour, self-insight, career positioning, career awareness, perceptive ability, self-esteem and emotional literacy (Coetzee, 2008, Hall & Chandler, 2005; Ferreira et al., 2010).
Career preferences and values	Career preferences and values provide direction and guidance to the career-related decisions that individuals make (Coetzee, 2008).
Career Drivers	Career drivers energise individuals to reach certain career-related goals and outcomes (Coetzee, 2008).
Career enablers	Career enablers assist individuals to transfer skills in order to ensure career success (Sternberg, 2003). Two types of career enabler are identified, namely, practical/creative skills and self/other skills (Coetzee, 2008).
Career Harmonisers	Career harmonisers assist individuals to control the career drivers through psychological resilience and adaptability (Coetzee, 2008).

In summary, this subsection conceptualised the construct of psychological career resources. The foregoing literature stated that psychological career resources serve as meta-competencies which assist individuals in achieving positive career outcomes (Coetzee, 2013). It was found that a well-developed psychological career resources profile, assists individuals to overcome environmental challenges and achieving career satisfaction (Ferreira et al., 2010). Psychological career resources assist individuals in setting and achieving career goals,

adapting to environmental challenges, applying skills to ensure career success and showing resilience within the turbulent career environment (Coetzee, 2013).

This subsection also provided conceptualisations of the psychological resources of career preferences and values, career drivers, career enablers and career harmonisers. It was found that career preferences and values assist individuals to set career-goals and serve as benchmarks in attaining career goals (Coetzee, 2008). Career drivers invigorate an individual in achieving their career goals, whilst career enablers assist individuals in transferring their skills to manage their careers (Coetzee, 2008). Career harmonisers assist individuals in controlling their career drivers (Coetzee, 2008).

Next, the theoretical models of psychological career resources are discussed.

### **3.2.2 Psychological career resources theoretical frameworks**

In this section, the theoretical frameworks of psychological career resources, which describe psychological career resources as individual career meta-competencies are discussed. The theoretical frameworks of relevance include Coetzee's (2008) psychological career resources theoretical framework, Schein's (1975, 1978, 1990, 1992, 1996, 2006) career orientations framework and the career invention model (Coetzee, 2007b).

#### *3.2.2.1 Coetzee's psychological career resources theoretical framework*

Coetzee (2008) provides an insightful theoretical framework, which assists individuals to understand the importance of evolving their intrinsic career resources and assists them to utilise their psychological resources in order to enhance their individual employability. Coetzee's (2008) theoretical framework is applied as the theoretical framework for studying psychological career resources in the current research.

Coetzee (2008) suggests that individuals consider their unique career preferences and career values when making decisions regarding their career progression. Career preferences and values are applied to assist individuals to plan, design, and develop and reinvent their own careers proactively (Coetzee, 2008). Career drivers are seen as the individual's attitude towards certain activities that provides them with the motivation in achieving certain career-related goals and experimenting with different careers (Coetzee, 2008, 2014). Career enablers contribute to the individual's career satisfaction by assisting them to understand which skills, abilities and knowledge they need to acquire and implement to achieve their goals. An individual's career drivers are kept in balance by their career harmonisers (Coetzee, 2008). This means that career harmonisers assist individuals in controlling their motivation and energy when pursuing their career goals (Coetzee, 2008). Career harmonisers are psychosocial

career meta-capacities that assist individuals to be adaptable and resilient in achieving their career goals (Coetzee, 2008). Psychological career resources are thus seen as individuals' awareness towards their career (Coetzee, 2008, 2014; Coetzee & Bergh, 2009; Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007; Ferreira, 2012).

Figure 3.3 displays the interaction between the respective psychological career resources (Coetzee, 2008; Ferreira et al., 2010).

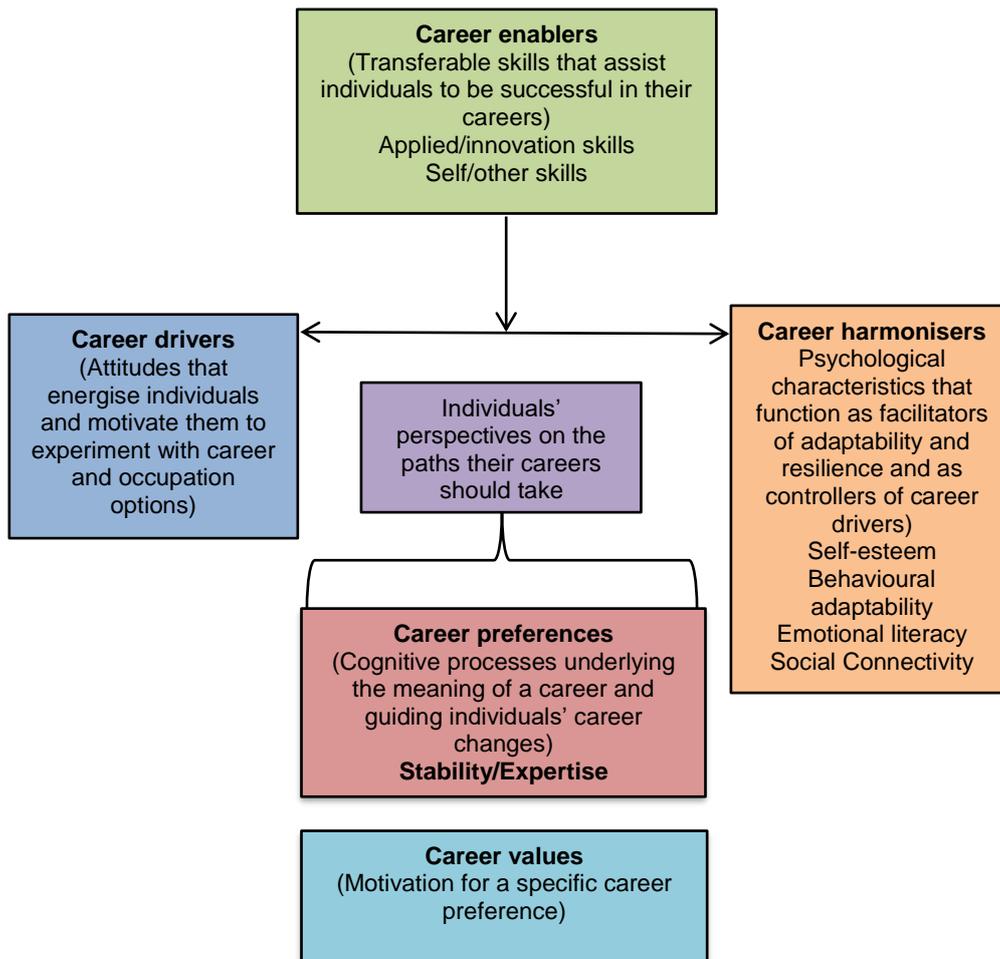


Figure 3.3: A theoretical framework for the construct of psychological career resources

### 3.2.2.2 Schein's career orientations framework

Coetzee and Schreuder (2009) studied the relationship between psychological career resources and working adults' career anchors. The outcome of this study showed that psychological career resources act as a predictor of working adults' career anchors (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009).

Schein's studies (1975, 1978, 1990, 1992, 1996, 2006) on career orientations, also known as career anchors, provide insight into the multifaceted concept of the internal career and its relationship with career success. Schein (1978) indicates that a career anchor is an integral

part of individuals' career self-concepts as it acts as a key career purpose. Career anchors act as driving and constraining powers internal to the individual, which assist them to make career-related decisions (Schein, 1978). Career anchors are thus essential in assisting individuals to have a subjective understanding of their career direction and indicate the psychological elements of career management (Custodio, 2004). Typically, individuals discover their career anchors after a certain period of employment through self-observation or feedback from their work environment on their job performance (Schein, 1992).

Schein (1992) states that career anchors function as individuals' evaluations of the experiences that they have with their career environments, serve as the desired criteria for work environments and are utilised as mechanisms to develop specific outcomes for career satisfaction. Different occupations and career paths provide different rewards and possibilities to satisfy different career-related needs (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009). Individuals' career paths and their understandings about the meaning of their careers have been found to be related to individuals' career values and motives (Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2002).

Subsequently, career anchors have been seen to have strong similarities to career values (Ramakrishna & Potosky, 2003). According to Schein (1996), values act as guidelines that can assist individuals to be aligned to their career preferences and career interest. Schein (1996), states that career values are more important than career interests or preferences, as values serve as outcomes, qualities or goals that individuals aspire to.

In spite of the fact that Schein (1978) states that individuals can only manage a single dominant career anchor at a time, evidence from other research studies indicates that since career anchors consist of career needs, career values and abilities that arise from individuals' self-concepts, one to three anchors tend to cluster together to make up individuals' career preferences (Feldman & Bolino, 1996; Ramakrishna & Potosky, 2003).

Figure 3.4 below illustrates the integrated theoretical model of career anchors.

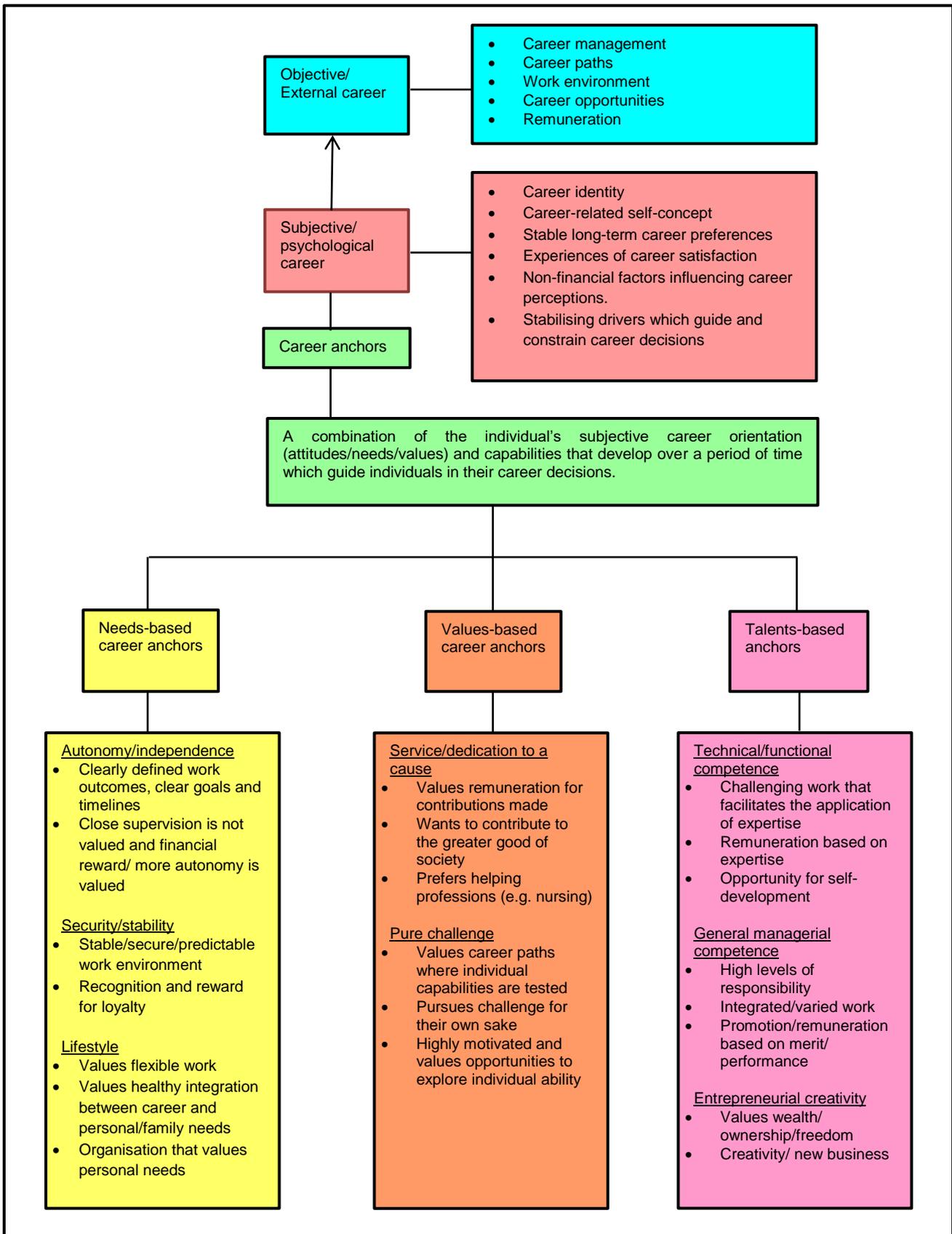


Figure 3.4: Integrated theoretical model of career anchors (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2008, p. 48)

Feldman and Bolino (1996) divided Schein's (1975, 1978, 1990, 1996) eight career anchors into three distinctive groups, together with the psychological motivators underlying the respective career anchors. These motivations are described as being talent-based, needs-based and value-based anchors. The 'talent-based' anchors comprise managerial competence (individuals' capabilities to solve complex and integrated challenges and take responsibility for functions/departments), technical/functional competence (the attainment of expertise) and entrepreneurial creativity (the development of new business, be creative and solve novel problems). The 'needs-based' anchors consist of security and stability (being employed over the long-term within a stable work environment), autonomy and independence (flexibility within the career environment and having control over their own work) and lifestyle motivations (work–life balance). The 'value-based' anchors are comprised of pure challenge (testing individual capabilities) and service or dedication to a cause (working toward the greater good of society or the organisation).

### 3.2.2.3 *The career invention model*

The career invention model, as suggested by Coetzee (2007b), is based on the premise that the 21st century career is circular in nature and that individuals can alter their career paths through the utilisation of certain psychological resources.

According to Coetzee (2007b), individuals are not dependent on their career environments to create employment, but are rather autonomous managers of their own careers who can apply their own talents, creativity and psychological resources to invent their own employment. Individuals managing their careers in the 21st century are encouraged to go into deep reflection on their past experiences, talents, competencies and skills that they have gained through their employment (Coetzee, 2007b). This process of deep reflection will assist them to identify their initial career-related dreams and desires that they have not yet explored (Coetzee, 2007b). The identification of these dreams and ideals could assist them in setting new career-related goals and identifying new paths, and to reinvent their professional profiles (Ibarra, 2003).

Coetzee (2007b) argues that if individuals become comfortable with inventing or co-creating their careers and their lives, the proactive alteration of career paths may become the norm in the future. Coetzee (2007b) states that in the modern workplace individuals are in control of their own careers because they trade their competencies, skills, knowledge, expertise and individual attributes for the benefits provided by the organisation. Coetzee (2007b) suggests that the cycle of career invention comprises three steps; namely, 1) self-exploration, 2) exploration of career possibilities and 3) experimentation with various career possibilities.

Figure 3.5 below provides an overview of the career invention model in terms of the three steps that constitute the cycle of career invention.

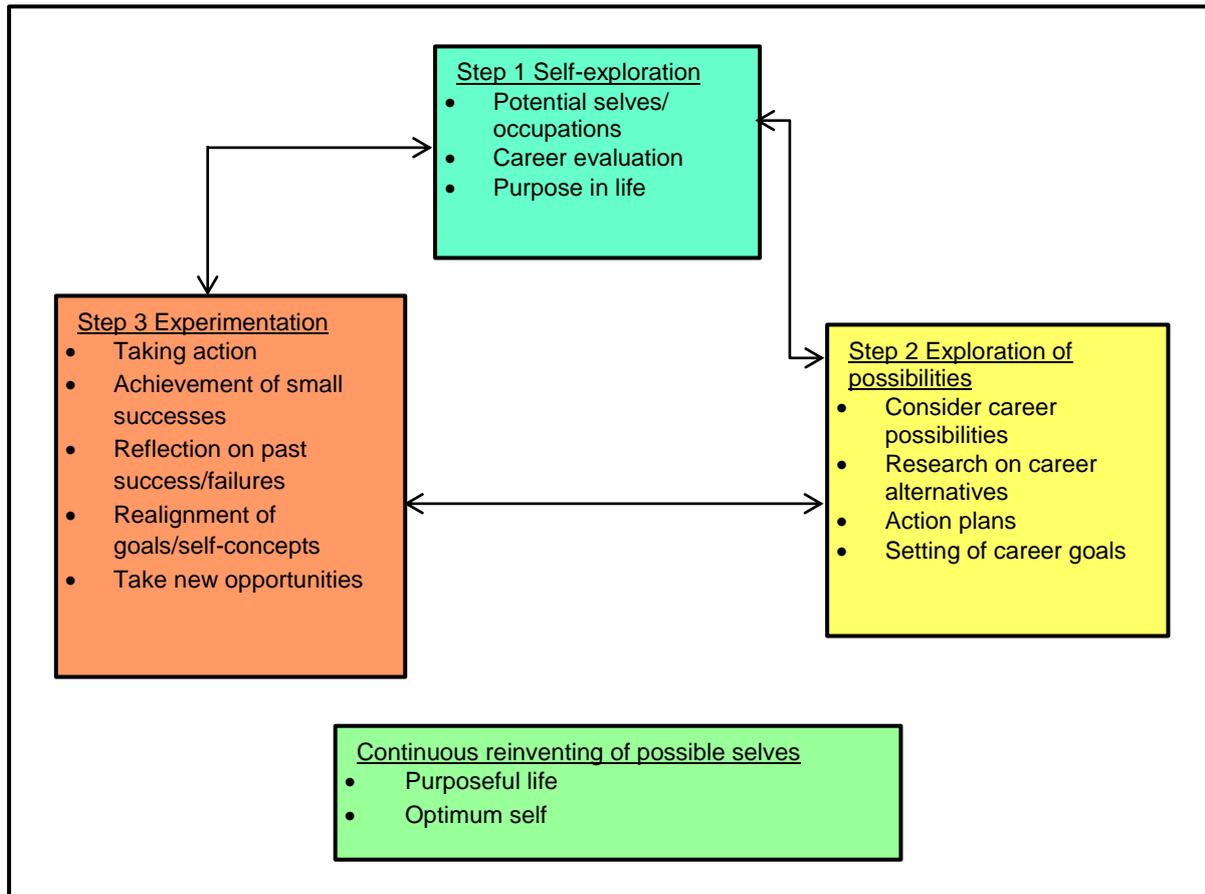


Figure 3.5: The career invention model (Coetzee, 2007b)

The career invention model is also developmental and puts emphasis on career self-management in relation to subjective career success (career satisfaction) (Coetzee, 2007). The career invention model states that for individuals to achieve career satisfaction they need to develop key characteristics or psychological resources (Coetzee, 2007b).

Individuals' career orientations and values are characteristics which they can apply to assist them in optimising themselves within the modern work environment. Individuals' career orientations (their perspectives on the structure of their career paths) and their career values provide guidelines for making career-related decisions (Coetzee, 2007b). Coetzee (2007b) proposes three career orientations/values that serve as guidelines and resources for individuals in the management of their careers; namely, career drivers, career enablers and career harmonisers.

Career drivers (i.e. individuals' commitment toward their careers, their career motivation, level of career maturity and purpose in life) energise individuals and drive them to experiment with

career options that are based on their perspectives on the different versions of themselves that they could become or career options that they could follow (Coetzee, 2007b). Career enablers (i.e. individuals' transferable skills such as abilities, talents, skills, expertise and knowledge) assist individuals to succeed in their careers (Coetzee, 2007b). Career harmonisers (i.e. individuals' emotional competence, emotional coping resources and career resiliency) act as controllers that keep the career drivers in balance to ensure that individuals' subjective wellbeing is managed well in the pursuit of reinventing themselves (Coetzee, 2007b).

Individuals need to be adaptable in the way in which they apply their career orientations and career values in the modern workplace. In view of the fact that the 21st century work environment is characterised by high levels of ambiguity and change, careers are no longer characterised by stable employment and traditional jobs (Sullivan, 2013). In the 21st century, employment opportunities, rather than just jobs, are the new perspective of individuals when constructing their careers (Savickas, 2013). Individuals who are able to draw from their career orientations and values in the modern work environment and use them as guidelines are likely to achieve career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2007b).

Figure 3.6 below provides an overview of individuals' career orientations/values within the 21st century world of work.

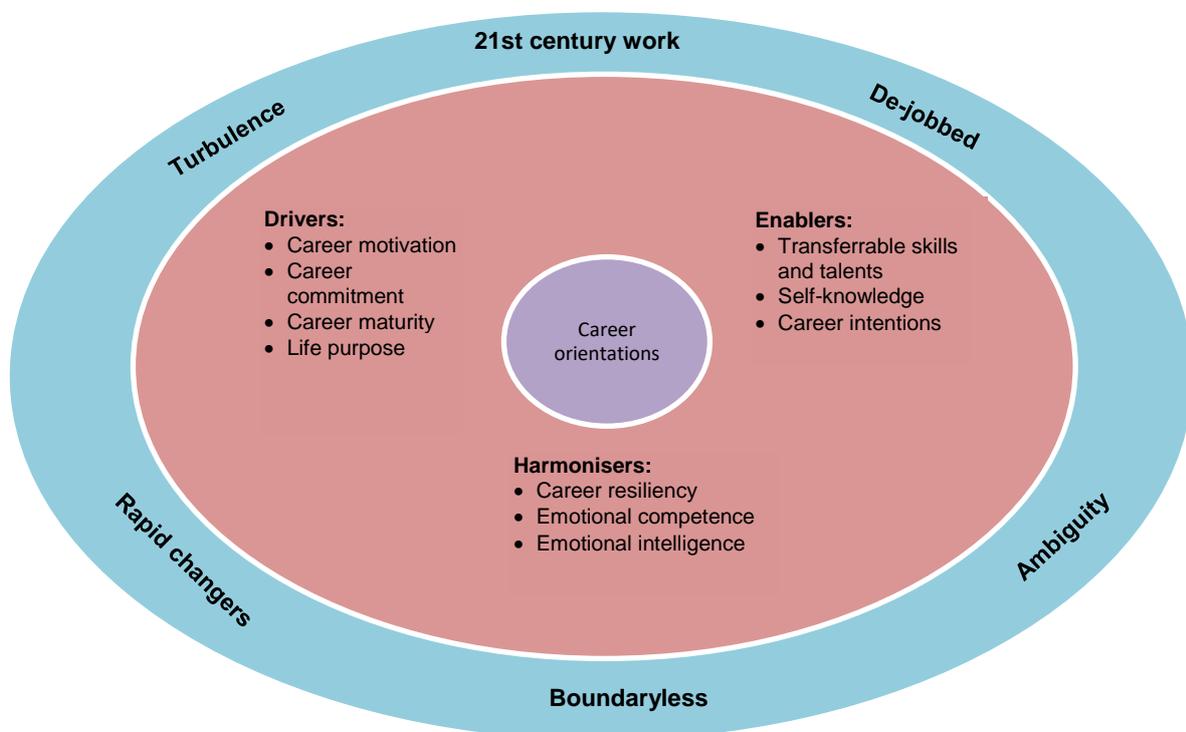


Figure 3.6: Characteristics of a successful career (Coetzee, 2007b)

Table 3.5 below summarises the theoretical frameworks that are associated with the construct of psychological career resources.

Table 3.5

*Summary of the Theoretical Models Related to Psychological Career Resources*

<b>Theoretical models</b>	<b>Psychological career resources framework</b> (Coetzee, 2008)	<b>Career orientations framework</b> (Schein, 1975, 1978, 1990, 1992, 1996)	<b>The career invention model</b> (Coetzee, 2007b)
Conceptualisation	Psychological career resources assist individuals in understanding the importance of evolving their intrinsic career resources to enhance employability.	Career anchors function as intrinsic drivers in assisting individuals to make career decisions and ascertain their career goals.	The modern career is circular in nature and individuals can change their careers through the utilisation of their psychological resources.
Elements	Career preferences and values Career drivers Career enablers Career harmonisers	Talents-based career anchors Needs-based career anchors Value-based career anchors	Three steps involved in career re-invention: Step 1 self-exploration Step 2 exploration Step 3 experimentation  Three career orientations/values that assist individuals in career management: Career drivers Career enablers Career harmonisers
Core conclusions	A well-developed psychological career resources profile will assist individuals to overcome environmental challenges and reach their career outcomes.	Career anchors guide career decisions and serve as benchmarks in the process of career goal attainment.	Individuals can successfully manage and reinvent their careers through the utilisation of the psychological career resources.

To summarise, this subsection provided information on the psychological career resources framework (Coetzee, 2008), the career orientations framework (Schein, 1975, 1978, 1990, 1992, 1996) and the career invention model (Coetzee, 2007b).

Coetzee's (2008) psychological career resources framework postulates that a well-developed psychological career resources profile will assist individuals in overcoming their environmental challenges which in turn will lead to positive career-related outcomes. Coetzee (2008) states that career preferences and values act as guidelines in individual career management and career drivers provide individuals with energy in order to achieve their goals. Coetzee (2008) also indicates that career enablers assist individuals in transferring their skills to the career profiles whilst career harmonisers keep career drivers intact.

The career orientations framework (Schein, 1975, 1978, 1990, 1992, 1996) states that career anchors play an important role in individuals' career self-concepts as they assist individuals in managing their career purposes. Career anchors are divided into groups based on the psychological motivation that they provide for individuals (Feldman & Bolino, 1996). Career anchors are talent, need or value-based (Feldman & Bolino, 1996).

The career invention model (Coetzee, 2007b) is concerned with the cyclical nature of career management. The model postulates that certain psychological career resources can assist individuals to manage, develop and reinvent their careers (Coetzee, 2007b). According to the model, career drivers, career harmonisers and career enablers serve as individual resources because they assist individuals in setting goals for their career, coping with the challenges of the environment and reaching certain career-related goals (Coetzee, 2007).

Next, the person-centric variables that influence psychological career resources are discussed.

### **3.2.3 Person-centred variables influencing psychological career resources**

In this subsection, the person-centred variables of race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure that influence psychological career resources is discussed.

#### *3.2.3.1 Race*

A study by Coetzee (2008) on the psychological career resources of South African working adults found interesting results in terms of race and language differences. The African Sotho and Nguni-speaking individuals in the study (and more specifically the Sotho speaking group) had higher averages than the other race/language groups on all the psychological career resource variables combined (Coetzee, 2008). The study showed that the white English-speaking individuals had the lowest average scores on all of the psychological career resource variables (Coetzee, 2008). Moreover, the white English-speaking individuals in Coetzee's (2008) study showed significantly lower average scores on all the career preferences, career values, career enablers, and career driver variables in comparison to the African Sotho and Nguni-speaking individuals.

Coetzee (2008) found that, when looking at the career harmoniser construct, that white English-speaking individuals presented significantly lower average scores when compared with the white Afrikaans and African groups in relation to the variable of self-esteem. White English-speaking individuals also showed lower average scores on the behavioural adaptability variable when compared with Indian individuals (Coetzee, 2008). White English-speaking individuals showed significantly lower average scores on the variable of social connectivity when compared to Indian and African groups (Coetzee, 2008).

In Coetzee's (2008) study it was found that the African Nguni and Sotho-speaking groups achieved significantly higher average scores on the three career driver variables; the managerial and freedom/autonomy career preference variables; the stability/expertise variable; the growth/development variable; the self/other skills variable, and the social connectivity variable in comparison to the white Afrikaans-speaking group. Coetzee's (2008) study showed that the African Sotho and Nguni-speaking groups achieved higher mean scores on the stability/expertise and managerial career preferences, the growth/development career value, and the career enabler, career purpose and career venturing variables in comparison to the coloured English-speaking participants. The African Sotho- and Nguni-speaking groups achieved significantly higher average scores on the variables of stability/expertise and managerial career preference in comparison to their Indian counterparts (Coetzee, 2008).

Coetzee (2008) also found that individuals from the minority groups, that formed part of the study, achieved significantly higher average scores on the growth/development career value variable; stability/expertise and managerial career preference variables; the career drivers, self-esteem variable and the career enabler variables in comparison to white individuals in the study.

Coetzee (2008) states that the findings on the career harmoniser variable, in terms of African individuals who achieved positive self-esteem and social connectivity results in comparison to white individuals, can be explained by employment legislation in South Africa. Motileng, Wagner, and Cassimjee (2006) found that due to South African employment legislation such as Affirmative Action and Employment Equity black individuals' self-esteems have improved due to their increased capability to live out their talent and potential within their vocation of choice. Kim, Kim, and Lee (2015) found that positive self-esteem has a positive impact on individuals' drive for development and employability.

As Coetzee's (2008) study showed that African participants obtained significantly higher average scores for the career purpose variable, career directedness and career venturing variables, the managerial, stability/expertise and freedom/autonomy career preferences and the growth/development career value in comparison to white individuals it could indicate that white individuals are not developing their capabilities due to the lack of opportunities in the South African labour market.

Research by Coetzee et al. (2014) in the Western Cape Province of South Africa found that coloured individuals have higher career purpose preferences in comparison to Africans. However, in a cross-provincial South African sample by Ferreira et al. (2010) it was found that

Africans consider career purpose as more important than their white, coloured, and Indian counterparts.

### 3.2.3.2 Gender

A study by Coetzee (2008) on the psychological career resources of South African working adults indicates that both males and females have high average scores on the career preference of variety/creativity and the career value of growth/development. Coetzee's (2008) results show that males and females also obtained high mean scores on the career directedness as well as the career harmoniser dimensions, the career enablers construct of self/other skills variable, and the career drivers constructs of career purpose.

Coetzee's (2008) study showed no significant gender-based variances in terms of the career harmoniser constructs of behavioural adaptability; career driver dimensions, and the career enablers construct of self/other skills. Coetzee's (2008) study, however, showed clear differences between gender in terms of the career preferences and career values dimensions, with male participants attaining significantly higher mean scores in comparison to females. Coetzee (2008) also found that males have significantly higher mean scores on the practical/creativity skills and the self-esteem variables in comparison to females. On the other hand, Coetzee's (2008) study showed that females achieved significantly higher mean scores in comparison to males on the career harmoniser variables of social connectivity and emotional literacy.

In terms of career drivers, Coetzee and Bergh (2009) found that both males and females achieved similar high mean scores for the career purpose and career directedness variables. In terms of career harmonisers, Coetzee and Bergh (2009) found that both males and females achieved similar high mean scores for the variables of self-esteem and behavioural adaptability. Coetzee and Bergh's (2009) study, however, showed significant differences between the genders in terms of the career preference variables of stability/expertise and managerial. Males achieved significantly higher mean scores for the variables of stability/expertise and managerial than the female participants and also for the career harmonisers variable of self-esteem (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009).

Venter (2012) also found significant differences between genders in terms of the psychological career resources of career drivers and career harmonisers. Furthermore, Venter (2012) found significant differences between men and women in terms of emotional literacy and social connectivity which would indicate that women have a stronger and more directed drive to make use of career opportunities and focus on their career calling (Venter, 2012).

Research by Coetzee et al. (2014) indicates that females have higher levels of social connectivity than their male counterparts. This is supported by the research of Ferreira et al. (2010), who indicate that females have significantly higher levels of social connectivity. Ferreira (2012) also found that female participants have more ease in terms of building relationships and connecting with others within their environment. Contrary to this, Symington (2012) and Venter (2012) found no clear differences between men and women in terms of the social connectivity career resources.

#### 3.2.3.3 Age

Coetzee (2008) found that individuals in the late life stage (56 years and older) display significantly lower mean scores than individuals who are in the late to early adulthood group (31–40 years) in terms of the stability/expertise career preference and self-esteem variable. Coetzee (2008) indicates that individuals in the early adulthood life stage (25 years and younger) show significantly lower mean scores than individuals who are in the late-early adulthood (midlife transition) and midlife groups (31–40 years; 41–55 years) on the growth/development career value and self/other skills variable. However, individuals in the early adulthood life stage (25 years and younger) show significantly higher mean scores than the middle and late-early adulthood groups (26–30 years; 31–40 years) on the authority/influence career value (Coetzee, 2008).

Coetzee et al. (2014a) found significant differences between the age groups in terms of their managerial career preference and their sense of career purpose. Coetzee et al. (2014) found that middle aged (ages 44-55) individuals tend to have a stronger desire for upward mobility in relation to individuals from the younger age group (ages 25 and below). Coetzee et al. (2014a) found that individuals belonging to the younger age group (ages 25 and below) have a stronger sense of career purpose than those belonging to the older age groups.

#### 3.2.3.4 Qualification

Coetzee and Bergh (2009) found significant differences between individuals' educational levels and the psychological career resource labelled as managerial and stability/expertise career preferences, career purpose and self-esteem. This is supported by the research of Coetzee and Schreuder (2008) which states that individuals who have undergraduate educational qualifications are likely to be highly job orientated and look for careers that provide them with opportunities to develop their expertise. Coetzee and Schreuder (2008) indicate that individuals who have post-graduate qualifications would look for careers that provide them with a sense of career calling and would look for opportunities to utilize and optimize their expertise.

### 3.2.3.5 *Job level*

Coetzee and Bergh (2009) found that although individuals are in management positions they do not necessarily have high preference for the managerial career preference. Coetzee and Bergh (2009) found that individuals in senior, middle management, and supervisory level roles obtained low mean scores for the managerial career preference. Coetzee and Bergh (2009) explain this finding that when individuals who are young (in the establishment life/career phase) are appointed into management positions they may have stronger preferences to develop themselves into their positions rather than have a strong managerial career preference.

Ferreira and Coetzee (2010) found that individuals in executive/senior management positions have a strong preference for occupations, which allow them to feel a sense of steady and secure employment. Ferreira et al. (2010) argue that managers would want to stay in the same organisation or occupation due to their feelings of responsibility and accountability towards individuals under their authority. Ferreira et al. (2010) also found that individuals in managerial positions had a significantly stronger sense of career purpose than those in non-managerial positions. Ferreira et al. (2010) state that these findings could be explained by the fact that individuals have had to develop their skills and expertise over time in order to be appointed into managerial positions which would contribute to a higher sense of career purpose.

### 3.2.3.6 *Tenure*

In a study by Coetzee and Esterhuizen (2010), on individuals who were entering the job market or who have been employed for a short period, showed that these individuals have a strong preference for stability/expertise which would indicate that they have a strong need for stable employment. Coetzee and Esterhuizen (2010) indicate that the individuals in their study sought stable employment in order to allow them to specialise and grow their professional proficiency in their area of vocational interest. Coetzee and Esterhuizen (2010), state that these findings may be related to the specific life stage and career phase that these individuals found themselves in. Coetzee and Esterhuizen (2010), state that as their career directedness (which relates to individuals understanding of future career options and goals) was lower than their sense of career purpose (feelings of career calling which contributes to their greater good of society), it would mean that they are less able to predict or make decisions about future career goals and needs.

Ferreira et al. (2010) found that individuals who are less experienced seem to have greater self-assurance in their capability to reach their career outcomes and build meaningful professional relationships than individuals who were in the latter parts of their careers. This supports the findings of Feldman (2002) which states that individuals who are starting their

careers have a strong desire to develop their career identity and build social networks. Ferreira et al. (2010) indicate that individuals who have between five to fifteen years of experience seem to have a high preference for occupations that expose them to a variety of opportunities to articulate their capabilities, talents, and interests. This finding is supported by Coetzee and Schreuder (2008) who indicate that individuals who are in the establishment life/career stage typically look for career opportunities to grow, learn and develop. Research shows that individuals who are highly tenured and are in the late life or retirement stage have a high preference to venture out of the organisation and look for new career opportunities (Coetzee, 2008; Ferreira et al., 2010).

In summary, this subsection discussed the person-centric variables that affect psychological career resources. The foregoing literature review indicated that black South Africans have higher averages than the other race/language groups on all the psychological career resource variables combined (Coetzee, 2008). In a study by Coetzee and Stoltz (2015) it was found that black individuals have higher levels of concern (preoccupations) regarding the future careers than white individuals do. Coetzee's (2008) study showed clear differences between genders in terms a number of psychological career resources. Coetzee and Harry (2015) found that female individuals have higher levels of career concern (being positively concerned with and strategizing for an occupational future) than their male counterparts.

Moreover, studies show clear differences between the age groups in terms of the stability/expertise career preference, the self-esteem variable, the growth/development career value and self/other skills variable and the authority/influence career value (Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee et al., 2014). Coetzee and Bergh (2009) found that although individuals are in management positions they do not necessarily have high preference for the managerial career preference do to age related variables.

Ferreira and Coetzee (2010) found that individuals who are less experienced seem to have greater self-assurance in their capability to reach their career outcomes and build meaningful professional relationships than individuals who were in the latter parts of their careers. Coetzee and Bergh (2009) also found significant differences between individuals' educational levels and the psychological career resources namely the psychological career resources called managerial and stability/expertise career preferences, career purpose and self-esteem.

### **3.2.4 Evaluation and synthesis**

This section provided insight into the theoretical conceptualisation of the construct of psychological career resources. Insight into the theoretical models that are applicable to the study was provided and the terminology related to career drivers, career harmonisers, career

values and career enablers was provided. It was found that when psychological career resources are implemented over time they become part of an individual's identity which will assist individuals to ascertain career outcomes such as career wellbeing and career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2013).

Moreover, this section provided some evidence on the person-centric variables that influence the construct of psychological career resources. There would seem to be a paucity of research on the impact of psychological career resources on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction. Previous research has shown that the concept of psychological career resources should be studied in relation to other constructs pertaining to subjective career experiences, as well as across different industry and sociodemographic contexts (Coetzee, 2007a, 2008, 2013, 2014a; Coetzee & Bergh, 2009; Coetzee & Esterhuizen, 2010; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2010). More specifically, there seems to be paucity in the South African research which studies the construct of psychological career resources across different industries, race groups, gender groups, age groups, qualification groups, job level groups and tenure groups within a single study.

The next section discusses psychosocial career preoccupations.

### **3.3 PSYCHOSOCIAL CAREER PREOCCUPATIONS**

Psychosocial career preoccupations are career-related psychological resources which assist individuals in showing proactive adaptive behaviour within the turbulent modern work environment (Coetzee, 2014b). This section provides insight into the theoretical conceptualisation of the construct of psychosocial career preoccupations, the related theoretical framework, and the person-centric variables that influence psychosocial career preoccupations.

#### **3.3.1 Conceptualisation of psychosocial career preoccupations**

Savickas (2013) describes the contemporary career as a complex, multifaceted process which plays a central part in the lives of individuals. Arthur (2014) adds that the contemporary career is no longer bound to a single employer, is no longer typified by job security or stability and has become boundaryless, multi-faceted and highly complex. An evolution has taken place in terms of how the traditional career was viewed versus the elements that make up the contemporary career.

As a result of the rapid changes in technology, globalisation, workforce demographics and a greater need for knowledge workers traditional career concepts are no longer seen as relevant in terms of providing guidance for career interventions in the turbulent modern career

environment (Baruch et al., 2015; Maree, 2016b; Savickas, 2013). Moreover, traditional career concepts did not consider aspects of individual's personal lives and psychological resources as contributors to career management which has subsequently resulted in the rise of contemporary career theories (Baruch et al., 2015).

Contemporary careers are seen as a series of changes, decisions, alterations and amendments throughout the lifetime of an individual (Coetzee, 2014b; Savickas, 2013). Contemporary careers are multidirectional in nature, the individual and not the organisation takes control of career management strategies and individuals are highly concerned with satisfying psychological career-related needs (Baruch et al., 2015). The rapidly changing work environment has resulted in individuals having to make changes to their careers at various stages and in a number of different ways to still have successful and satisfactory careers within the unpredictable and challenging work environment (Coetzee, 2014b; Maree, 2016b). Career frameworks have had to undergo theoretical changes to incorporate the elements of the contemporary career (Savickas, 2013).

Most current career frameworks are failing as they are still concerned with the elements of the traditional career such as job security, hierarchical employment and traditional psychological contracts between the individual and the organisation (Walsh & Osipow, 2014). Traditional careers were seen as a constant series of stages where individual characteristics were deployed to make predictions about an individual's fit to the stable work environment (Savickas, 2011).

Conversely, contemporary careers are related to individuals' concerns or preoccupations that are associated with their adjustment, adaptation, proactive behaviour and redefinition of themselves in work and life roles (Coetzee, 2015; Hall, 2013; Savickas, 2011). Moreover, a number of researchers have indicated that individuals need to develop psychological resources in order to manage the challenges related to the many career transitions that are associated with the modern career (Coetzee, 2008, 2013, 2014b; Hobfoll et al., 2015; Savickas, 2013).

In an attempt to provide a theoretical framework which encapsulates the intricacies of the contemporary career, Coetzee (2014b) conceptualised the term 'psychosocial career preoccupations', which can be seen as an individual's psychological state as a result of career-related concerns. Psychosocial career preoccupations can be perceived as an indication of an individual's preparedness or motivation to proactively adapt to the changes and challenges within the work environment (Coetzee, 2014b). Psychosocial career preoccupations lead to the realisation of psychological needs and the achieving of a better equilibrium between the

self and the environment (Coetzee, 2014b). Coetzee (2015) adds to this conceptualisation by stating that psychosocial career preoccupations manifest as proactive and adaptive behaviour based on individuals' drive to ensure better alignment and association with their environment.

Coetzee (2015) states that psychosocial career preoccupations prepare individuals to show adaptive behaviour with the purpose of having positive engagement with their environments. When individuals are able to adapt to and change within their environments, Deci and Ryan's (2000) SDT states that they will be able to satisfy certain inherent psychological needs that allow them to function optimally and grow to their fullest potential. Psychosocial career preoccupations thus assist individuals to prepare and to adapt to the needs of the ever-changing work environment have satisfactory careers (Coetzee, 2014b).

Maggiori et al. (2013) state that career adaptability has a positive impact on individuals' career wellbeing as it prepares them for the potential impact of career transitions and changing work environments. Psychosocial career preoccupations are thus positively related to an individual's career wellbeing as they assist individuals in showing adaptive behaviour (Coetzee, 2015; Kidd, 2008).

Psychosocial career preoccupations consist of career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations or work–life adjustment preoccupations.

#### *3.3.1.1 Career establishment preoccupations*

Career establishment preoccupations entail an individual's concerns about adapting to a group, having career and financial stability and security, having opportunities for self-expression and development, and growing within one's career within a specific organisation (Coetzee, 2014b; 2015; 2016a; 2016b).

#### *3.3.1.2 Career adaptation preoccupations*

Career adaptation preoccupations entail an individual's employability-related concerns (Coetzee, 2016b). These concerns have to do with the individual's ability to adapt to their changing contexts (Coetzee, 2014b). These changing contexts may necessitate individuals to make career changes and subsequently modify their interests, professional aptitude, knowledge, and capabilities to assist them to fit better into the employment context (Coetzee, 2014b).

#### *3.3.1.3 Work–life adjustment preoccupations*

Work–life adjustment preoccupations comprise individuals' concerns about striking a better balance between work and personal life (Coetzee, 2014b; 2015; 2016a; 2016b). These

preoccupations can lead to individuals settling down and/or leaving remunerated employment completely (Coetzee, 2014b; 2016a).

Table 3.6 provides an overview of the key conceptualisations of the construct of psychosocial career preoccupations.

Table 3.6

*Summary of the Core Conclusions on the Concept of Psychosocial Career Preoccupations*

<b>Psychosocial career preoccupations concepts</b>	<b>Core conclusions</b>
Conceptualisation	Psychosocial career preoccupations are working adults' career-related concerns that prepare them to adapt to the turbulent work environment, be employable and ensure greater harmony between work and life (Coetzee, 2014b; 2015; 2016a).
Career establishment preoccupations	Concerns about fitting into the work and team context and concerns about job security, income and satisfying development needs (Coetzee, 2014b; 2015; 2016a).
Career adaptation preoccupations	Individuals' concerns about being employed and adapting to the needs of their work, industry or occupational requirements (Coetzee, 2014b; 2015; 2016a).
Work–life adjustment preoccupations	Individuals' concerns about achieving greater balance between the demands of working and personal life, concerns about retirement and slowing down (Coetzee, 2014b; 2015; 2016a; 2016b).

In summary, this subsection discussed the theoretical conceptualisations of psychosocial career preoccupations. It was found that traditional career theories no longer encapsulate the complexities of the modern career as modern employees need to be flexible, adaptable and no longer follow traditional career paths (Savickas, 2013; Sullivan, 2013). Individuals who are constructing their careers in the 21st century have a number of career-related concerns that prepare them for the challenges of the modern work environment (Savickas, 2011). Coetzee (2014b) conceptualise these concerns as psychosocial career preoccupations.

It was established that the concerns that individuals have regarding their fit within the work environment, job security, development and remuneration are seen as career establishment preoccupations (Coetzee, 2014b). The literature indicates that career adaptation preoccupations entail an individual's concerns about staying employable in an organisational context (Coetzee, 2014b). Work–life adjustment preoccupations entail the concerns that individuals have with striking a greater balance between work and life (Coetzee, 2014b).

Owing to the construct's relevance to the contemporary career there is a need to study psychosocial career preoccupations in relation to other psychological career attributes, different industries and across different sociodemographic groups (Coetzee, 2014b; 2015; 2016a; 2016b).

Next, the theoretical framework of psychosocial career preoccupations is discussed.

### **3.3.2 Theoretical framework**

Coetzee's (2014b) theory of psychosocial career preoccupations has its roots in adult life span development theory (Super, 1957, 1990) and career construction theory (Savickas, 2005, 2013). The next subsection discusses these theories.

Super's (1957, 1990) adult life span development theory is perhaps the most widely known life-span view of career management. Coetzee (2014b) utilised Super's (1957, 1990) adult life span development theory and Savickas's (2005; 2013) career construction theory to describe the respective preoccupations, changes and adaptations that individuals undergo during both their lifetimes and their careers. Building on the work of researchers who had studied the development stages of life and work, Super (1957, 1990) describes five major stages of career development as follows:

The first life stage is the growth stage and takes place between the ages of about 4 and 13 (Super, 1957, 1990). During this life stage, individuals develop concerns about the development of their abilities, interests, attitudes, and social skills (Savickas, 2005; Super, 1957, 1990). Four key career development tasks have been identified as taking place during this stage. These include developing a concern about the future, developing a sense of control over one's life, developing competent work habits and attitudes, and acquiring an understanding of the concept of achievement in life (Coetzee, 2014b; Savickas, 2005; Super, 1957, 1990).

The second life stage is the exploration stage and takes place between the ages of about 14 and 24 (Super, 1957, 1990). This is the stage during which individuals show concern about acquiring a better understanding of themselves and finding their place in both society and the work environment (Coetzee, 2014b; Savickas, 2005; Super, 1957, 1990). During this stage, individuals participate in learning opportunities and hobbies in order to understand the interests that will probably eventually influence their occupational choices (Super, 1957, 1990). It has been found that three key career development tasks take place during this stage (Super, 1957, 1990). These three tasks include formulating a plan or a tentative career goal, developing a career preference and implementing this career preference by undergoing training to ensure entry into the chosen occupation (Super, 1957, 1990).

The third life stage is known as the establishment stage and takes place between the ages of about 25 and 44 (Super, 1957, 1990). This is the stage when individuals show concern in terms of looking for advancement opportunities in their chosen occupations (Coetzee, 2014b;

Savickas, 2005, 2013). Three key career development tasks take place during this stage (Super, 1957, 1990). The first task includes the establishment of the individual's position within the organisation by adapting to the organisation's culture and the requirements of the role (Super, 1957, 1990). The second task entails the building of relationships with colleagues and developing positive and productive habits within the organisation (Super, 1957, 1990), while the third task involves moving into a position of greater responsibility (Super, 1957, 1990).

The fourth life stage is known as the maintenance stage and takes place between the ages of about 45 and 65 (Super, 1957, 1990). During this stage, individuals are concerned with maintaining what they have achieved in their careers and this results in their updating their competencies and finding creative ways in which to perform their jobs (Coetzee, 2014b; Savickas, 2005, 2013; Super, 1957, 1990).

The fifth life stage is called the disengagement stage and takes place between the ages of about 65 and older (Super, 1957, 1990). This is the life stage when individuals transition out of the workplace (Super, 1957, 1990). During this stage, individuals show concerns related to the developmental tasks of retirement planning, slowing down and living a retired life (Coetzee, 2014b; Savickas, 2005, 2013; Super, 1957, 1990). As their energy levels diminish during this life stage, individuals gradually disengage from their occupations and focus on planning their retirement (Super, 1957, 1990). This life stage holds many challenges and concerns as individuals have to plan and organise new life patterns (Super, 1957, 1990).

Table 3.7

*Super's (1957, 1990) Stages of Occupational Development*

<b>Stage</b>	<b>Age</b>	<b>Characteristics</b>	<b>Core life preoccupations (themes/concerns) (Savickas, 2005)</b>
Growth	birth–14	Establishment of self-concept, attitudes, needs, and understanding of work	Basic understanding of work Building of relationships with family, friends and teachers
Exploration	15–24	Discovering interests through training and hobbies. Tentative career choice and skills enhancement	Exploring career possibilities Finding employment First time employment Building relationships with managers and co-workers
Establishment	25–44	Skills expansion and stabilisation through work experiences	Understanding job requirements Career advancement Employability Job stability
Maintenance	45-64	Continual adjustment in order to advance position	Maintaining job and reputation Adapting to technological advances
Decline	65+	Reduced productivity, retirement preparation and adjustment to retired life	Job loss due to poor health Retirement planning Part-time work Work–life balance

Table 3.7 above presents a summary of Super's (1957, 1990) stages of occupational development and the corresponding life preoccupations that arise during each stage (Savickas, 2005).

Super's (1957, 1990) adult life span development theory provides valuable insights in terms of the various stages that individuals experience throughout their careers, the career-related concerns typical of each stage and the elements that characterise each stage and enable individuals to achieve better fit between themselves and the environment. In addition, Super's (1957, 1990) stages of career development provide some clarity in terms of how individuals make career-related decisions which will in turn impact on their environmental fit (Savickas, 2013); career wellbeing (Kidd, 2008); career satisfaction (Ng & Feldman, 2014); occupational passion (Vallerand, 2015); psychological career resources (Coetzee, 2008), and psychosocial career preoccupations (Coetzee, 2014b).

Super (1957, 1990) argues that the changes that occur allow individuals to choose their careers and employers and develop their own self-concept (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011). The association between individuals' self-concepts (how they perceive themselves) and their organisational image (individuals' perception of the organisation) may influence their career and organisational choice at certain points in their lives (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016). Thus, career decisions are influenced by both individual–organisational alignment and overall fit (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011).

Savickas's (1997, 2002, 2005, 2011, 2013) career construction theory has, however, challenged Super's (1957, 1990) notion that individuals go through certain career transitions, changes and development tasks in chronological order. In addition, according to the career construction theory these tasks are not always age-dependent. The career construction theory proposes a shift from an organismic worldview of vocational development to a contextualised worldview (Cassar & Buttigieg, 2015; Douglass & Duffy, 2015; Savickas 2005, 2013).

Savickas's (1997, 2002, 2005, 2011, 2013) career construction theory was developed with the aim of providing clarity on the needs of the mobile and flexible contemporary working adult. Savickas (2005) maintains that the modern career does not entail a lifetime's commitment to one employer but, instead, Savickas (2005) places the emphasis on flexibility, mobility and employability. In the unsettled work environment, modern careers are defined in terms of individuals selling their knowledge, skills and services to a diverse range of employers (Savickas, 2013).

Career construction theory (Savickas, 2005, 2011, 2013) provides insight into the different ways in which individuals think about their careers and how they choose to confront work. In addition, the theory furnishes information on vocational behaviour in terms of the way in which individuals construct their careers in relation to the vocational choices they make in order to achieve greater career satisfaction (Savickas, 2005, 2013). The theory strives to provide comprehensive information on contemporary career management by adopting three perspectives on vocational behaviour, namely, (1) the differential, (2) the developmental, and (3) the dynamic.

From an individual differences psychology paradigm perspective, the career construction theory presents individuals' 'vocational personality' in terms of what respective individuals prefer to do within the work context (Savickas, 2013) while, from the developmental psychology paradigm perspective, the career construction theory presents 'psychological adaptation' as the way in which individuals manage and cope with environmental changes (Savickas, 2013). Finally, from a narrative psychology perspective, the career construction theory presents 'life themes' as the way in which life themes have an impact on career management perspectives (Savickas, 2013). Thus, individuals' 'vocational personalities', 'adaptability' and 'life themes' will influence their choice of career, their fit within the organisational environment as well as the adjustments they make to their careers (Savickas, 2005).

Savickas (2005) postulates that individuals develop a 'vocational personality' and make career-decisions based on their career-related abilities, skills, values, needs and interests. Individuals develop their vocational personality within the social setting in which they find themselves, with vocational personality influencing the career strategies they adopt (Savickas, 2005). Individuals make career decisions based on the organisation that best matches their vocational personality (Savickas, 2013). According to career construction theory, the career contract is with the self, whereas in the past it was with the organisation (Hall, 2013; Lyness, & Erkovan, 2016; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). This changing nature of the psychological contract between the organisation and the individual has an impact on the type of career-related concerns that develop (Coetzee, 2014b).

The life theme element of career construction theory is based on Super's (1957, 1990) adult life span development theory which indicates that individuals' career preferences are based on how they perceive themselves in their lives (Savickas, 2005). According to Savickas's (2005, 2013) career construction theory, the development tasks of 'psychological adaptability' offer direction in terms of how individuals establish and maintain greater harmony between themselves and their environment (Savickas, 2005, 2013). These developmental tasks are not restricted by the age frameworks of individuals as individuals may encounter these tasks at

different ages or may even not encounter them at all (Coetzee, 2015; Savickas, 2005, 2013; Sharf, 2010).

Figure 3.7 presents a summary of Savickas' (2005, 2011, 2013) career construction theory.

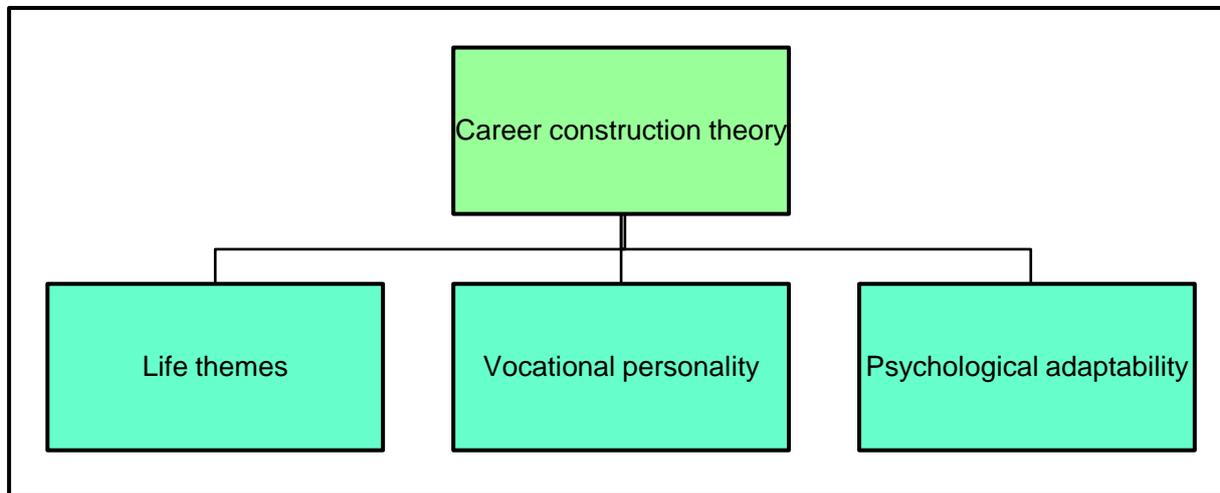


Figure 3.7: Career construction theory (Savickas, 2005, 2011, 2013)

The development tasks of career adaptability arise as career-related concerns (also known as psychosocial career preoccupations) at different points during an individual's life and then develop as life themes for the individual in question (Coetzee, 2014b; Savickas, 2005, 2013). Individuals' psychosocial career preoccupations relate to the activities pertaining to career adaptability (Coetzee, 2014b; Savickas, 2005, 2013). While taking Super's (1957, 1990) adult life span development theory and Savickas's (2005, 2013) career construction theory into account three psychosocial career preoccupations (career-related concerns) that are non-age-related have been identified (Coetzee, 2014b, 2015, 2016a, b). Each of these concerns helps individuals to demonstrate adaptive behaviour at key stages during their careers (Coetzee, 2015). These career preoccupations, as identified by Coetzee's (2014b) model, include career adaptation preoccupations, career establishment preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations.

Career establishment preoccupations are related to an individual's concerns about fitting into the work environment, achieving career stability and security, seeking opportunities for growth, development and advancement and seeking opportunities to express themselves (Coetzee, 2014b, 2015, 2016a, b). Career adaptation preoccupations are related to an individual's concerns about being employable adapting to the environmental requirements and ensuring fit to the environment (Coetzee, 2014b, 2015, 2016a, b). On the other hand, work–life adjustment preoccupations entail an individual's concerns about achieving greater balance

between the demands of work and personal life, reducing their workload, and settling down (Coetzee, 2014b, 2015, 2016a, 2016b).

In short, Coetzee (2014b, 2015, 2016a, 2016b) developed the theoretical framework of psychosocial career preoccupations based on the findings of previous researchers (Savickas, 2005, 2011, 2013; Super, 1957, 1990) who indicated that certain preoccupations arise at certain junctures within an individual's career. Psychosocial career preoccupations prepare individuals to show proactive and adaptive behaviour in order to successfully manage their careers within the complex contemporary work environment.

Figure 3.8 presents a summary of Coetzee's (2014b) theoretical framework of psychosocial career preoccupations.

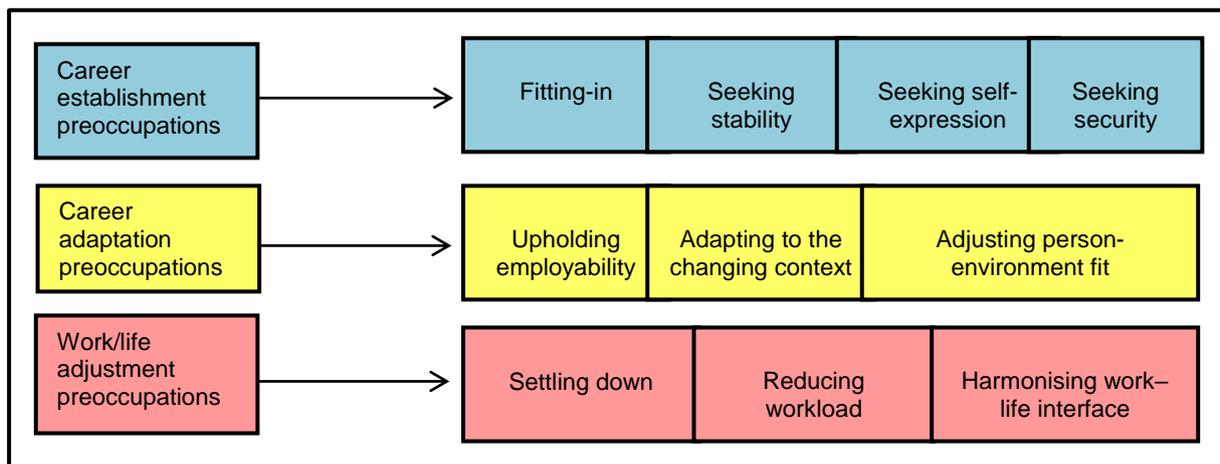


Figure 3.8: Coetzee's (2014b) theoretical framework of psychosocial career preoccupations

Next, the person-centred variables that affect psychosocial career preoccupations are discussed.

### 3.3.3 Person-centred variables influencing psychosocial career preoccupations

In this section, the person-centred variables of race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure that influence psychosocial career preoccupations are discussed.

#### 3.3.3.1 Race

Career concern (preoccupation) is a key component of the construct of career adaptability as it allows individuals to have a future perspective on their careers (Perera & McIlveen 2014). In a study by Coetzee and Stoltz (2015), it was found that black individuals have higher levels of career adaptability than white individuals. Coetzee and Stoltz (2015) indicate that this difference between black and white participants could be due to the fact that post-apartheid South Africa provides more intra-organisational career opportunities for black individuals which require them to be more adaptable and have concerns with their future careers.

João and Coetzee (2012) found that black individuals in the South African context show greater concern with career development and growth opportunities than any other racial groups and it could be argued that they show higher levels of career establishment preoccupations than their comparison groups.

### 3.3.3.2 Gender

It has been found that career concern (preoccupation) is a key factor of the construct of career adaptability (Perera and McIlveen 2014). Coetzee and Harry (2015) found that women tend to display higher levels of career adaptability than males. This finding is supported by Ferreira (2012) and Havenga (2011) who also found that women have greater concerns than men in terms of having a clear career purpose and creating proactive plans and strategies to develop their careers.

Coetzee and Harry (2015) found that females have higher levels of career concern (being positively concerned with and strategizing for an occupational future) than their male counterparts. Coetzee and Harry (2015) explain that this finding could be due to South African employment equity legislation which provides more opportunities for females to develop and enhance their careers. Coetzee and Harry (2015) indicate that both male and female individuals have significantly low levels of career confidence (concerns related to being self-effective in terms of developing the ability to master career-related changes and successfully overcome challenges), with female individuals showing significantly higher results than the males.

### 3.3.3.3 Age

Coetzee (2014b, 2015) found support for Savickas's (2005, 2013) and Super's (1957, 1990) findings that career recycling takes place in mini-cycles within or across the maxi-cycle of career stages. Coetzee (2015) found that individuals between the ages of 25 and 45 years had relatively similar processes or concerns in relation to their occupational development and the tasks associated with career establishment, career adaptation and work–life adjustment. This suggests that the relevant age group could act as the recycler (Coetzee, 2015). Evidence for this finding lies in the fact that the key preoccupation with regard to occupational developmental tasks relating to career establishment found for individuals in their career maintenance stage also indicate that this age group was probably involved in career recycling (Coetzee, 2015). Hall and Mirvis (1996) found similar findings to indicate that many short learning cycles take place over the life spans of individuals which result in frequent recycling activities for adults of all age groups.

From a sociodemographic perspective, Coetzee (2014b, 2015) found that the lack of significant variances observed between the career preoccupations of the three career-stage related age groups would suggest that the career preoccupations are not necessarily age related.

#### *3.3.3.4 Qualification*

Coetzee (2016) states that the exploration career stage (Super, 1957, 1990) is the stage where individuals have preoccupations about the acquisition of further education to maximise their chances of being employed. Coetzee (2015) found that individuals who had already obtained degrees and who were enrolled for further education had predominantly career establishment preoccupations.

#### *3.3.3.5 Job level*

Based on career construction theory, individuals' career life stories will indicate the principal preoccupations associated with each of the developmental tasks of career adaptability. These will be based on the level in the organisation they find themselves in or the level they aspire to (Sharf, 2010). Exploration preoccupations are associated with stories in which individuals attempt to clarify the occupations they want to move into, how they learn to adapt to the challenges of their entry-level jobs and whether they require more skills and knowledge to move into positions of more authority in the future (Sharf, 2010).

In terms of career-life stories that reflect establishment preoccupations, individuals are concerned with advancing in their work, with feelings of security in their current hierarchical position and with thinking about the long-term development of their careers (Sharf, 2010). Management preoccupations are indicated by the career-life stories of individuals about their concerns to hold onto their jobs, hold onto positions of authority and take on more responsibility in the current position (Sharf, 2010). Career-life stories that point to disengagement preoccupations have to do with individuals' concerns about losing a position of status in the organisation and losing their jobs altogether due to health constraints or retirement (Sharf, 2010).

#### *3.3.3.6 Tenure*

Organisational commitment has been found to be a positive predictor of tenure (Beck & Wilson, 2000). Coetzee (2015) found that when individuals' career establishment preoccupations were addressed it would have a positive effect on their commitment to their current jobs, careers and organisations. Coetzee (2015) found a negative correlation between career adaptation preoccupations and commitment, which would mean that individuals who have high levels of career adaptation preoccupations would be more interested in external activities that take place outside of the career and organisational context. It would thus mean that individuals with

high levels of career adaptation preoccupation are less likely to stay with the organisation for a long time.

Coetzee (2016b) found that with individuals who were entering the job market (tenure of less than one year), career-adaptation preoccupations (expectations regarding individuals career goals) are the result of a self-effective belief regarding their social capital and drive to obtain their goals.

In short, this subsection discussed the person-centred variables that influence psychosocial career preoccupations. João and Coetzee (2012) found that black South Africans show greater concern with elements of career establishment preoccupations such as skills development than their white counterparts. Coetzee and Harry (2015) established that women are more concerned than men with planning their employability, while Coetzee (2016b) found that individuals who are entering the job market (less tenured) have predominantly career establishment preoccupations.

Coetzee (2015) found similar psychosocial career preoccupations for individuals of all ages, which would indicate that psychosocial career preoccupations are not necessarily age related. Coetzee (2016b) found that individuals who are less tenured tend to have higher levels of career-adaptation preoccupations. Coetzee's (2015) findings show that individuals with tertiary qualifications seem to have career establishment preoccupations. On the other hand, individuals who are at high hierarchical levels within the organisation have concerns about losing their position of status (Sharf, 2010).

### **3.3.4 Evaluation and synthesis**

This section evaluated the available literature on the construct of psychosocial career preoccupations. It was found that owing to the extensive socioeconomic changes that have taken place over the past 20 years, traditional career theories no longer provide a meaningful framework for the management of the contemporary career (Savickas, 2013; Sullivan, 2013). As a result of this, Coetzee (2014b) developed the concept of psychosocial career preoccupations that provide insight into the career-related concerns that individuals have regarding their career management, planning and employment. The foregoing literature review discussed Coetzee's (2014b) theory in relation to adult life span development theory (Super, 1957, 1990) and career construction theory (Savickas, 2005, 2013) and it was found that psychosocial career preoccupations are not necessarily age related.

The concepts of career establishment, career adaptation and work–life preoccupations were discussed in this section. The literature indicates that career establishment preoccupations are

related to individuals' concerns about fitting into the work environment, developing themselves and having job security (Coetzee, 2014b). Career adaptations preoccupations entail an individual's concerns about being employable whilst work–life preoccupations entail individuals' concerns about achieving balance between work and life (Coetzee, 2014b).

The section concluded with a discussion on the person-centred variables and it was established that psychosocial career preoccupations need to be studied across a broader range of sociodemographic contexts (Coetzee, 2014b). It was established that there is paucity in the South African research in terms of studying the construct of psychosocial career preoccupations across different industries, race groups, gender groups, age groups, qualification groups, job level groups and tenure groups within a single study.

There is a need to study the construct of psychosocial career preoccupations across different sociodemographic and industry sectors (Coetzee, 2014b). There also seems to be scant research that links psychosocial career preoccupations to the constructs of occupational passion and career satisfaction as an indicator of career wellbeing.

### **3.4 CHAPTER EVALUATION AND SYNTHESIS**

The chapter provided insight into the psychosocial career wellbeing resources of occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations. The relevant theoretical conceptualisations, theoretical frameworks and person-centric variables related to each of the respective constructs were discussed.

It was found that occupational passion is a multifaceted construct which has evolved over history. Occupational passion refers to the work-related activities that form a significant part of an individual's identity that individuals enjoy and invest energy in on a consistent basis (Vallerand et al., 2003). The foregoing literature indicates that occupational passion is broken down into three sub variables namely passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion (Vallerand & Houflort, 2003). Passion prevalence refers to the fact whether individuals have passion toward their work or not (Vallerand, 2015). An individual is perceived as passionate when a certain work-related activity forms a significant part of an individual's identity, they enjoy taking part in the activity and they spend a lot of time and energy on the activity (Vallerand & Houflort, 2003).

According to the dualistic model of passion (Vallerand & Houflort, 2003) certain work-related activities can either take up a harmonious or obsessive part in an individual's identity. Harmonious passion is when an activity that an individual is passionate about is in harmony

with other aspects of the individual's work and life whilst the opposite is true of obsessive passion (Vallerand et al., 2003).

The person-centric variables that influence occupational passion were also discussed. A review of the literature indicated that no South African study exists which studies the relationship dynamics between occupational passion, career satisfaction, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations within a single study.

Furthermore, the chapter provided insight into the conceptualisation of psychological career resources. According to the literature psychological career resources are career meta-competencies that assist individuals to achieve career outcomes (Coetzee, 2008). Information on the respective psychological career resources sub-variables namely career values, career preferences, career enablers, career drivers and career harmonisers were provided. The person-centric variables that influence psychological career resources were also discussed. There seems to be paucity in the research which studies psychological career resources as a psychosocial resource of career wellbeing and as a mediating variable on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction.

The chapter concluded with an overview of the construct of psychosocial career preoccupations. It was discovered that psychosocial career preoccupations are perceived as the career-related concerns that individuals have at different stages within their careers (Coetzee, 2014b). The sub-variables of career establishment preoccupations (concerns about fitting into the work environment, development, security and stability), career adaptation preoccupations (concerns about being employable, adaptable and relevant within the job market) and work–life adjustment preoccupations (concerns about creating greater work–life balance and retirement) were discussed (Coetzee, 2014b). Information on the person-centric variables that influence psychosocial career preoccupations was also provided. An overview of the literature indicated that the construct of psychosocial career preoccupations has not been studied as a psychosocial resource of career wellbeing or mediating variable on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction.

### **3.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

Chapter 3 addressed the second literature research aim, namely, how the existing literature defines occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations.

The literature discussed occupational passion in terms of its conceptualisation, theoretical framework and the person-centric variables that have an impact on the construct. It also

discussed psychological career resources in terms of conceptualising the construct, discussing respective theoretical frameworks and providing insight into different person-centric variables that may affect the construct.

Literature research aim 2 was thus achieved:

Research aim 2: To determine how the literature conceptualises occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations.

The following chapter discusses the third, fourth and fifth steps of the literature review. The third step entails conceptualising the meta-theoretical elements of career wellbeing based on the relationship dynamics between the variables. The fourth step entails determining the implications of the theoretically suggested psychosocial model of career wellbeing for career development practices. The fifth step entails the integration of the hypothetical theoretical psychosocial model of occupational passion in relation to career satisfaction.

## CHAPTER 4

### INTEGRATION – TOWARD CONSTRUCTING A PSYCHOSOCIAL MODEL OF CAREER WELLBEING FOR THE SOUTH AFRICAN WORKING ADULT

This chapter addresses literature research aims 3 and 4 which are related to the literature review. Literature research aim 3 pertains to the theoretical elements of the psychosocial career wellbeing model that emerged from the literature review on the relationship dynamics between the career wellbeing constructs of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction. On the other hand, literature research aim 4 refers to the implications of the theoretical psychosocial model of career wellbeing for career management practices.

#### 4.1 THE PSYCHOSOCIAL MODEL OF CAREER WELLBEING: THEORETICAL LENS

Individuals who are concerned with the management of their career wellbeing hold a number of benefits for the organisation such as job and career satisfaction, high levels of engagement, increased productivity, creativity, commitment and improved professional relationships (Alarcon & Lyons, 2011; Bakker & Oerlemans, 2011; Creed & Blume, 2013; Humes, 2011; Kidd, 2008; Patterson et al., 2004). The subjective career-related experiences and psychosocial resources that assist in the realisation of career needs have been the focus of much research in recent years (Hobfoll et al., 2015; Inkson, Dries, & Arnold, 2014; Savickas, 2013; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016; Sullivan, 2013). However, there have been few studies that have focused on the indicators, the psychosocial resources and the intrinsic motivators that are related to career wellbeing (Kidd, 2008).

As discussed in chapter 2, this study utilised Hobfoll's (1988, 1989, 1998, 2002) conservation of resources (COR) theory, which focuses on the development, management and utilisation of psychosocial resources as an overarching theoretical lens through which to study the relationship dynamics between the variables related to career wellbeing. COR theory hypothesises that psychosocial resources enable an individual to be resilient in the face of environmental changes and challenges and assist individuals to achieve certain outcomes (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002). One of the main outcomes of COR theory is an understanding of the intrinsic motivators that individuals implement to ensure that they attain and maintain outcome resources such as career satisfaction (Halbesleben et al., 2014). It appears in this regard that COR theory assumes an interaction between intrinsic motivators and psychosocial resources in experiences of wellbeing.

This study therefore also examined the intrinsic motivators that individuals implement to attain and regulate psychosocial resources and outcome resources. The study used self-

determination theory (SDT) as a theoretical sub lens through which to study these intrinsic motivators. This theory postulates that motivators may either be controlled motivators (driven by external pressures) or autonomous (intrinsic) motivators (energised by identifying, valuing and endorsing a specific work activity) (Deci & Ryan, 2000). SDT was applied in this study to critically evaluate the constructs of occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations as intrinsic motivational drivers which function as important psychosocial resources (COR theory: Hobfoll, 2002). These motivational psychosocial resources assist individuals to obtain an outcome resource, namely, career satisfaction (career wellbeing).

According to COR theory (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002), although psychosocial resources are valued in their own right as an outcome, they may also play an important role in terms of achieving a greater outcome or objective (Hobfoll et al., 2015). COR theory is based on the following two principles, namely, (1) individual resource loss is more prominent than resource gain, and (2) individuals must invest in resources in order to protect themselves against the loss of resources, to recover from the loss of resources and to gain new resources. In terms of COR theory's principle of resource gain and loss (Hobfoll, 2002), it is thus assumed that psychological career resources may strengthen the link between occupational passion (intrinsic motivational drive) and career satisfaction. On the other hand, psychosocial career preoccupations may result in resource loss due to cognitive-emotional dissonance, implying that concerns about one's career development may buffer (lower) the positive link between occupational passion and career satisfaction, and affect the overall career wellbeing of the individual. Investing in the development of important psychological career resources (i.e. career preferences, career values, career enablers, career drivers and career harmonisers) may help to alleviate the negative effect of career preoccupations in the occupational passion–career satisfaction link. Developing individuals' psychological career resources equips them with the resources (motivational and cognitive-affective attributes) they need to deal proactively with their career preoccupations.

Moreover, COR theory states that the loss or absence of a psychosocial resource will have a negative impact on a major resource outcome such as career satisfaction (career wellbeing) (Hobfoll et al., 2015). According to COR theory, the loss of certain psychosocial resources will, on the one hand, result in the further loss of other psychosocial resources while, on the other hand, the development and acquisition of psychosocial resources will result in the development and attainment of additional resources (Hobfoll, 2002). Furthermore, the theory states that individuals who feel that their psychosocial resources are at risk may resort to defensive behaviour (Hobfoll et al., 2015). In terms of the COR theory principle of resource gain and loss

(Hobfoll, 2002), it is assumed that psychological career resources may strengthen the link between occupational passion (intrinsic motivational drive) and career satisfaction. On the other hand, psychosocial career preoccupations may result in resource loss due to cognitive-emotional dissonance, implying that concerns about one's career development may degrade (lower) the positive link between occupational passion and career satisfaction, and affect the individual's overall career wellbeing.

In taking Hobfoll's (1988, 1989, 1998, 2002) COR theory into account, the current research study therefore perceives the intrinsic motivational indicators/psychosocial resources of occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations and the relationship dynamics between these resources as playing an important role in the realisation of individuals' career satisfaction, which serves as an indicator of career wellbeing.

Certain career theorists caution that, since intrinsic motivators are self-regulated resources that involve the investment of energy as well as proactive and adaptive behaviour, they may expose individuals to considerable psychological risks and also the additional expenditure of other self-regulatory, psychosocial resources (Strauss, Parker, & O'Shea, 2017). Building on the key premises of COR theory (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002), which states that individuals are driven to protect and acquire resources, career researchers argue that the high expenditure associated with utilising intrinsic motivational drivers may potentially deplete resources, thus ultimately negatively affecting individuals' outcome resources such as career satisfaction (Creed, Hood, Praskova, & Makransky, 2016; Strauss et al., 2017). In this regard, individuals' psychological career resources are seen as important mediators in strengthening and harmonising the intrinsic motivation reflected in occupational passion levels and career satisfaction, while career preoccupations may lead to the depletion (negative mediation) of the intrinsic motivation reflected in individuals' occupational passion-career satisfaction outcome link.

By taking COR theory into account in this study, it is assumed that the psychosocial resource of occupational passion may be used by individuals to maintain and ensure outcome resources such as career satisfaction (Hobfoll et al., 2015; Vallerand, 2015). Moreover, in line with SDT, occupational passion may also be seen as an intrinsic motivational driver that could assist individuals to achieve and maintain the resource of career satisfaction (Halbesleben et al., 2014). In terms of the present study, the positive effect of occupational passion on career satisfaction is strengthened by individuals' psychological career resources and either lowered or strengthened by their career preoccupations

The development, maintenance and existence of the psychosocial resource and intrinsic motivators of occupational passion and, more specifically, harmonious passion can be positively related to career satisfaction, as individuals who have internalised their career activities in a positive manner may be more adaptable to the challenges posed by the career environment (Hobfoll et al., 2015; Vallerand, 2015). On the other hand, the development, maintenance and existence of obsessive passion (or the lack of harmonious passion) may be negatively related to career satisfaction as it is not likely that individuals who focus only on the development and management of the activities about which they are passionate will cope with the dynamic work environment (Ng et al., 2005; Vallerand & Houliort, 2003). Thus, higher levels of harmonious passion may result in higher levels of career satisfaction, while obsessive passion may lead to more obsessive behaviour and ultimately lower levels of career satisfaction (Hobfoll et al., 2015; Vallerand, 2015).

It is also argued that individuals who exhibit obsessive passion may find it extremely difficult to develop harmonious passion, while they may also be prone to defensive behaviour and the loss of other resources (Hobfoll et al., 2015; Vallerand, 2015). Although obsessive passion, which is seen as an intrinsic motivator, may result in short-term career satisfaction, it may not be sustainable due to the contingencies related to the obsessive behaviour (Vallerand, 2015). In this regard, the mediating role of psychological career resources and career preoccupations may be valuable in studying the effect of harmonious and obsessive passion on career satisfaction.

An understanding of the role of intrinsic motivators and psychosocial resources, such as psychological career resources and career preoccupations, in either strengthening or weakening the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction may be of practical value in assisting individuals to manage their careers within the contemporary work environment.

Building on the basic premises of both COR theory (Hobfoll et al., 2015) and SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000), a well-rounded, psychological career resource profile can enhance the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction. On the other hand, the opposite may be true for an individual who lacks certain psychological career resources or places too much emphasis on the development or utilisation of certain psychological career resources.

Psychological career resources are seen as psychosocial resources that individuals need to develop, maintain and manage in order to attain outcome resources such as career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2008; Halbesleben et al., 2014; Hobfoll et al., 2015). Psychological career resources

are also seen as intrinsic motivational drivers, as individuals can utilise the psychological career resources as internal meta-competencies that assist them to persevere within a turbulent work environment, achieve certain career outcomes such as career satisfaction and cope with pressures (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Halbesleben et al., 2014).

Career preferences are intrinsic motivators and resources that guide individuals toward making certain career decisions that will assist them to realise the outcome resource of career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2008; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Hobfoll et al., 2015). Career values are implemented as psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators in order to set benchmarks for individuals against which they measure the degree to which they acquire certain outcome resources such as career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2008; Halbesleben et al., 2014). Career preferences and career values can strengthen the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction as individuals who have more specific career outcomes are likely to experience greater career satisfaction (Ng & Feldman, 2014). However, career preferences and career values can also weaken the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction, as individuals who are less flexible in their approach to their careers may experience lower levels of career satisfaction (Ng & Feldman, 2014).

Career drivers are psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators that enable individuals to invest their energy and drive in attaining the outcome resources of career goals such as career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2008; Halbesleben et al., 2014). Career drivers may strengthen the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction as individuals who invest their energy and drive in areas about which they feel passionate are likely to feel more satisfied with their careers (Vallerand, 2015). However, career drivers may also deplete the resources of occupational passion or have a negative impact on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction if not balanced by career harmonisers or invested only in specific career activities (Coetzee, 2008; Vallerand & Houliort, 2003).

Career enablers are seen as intrinsic motivators and psychosocial resources and may include the implementation of skills to reach certain resource outcomes such as career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2008; Halbesleben et al., 2014). However, career enablers can weaken the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction if individuals focus only on developing their skills in the activities about which they feel passionate (Vallerand, 2015). On the other hand, the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction may be strengthened if individuals invest their career enablers in a multitude of career activities and not only in the activities that they feel passionate about (Ng & Feldman, 2014; Vallerand, 2015).

Career harmonisers include psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators such as the self-esteem and emotional literacy that are used to balance the resource of career drivers and achieve the outcome resource of career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2008; Halbesleben et al., 2014). The psychological career resources of career harmonisers may enhance the relationship between harmonious occupational passion and career satisfaction, as both resources involve a greater alignment between the individual and the environment (Coetzee, 2008; Vallerand & Houliort, 2003). However, career harmonisers may also deplete the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction if individuals become obsessed with satisfying certain preoccupations in their work such as improving their self-esteem.

Studies show that individuals' psychosocial career preoccupations arise at certain stages in their careers based on their psychological career development needs (Coetzee, 2014b; Savickas, 2005). In line with COR theory, psychosocial career preoccupations act as personal resources which can be used to gain and maintain outcome resources such as career satisfaction and to meet other career needs (Hobfoll et al., 2015). In line with SDT, psychosocial career preoccupations act as intrinsic motivational drivers which assist individuals to adapt to, prepare and persevere within their challenging career environments (Coetzee, 2014b; Hobfoll et al., 2015).

The construct of career establishment preoccupations is perceived as a psychosocial resource and an intrinsic motivator that may assist individuals to achieve outcome resources such as career satisfaction (Hobfoll et al., 2015). When individuals are concerned about job security and stability, fitting into an organisation or work team and/or upskilling themselves, it may motivate them to engage in proactive behaviour which may result in career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2014b; Hobfoll et al., 2015). Career establishment preoccupations may strengthen the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction, as individuals who invest their energy and passion into the activities about which they are concerned may experience greater levels of career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2014b; Halbesleben et al., 2014; Vallerand, 2015). However, career establishment preoccupations may also result in individuals being externally motivated by contingencies such as job stability and security, thus perhaps resulting in obsessive passion and lower levels of career satisfaction (Halbesleben et al., 2014).

In the context of this study, the construct of career adaptation preoccupations is perceived as a psychosocial resource and an intrinsic driver that may assist individuals to achieve career satisfaction (Hobfoll et al., 2015). As an intrinsic motivator and psychosocial resource, career adaptation preoccupations may drive the proactive behaviour of individuals such as being adaptable, upskilling themselves and being goal-orientated which will, in turn, assist them to

achieve outcome resources such as meeting the career needs of fitting into their work environment and experiencing career satisfaction (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Career adaptation preoccupations may deplete the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction. When individuals place too much emphasis on gaining certain resources such as skills and environmental fit this may result in the over-implementation of their occupational passion (obsessive passion), thus leading to lower levels of career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2014b; Halbesleben et al., 2014; Vallerand, 2015). However, the opposite may also be true in that career adaptation preoccupations may strengthen the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2014b; Halbesleben et al., 2014; Vallerand, 2015). When individuals are concerned with achieving the outcome resource of employability this may require them to be more adaptable, proactive and well-rounded professionals and this, in turn, may lead to the development of harmonious passion and, finally, career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2014b; Halbesleben et al., 2014; Vallerand, 2015).

The construct of work–life adjustment preoccupations is seen as an intrinsic motivator (Deci & Ryan, 2000) and a psychosocial resource (Hobfoll et al., 2015) that individuals utilise to attain outcome resources such as career satisfaction. When individuals are concerned with achieving greater balance between their work and their psychosocial lives it may result in adaptive and proactive behaviour designed to achieve the outcome resource of career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2014b; Halbesleben et al., 2014). COR theory states that individuals who are in possession of resources are more able to attain other resources and are buffered against the loss of resources (Hobfoll et al., 2015). Individuals who have the psychosocial resource of work–life adjustment preoccupations may be better prepared for the challenges posed by the work environment, be adaptable, proactive and demonstrate a balanced approach to their career management with this then possibly leading to greater levels of the outcome resources of harmonious passion and, finally, career satisfaction. However, individuals who are highly focused on preparing for their retirement and achieving greater work–life balance may develop obsessive passion toward certain tasks that they perceive to be important in order to meet certain career needs, ultimately leading to lower levels of career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2014b; Halbesleben et al., 2014; Vallerand, 2015).

COR theory and SDT therefore provide conceptual frameworks for linking the relational elements of the concepts of occupational passion and career satisfaction, as mediated by psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations. By applying these theories and in addressing literature research aim 3, this study proposed a theoretical relationship between the constructs of occupational passion and career satisfaction as

mediated by the constructs of psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations. Consequently, centred on the theoretical relationship between these constructs, the theoretical integration further addressed literature research aims 3 and 4, namely, the construction of a theoretically integrated psychosocial model of career wellbeing that may be used to inform career management practices.

Chapters 2 and 3 provided a comprehensive review of the literature on the independent variable, career wellbeing, and the moderating variables. This was relevant to this research study and addressed literature research aims 1, 2 and 3; that is, to conceptualise career wellbeing and career satisfaction within the ever-changing and complex contemporary workplace; to conceptualise occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations; and to establish the way in which certain person-centric characteristics influenced these constructs. This chapter provides a brief synopsis of the core insights and core conclusions derived from chapters 2 and 3 and which enabled the researcher to construct a theoretical career wellbeing framework for the South African working adult.

## **4.2 THE PSYCHOSOCIAL MODEL OF CAREER WELLBEING: AN OVERVIEW OF THE LITERATURE**

Chapters 2 and 3 presented the literature review on the variables related to career wellbeing. This section provides an overview of the key findings of that literature review.

### **4.2.1 Career wellbeing within the contemporary workplace**

In section 2.3 of the literature review it became evident that career wellbeing is an important outcome for individuals who are managing their careers within the contemporary work environment (Brown & Lent, 2016; Creed & Blume, 2013; Kidd, 2008; Lang et al., 2016; Pesch et al., 2016; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016). It was found that career wellbeing holds several benefits for individuals as the activity of career management plays a central role in their lives and has a major impact on their overall wellbeing (Diener, 2013).

### **4.2.2 Career satisfaction in the contemporary workplace**

The concept of career has undergone major changes in the past 20 years and individuals are no longer merely looking for opportunities to climb the organisational ladder or are concerned only about their salary levels; instead, they are striving to have careers which satisfy certain psychological needs (Ng & Feldman, 2014; Sullivan, 2013). Career satisfaction was conceptualised in section 2.4. In addition, it was found that a number of person-centred variables influence the development of career satisfaction (see section 2.4.3).

### **4.2.3 Occupational passion**

The construct of occupational passion was conceptualised in section 3.1 of Chapter 3 and illustrated in Figure 3.1. The sub-constructs of passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion were also discussed in Chapter 3. It was argued that harmonious passion, as opposed to obsessive passion, should be encouraged in the workplace as individuals who have harmonious passion are more able to build relationships with others, be creative, develop skills, be employable and show adaptive and proactive behaviour (Vallerand, 2015).

### **4.2.4 Psychological career resources**

The construct of psychological career resources was discussed in section 3.2 of Chapter 3 and illustrated by Figure 3.3. The sub-constructs of career preferences and values, career drivers, career enablers and career harmonisers were discussed while the person-centric variables that influence psychological career resources were also explored. It was established the psychological career resources act as career meta-capacities that assist individuals to obtain career outcomes (Coetzee, 2008).

### **4.2.5 Psychosocial career preoccupations**

The construct of psychosocial career preoccupations was conceptualised in section 3.3 of Chapter 3 and depicted in Figure 3.8. Coetzee's (2014b) theoretical model was discussed and the subscales of career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations explained. The literature review indicated that individuals at different stages in their career management have different psychosocial career preoccupations (Coetzee, 2014b, 2015, 2016a). It was established from the literature review that black individuals have more career concern than the other race groups (João & Coetzee, 2012), women are more concerned with their employability than men (Coetzee & Harry, 2015), less-tenured individuals experience greater career establishment concerns than their more tenured colleagues (Coetzee, 2016b) and individuals who are highly qualified have greater career concern than individuals with lower levels of qualification (Coetzee, 2015).

## **4.3 THE PSYCHOSOCIAL MODEL OF CAREER WELLBEING: INTEGRATION**

As illustrated in Figure 4.1, this section provides theoretical background to the hypothetical relationships between the constructs as stipulated in research hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5.

The research hypotheses are as follows:

**Research hypothesis 1:** There are statistically significant inter-relationships between the sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure), the

independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction).

**Research hypothesis 2:** Individuals' psychological career resources (career drivers, career harmonisers, career preferences and career values) and psychosocial career preoccupations (career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations) significantly mediate the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction.

**Research hypothesis 3:** Based on the overall statistical relationships between the independent variable (occupational passion), the dependent variable (career satisfaction), and the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations), that there is a good fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model.

**Research hypothesis 4:** Individuals' sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) significantly moderate the relationship between the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction).

**Research hypothesis 5:** The sociodemographic groups will differ significantly regarding their occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction.

As illustrated in Figure 4.1, the theoretical psychosocial career wellbeing profile involves the relationship dynamics between the indicators, intrinsic motivators and psychosocial resources of career wellbeing, namely, occupational passion and career satisfaction, as mediated by psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations. Furthermore, the sociodemographic variables of race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure act as moderating variables. The framework also includes recommendations for organisations, individuals, industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners who are interested in the optimisation of individuals' career wellbeing within the complex and dynamic contemporary career environment. Moreover, in order to be of greater support to industrial psychologists and HR practitioners, this study developed a theoretically supported psychosocial career wellbeing framework with specific recommendations for career management practices that contribute to the career wellbeing (career satisfaction) of employees

As illustrated in Figure 4.1 the theoretical psychosocial career wellbeing profile consists of the following elements:

- The context of the study is related to the turbulent South African work environment which is characterised by a number of psychosocial challenges. As discussed in Chapter 2 of this study, socioeconomic changes, the rise in contemporary career outlooks and needs, individual career preoccupations, the need to display intrinsic motivators such as adaptability, proactive behaviour and the use of one's psychosocial resources are making it more difficult for individuals to achieve the outcome resource of career wellbeing than before.
- In line with COR theory (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002), career satisfaction serves as the dependent variable; this is seen as a resource which is valued as a specific outcome. As informed by SDT, certain intrinsic motivators can be implemented by individuals to obtain outcome resources such as career satisfaction (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Halbesleben et al., 2014). The theoretical elements related to career satisfaction are discussed in Chapter 2.
- Also, in line with COR theory (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002), the independent variable of occupational passion (consisting of harmonious passion, obsessive passion and passion prevalence) is seen as a resource that may be used to attain an outcome resource (career satisfaction). Occupational passion is also seen as an intrinsic motivator that is implemented to achieve outcome resources such as career satisfaction through the mediating variables of psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations (Deci & Ryan, 2000). The theoretical elements related to occupational passion are discussed in Chapter 3.
- COR theory (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002) postulates that the acquisition of certain resources may be used to acquire other resources, while the loss of certain resources may result in the loss of other resources. Psychological career resources are thus seen as psychosocial resources that may be utilised to attain, develop, strengthen, maintain and/or weaken other resources. In line with SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000), psychological career resources are also seen as intrinsic motivators that may be used to attain outcome resources. Psychological career resources (consisting of career values, career preferences, career enablers, career drivers and career harmonisers) may either strengthen or weaken (mediate) the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction. The theoretical elements related to psychological career resources are discussed in Chapter 3.
- Psychosocial career preoccupations (consisting of career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations) may either

strengthen or weaken (mediate) the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction. Psychosocial career preoccupations are seen as both psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators that may have an influence on the relationship dynamics between outcome resources such as occupational passion and career satisfaction. The theoretical elements related to psychosocial career preoccupations are discussed in Chapter 3.

- The sociodemographic variables of race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure serve as moderators in the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction. The sociodemographic variables of race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure for each of the constructs are discussed in Chapters 2 and 3.
- The theoretical model assumes that significant differences exist between the various sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) as related to each of the research constructs. It is postulated that certain groups may have a greater propensity to develop and utilise intrinsic motivators and psychosocial resources, such as occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations, and subsequently be able to achieve outcome resources such as career satisfaction better than other groups. The group differences, found in previous research, between the respective sociodemographic variables of race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure for each of the constructs are discussed in Chapters 2 and 3.

Figure 4.1 illustrates the theoretically hypothesised psychosocial career wellbeing profile.

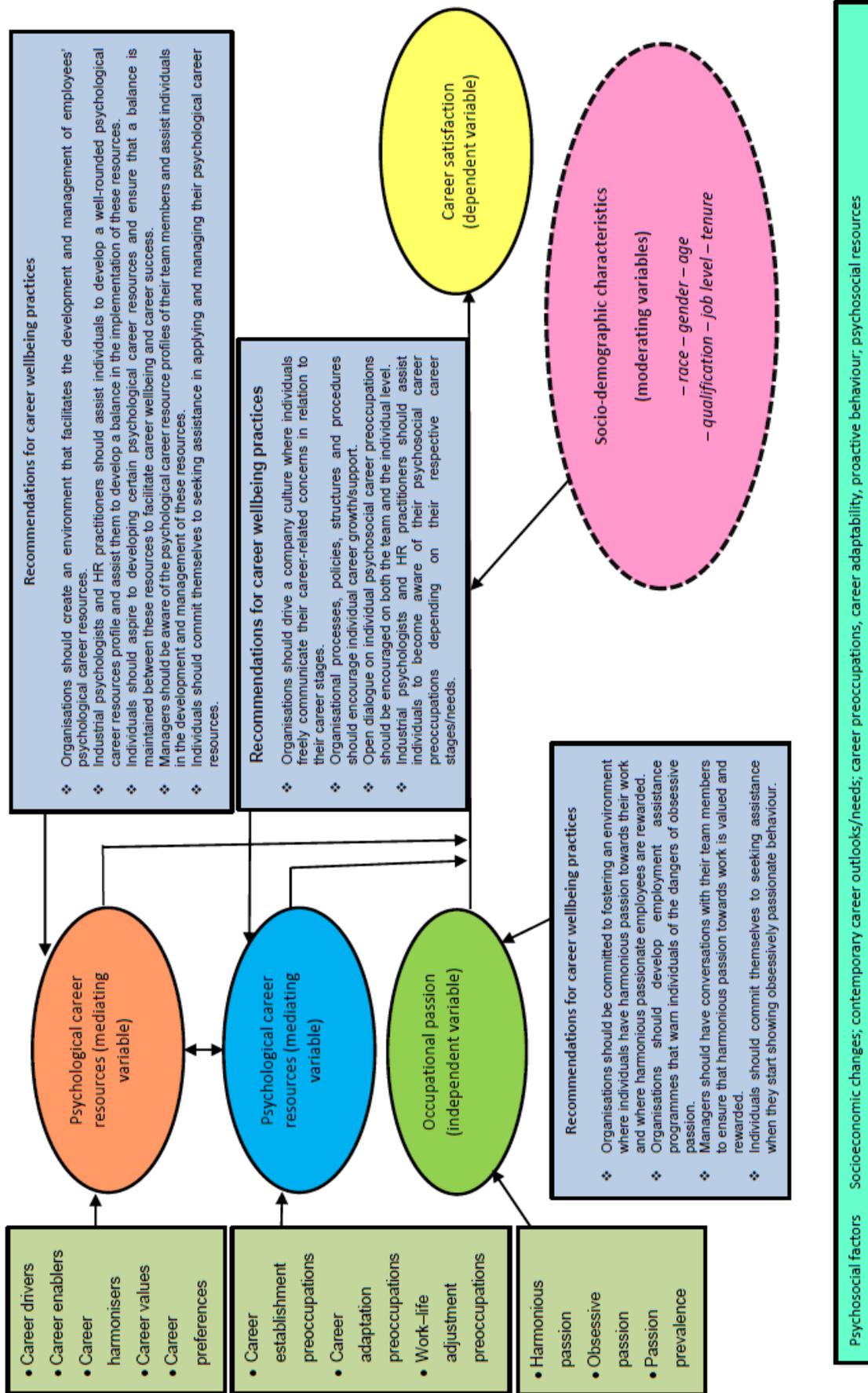


Figure 4.1: Recommended theoretical psychosocial career wellbeing framework

### **4.3.1 The hypothetical relationships between the variables**

H1: There are statistically significant inter-relationships between the sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure), the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction).

Research hypothesis 1 assumed that there is a significant and positive association between individuals' sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure), occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction, an indicator of career wellbeing. It was deemed important to study the theoretical relationship dynamics between the four constructs that make up the psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators of career wellbeing in this study.

The sub-elements of the four constructs were studied to establish whether meaningful theoretical relationships exist between the respective elements. It was hoped that this relationship framework would provide industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners with valuable insights in terms of assisting individuals to experience career wellbeing within the contemporary world of work. The hypothesised relationships between the constructs, based on information collected from the literature review, are discussed in the next section and outlined in Figure 4.1.

Research hypothesis 1 assumes that (see Figure 4.1):

- Career satisfaction is studied as a manifestation of career wellbeing as predicted by the variables of occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations.
- A relationship exists between occupational passion and career satisfaction. More specifically, a positive relationship exists between harmonious passion and career satisfaction, as opposed to a negative relationship between obsessive passion and career satisfaction.
- A relationship exists between psychological career resources and occupational passion. More specifically, a positive relationship exists between career preferences, career values, career enablers, career drivers, career harmonisers and occupational passion respectively.
- A relationship exists between psychosocial career preoccupations and occupational passion. More specifically, a positive relationship exists between psychosocial career

preoccupations and harmonious passion, while a negative relationship exists between psychosocial career preoccupations and obsessive passion.

- A positive relationship exists between psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction.
- A positive relationship exists between psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations.

An individual is described as having occupational passion when they enjoy a certain work-related activity, engage with the activity often and the activity is internalised into their self-concept (Vallerand & Houfort, 2003). The type and level of occupational passion that individuals develop may be related to the extent to which they feel content with their careers (career satisfaction). As individuals who are passionate about their work can achieve their goals, persevere through challenges, be proactive and adaptable (Vallerand, 2015), they may also experience greater career satisfaction (Ng & Feldman, 2014).

Occupational passion can take on two forms, depending on how individuals internalise specific work-related activities (Vallerand & Houfort, 2003). Harmonious passion toward work stems from the autonomous internalisation of a work activity and includes the performance of the activity in a self-determined manner (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Vallerand et al., 2003). When individuals have harmonious passion toward their work, the activity they are passionate about does not dominate their identity and harmonises with other facets of their lives (Vallerand, 2015). Conversely, obsessive passion emerges from a controlled internalisation of the activity into an individual's self-concept, whereby an individual experiences extrinsic or intrinsic pressure to take part in the activity (Vallerand et al., 2003) and the passionate activity dominates the individual's identity.

Previous research has indicated that as individuals who are harmoniously passionate have more freedom to engage in proactive and adaptive behaviour, they are more satisfied in their work and careers and experience greater wellbeing whilst the opposite is true for individuals with obsessive passion (Carbonneau et al., 2008; Houfort et al., 2015; Mageau & Rousseau & Vallerand, 2008; Spehar, Forest, & Stenseng, 2016; Vallerand, 2007, 2015; Vallerand et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2008). Individuals with harmonious passion may thus experience greater career satisfaction than individuals with obsessive passion.

Career management practices should be designed in such a manner that they support the development of occupational passion and, more specifically, harmonious passion toward work. Support should be provided to individuals who are showing the symptoms of obsessive

passion toward work as it may be related to lower levels of career satisfaction and ultimately career wellbeing.

Like occupational passion, psychological career resources are a set of psychosocial self-regulatory meta-capacities, which empower individuals to adapt to fluctuating career conditions and to shape and select environments to achieve success within a specific socioeconomic framework (Coetzee, 2008). Psychological career resources indicate individuals' career-orientated perceptions (cognitions, consciousness and self-evaluations) of their career preferences, career values, career enablers, career drivers and career harmonisers, which are comprehended by individuals as being supportive in attaining their career outcomes and achieving career success (Coetzee, 2008). Coetzee (2008) states that a well-rounded and developed psychological career resources profile indicates conscious, self-directed career-related behaviour that is intrinsically directed and proactively determined by the individual. Studies show that psychological career resources are related to individuals' career commitment (Tladinyane, 2013), career adaptability and work engagement (Coetzee, Ferreira, & Shunmugum, 2017), their affective commitment (Ferreira et al 2010), their coping resources (Coetzee & Esterhuizen 2010) and their subjective career experiences (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009).

As career satisfaction is seen as a subjective career experience and subjective form of career success (Ng et al., 2005; Spurk, Abele, & Volmer, 2015), a well-rounded psychological career resources profile may be related to increased levels of career satisfaction. Also, as occupational passion and psychological career resources are both self-regulated intrinsic motivators, a well-developed and well-rounded psychological resources profile may be related to high levels of occupational passion and, more specifically, harmonious passion. However, an unbalanced psychological career resources profile may be related to lower levels of career satisfaction and obsessive passion.

For this reason, career management strategies that focus on career wellbeing should enable individuals to develop well-rounded psychological career resources profiles.

Coetzee (2014b) indicates that psychosocial career preoccupations are seen as an individual's cognitive state in relation to certain career-related concerns that are at the forefront of their minds at a specific point in time. These concerns may involve preoccupations with career development, career mobility, career adaptability, career agency, employability, work-life integration and flexibility, self-awareness, and concerns with the development of professional relationships (Coetzee, 2014b, 2015; Savickas, 2013).

In order to satisfy their career apprehensions in a progressively challenging, volatile and multifaceted employment environment, individuals engage in proactive and adaptive career management behaviour (Hall 2013; Savickas, 2011, 2013). Such behaviour, which is stimulated by individuals' psychosocial career preoccupations, may be associated with high levels of occupational passion (Vallerand, 2015), a well-rounded psychological career resources profile (Coetzee, 2008) and increased career satisfaction (Ng & Feldman, 2014).

Organisational career support should focus on addressing these career-related concerns and enhance the proactive and adaptive behaviour related to satisfying them, which could potentially contribute to enhancing employees' career wellbeing.

#### **4.3.2 Psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations as mediating variables**

H2: Individuals' psychological career resources (career drivers, career harmonisers, career preferences and career values) and psychosocial career preoccupations (career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations) significantly mediate the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction.

Research hypothesis 2 assumes that individuals' psychological career resources (career drivers, career harmonisers, career preferences and career values) and psychosocial career preoccupations (career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations) significantly mediate the relationship between occupational passion (passion prevalence, harmonious passion, obsessive passion) and career satisfaction.

Research hypothesis 2 assumes that (see Figure 4.1):

- Psychological career resources (consisting of career drivers, career harmonisers, career preferences and career values) significantly mediate the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction.
- Psychosocial career preoccupations (career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations) significantly mediate the relationship between occupational passion (passion prevalence, harmonious passion, obsessive passion) and career satisfaction.

Coetzee and Bergh (2009) describe subjective work experiences as individuals' self-estimations, insights, attitudes, emotions and psychological understandings that typify their satisfaction with life, their work, their careers, their happiness and the meaning they ascribe to

work. Studies have indicated that intrinsic factors and extrinsic vocational determinants influence individuals' subjective experiences of their lives, work, careers, their happiness and the way they perceive work as a meaningful part of their existence (Coetzee, 2013; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2012; Zacher, 2014).

Because individuals' psychological career resources profiles include their fundamental self-assessments (positive or negative), which characterise the core evaluations they make about their worthiness, career choices and values, drivers, competencies and aptitudes in the management of their careers, it was anticipated that the respective factors of individuals' psychological career resources profiles may affect their subjective work experiences such as occupational passion and career satisfaction and the relationship between these variables (Coetzee, 2008). Thus, this may have a positive or negative effect on the relationship dynamics between occupational passion and career satisfaction. However, an under-developed and unbalanced psychological career resources profile may result in negative subjective work experiences (Coetzee, 2008). Psychological career resources may thus have a positive or negative effect on the relationship dynamics between occupational passion and career satisfaction.

For this reason, career management practices that focus on career wellbeing must assist individuals to develop well-rounded psychological career resources profiles in order to strengthen the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction.

The subjective experiences that individuals have in their work and careers, within the complex and challenging contemporary work environment, stimulate the development of psychosocial career preoccupations (Coetzee, 2014b). To satisfy these externally stimulated career-related concerns individuals engage in intrinsically driven proactive and adaptive behaviour (Coetzee, 2015). Studies show that proactive and adaptive behaviour are related to positive subjective work experiences such as passion toward work (Vallerand, 2015) and career satisfaction (Ng & Feldman, 2014). Psychosocial career preoccupations may thus have a positive or negative effect on the relationship dynamics between occupational passion and career satisfaction.

Career management practices that focus on career wellbeing should emphasise the development of proactive and adaptive behaviour related to psychosocial career preoccupations in order to strengthen the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction.

The next section discusses research hypothesis 3.

#### **4.3.3 Hypothetical fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model**

H3: Based on the overall statistical relationships between the independent variable (occupational passion), the dependent variable (career satisfaction), and the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) that there is a good fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model.

Research hypothesis 3 was formulated based on the insights and expectations discussed in relation to research hypotheses 1 and 2. Accordingly, research hypothesis 3 assumed that, based on the overall statistical relationships between the dependent and independent variables, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations, as the mediating variables, and the sociodemographic variables as the moderating variables, there is a good fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model.

The final hypothesised model is expected to reveal relationships between occupational passion, psychological career resources psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction. Also, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations may significantly mediate the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction.

The core elements of the final hypothesised model can be implemented by industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners to support individuals in career wellbeing practices.

The hypothetical moderating effect of the sociodemographic variables on the respective research variables is discussed next.

#### **4.3.4 Hypothetical moderating effect of sociodemographic variables**

H4: Individuals' sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) significantly moderate the relationship between the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction).

Research hypothesis 4 assumed that individuals' sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) would significantly moderate the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction (see Figure 4.1).

Person-centred variables, also known as sociodemographic variables, were used in the research study to control for certain outcomes (Dawson, 2013). De Vos et al. (2011) state that the control variable strongly influences research results as it is held constant during the research in order to test the relative relationship between the dependent and the independent variables. Social sciences generally regard sociodemographic variables as potential confounders of the relationship between construct variables (Dawson, 2013).

Becker (1964) defines the variables pertaining to human capital as individual factors, for example race, gender, age, qualification, job level, and tenure. Several researchers have emphasised the importance of taking individual characteristics into account when studying career constructs (Greenhouse et al., 1990; Kidd, 2008; Turban & Dougherty, 1994). Wayne, Laden, Kramer, and Graf (1999) describe human capital factors, such as individuals' demographic and social backgrounds, as important factors when looking at holistic career experiences.

Research hypothesis 4 assumed that race would be a significant predictor of career satisfaction. This hypothesis was premised on previous research which found that racial and cultural backgrounds have a significant impact on subjective career experiences, for example the perceptions of success by working adults (Coetzee & Stoltz, 2015; Dries et al., 2009; Du Toit & Coetzee, 2012; Hofstede, 2001; João & Coetzee, 2012; Koh et al., 2016; Van Dyk & Coetzee, 2012). It was hypothesised that race would also significantly predict the construct of occupational passion and, more specifically, the level and type of occupational passion. This hypothesis is in line with previous research which has found that race has an impact on those activities which are internalised into an individual's self-concept (Burke et al., 2014; Ho et al., 2011; Vallerand et al., 2007; Vallerand et al., 2010).

In view of the fact that previous research has found that race is a significant predictor of the construct of psychological career resources, it was hypothesised that race would also predict psychological career resources in this research study (Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee et al., 2014; Kim et al., 2015; Motileng et al., 2006). In line with previous research it was expected that race would have a significant impact on the utilisation and development of the various psychological career resource construct variables (Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee et al., 2014; Kim et al., 2015; Motileng et al., 2006). As previous research has indicated that race has an impact on the type and level of career concern of individuals, it was hypothesised that race would be a significant predictor of psychosocial career preoccupations (João & Coetzee, 2012).

It was also hypothesised that gender would be a significant predictor of career satisfaction. This hypothesis is based on previous research that has found that traditional gender roles

continue to have a significant impact on career satisfaction, subjective career experiences, career opportunities and organisational sponsorship (Evers & Sieverding, 2014; Kiaye & Singh, 2013; Ng et al., 2005; Stumpf & Tymoon, 2012). In line with previous research findings, it was hypothesised that traditional gender roles would have an impact on the level and type of passion developed by individuals in the workplace (Carpentier et al., 2012; Curran et al., 2015; Rousseau et al., 2002).

It was also expected that gender would be a significant predictor of psychological career resources. This hypothesis is in line with previous research which has indicated that gender influences the way career meta-capacities are developed, utilised and perceived (Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee & Bergh, 2009; Venter, 2012). Since previous research has indicated that gender significantly predicts the type and level of career concern that individuals develop, it was hypothesised that psychosocial career preoccupations would be significantly predicted by gender (Coetzee & Harry, 2015).

It was expected that age would be a significant predictor of career satisfaction in the study. This hypothesis was built on previous research that has found that an individual's age has a significant impact on their career experiences, career goal setting, adaptability, career self-management practices, and career-life stages (Jung & Takeuchi, 2014; Ng et al., 2005; Riordan & Louw-Potgieter, 2011; Super, 1957; Zacher, 2014). It was thus hypothesised that age would be a significant predictor of occupational passion. This hypothesis was formulated on the basis of previous research which has found that an individual's age influences the manner in which certain work activities are internalised into their self-concepts (Birkeland & Buch, 2015; Houlfort et al., 2013; Rousseau & Vallerand, 2008).

It was hypothesised that age would be significant predictor of individuals' ability to develop a well-rounded, psychological career resources profile. This hypothesis was based on previous research which indicated that an individual's age would affect the type and level of resource investment in the pursuit of specific career outcomes (Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee et al., 2014; Hobfoll et al., 2015). In line with previous research, which indicates that psychosocial career preoccupations are not necessarily age-related, the research hypothesis expected that age would not be a significant predictor of psychosocial career preoccupations (Coetzee, 2014b; 2015).

In view of the fact that previous research indicates that educational qualifications add to the value of an individual's professional profile in the job market, it was hypothesised that qualification would significantly predict career satisfaction (Ng et al., 2005; Ng & Feldman, 2014). It was further hypothesised that educational qualification would have a significant

impact on the development of occupational passion. This hypothesis was based on the research of Vallerand et al. (2007), who found that the longer an individual perseveres to obtain their educational qualification, the more passionate they are about their work.

It was hypothesised that educational qualification would significantly predict the development and utilisation of psychological career resources. This hypothesis was based on previous research which indicated that educational qualification influences the degree and type of psychological career resource implemented in the pursuit of career outcome resources (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2008). Previous research found that the type of psychosocial career preoccupation that was developed during a specific career life stage would be affected by educational qualification (Coetzee, 2016a). It was thus hypothesised that educational qualification would affect the level and type of psychosocial career preoccupation that is developed.

It was also hypothesised that the job level would have a significant impact on the individual's career satisfaction. This hypothesis was supported by previous research which indicated that the hierarchical positions of individuals within the organisation impacted directly on their evaluation of their own career success (Brown & Hesketh, 2004; Ng et al., 2005; Robinson, 2007). It was therefore expected that job level would have a significant impact on the level and type of passion individuals have toward their work. Previous research has indicated that because job level is seen as an extrinsic motivator or contingency, it will have a significant impact on whether harmonious or obsessive passion toward work is developed by the individual (Astakhova et al., 2010; Burke et al., 2014).

It was expected that job level would significantly predict the manner and level of psychological career resource implementation. The literature review above indicated that job level has an impact on the development and utilisation of the respective psychological career resources (Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee et al., 2014). It was thus hypothesised that job level would be a significant predictor of psychosocial career preoccupations. This hypothesis was based on previous research which indicates that career preoccupations are greatly influenced by individuals' concerns about job security, climbing the organisational ladder and the long-term development of their careers (Sharf, 2010).

Previous research has found that tenure is a significant predictor of both objective and subjective career success, as the amount of time that individuals spend with organisations has a significant effect on the rewards that the organisation confers on them (Ferreira, 2012; Kameny et al., 2014; Kirchmeyer, 1998). It was therefore hypothesised that tenure would be a significant predictor of career satisfaction. It was also hypothesised that the amount of time

(tenure) that an individual has spent working on a specific activity will have a great effect on their level and type of passion for that specific activity. This hypothesis was built on previous research which has found that tenure significantly impacts on the way work activities are internalised into an individual's self-concept (Birkeland & Buch, 2015; Nordström et al., 2016).

It was hypothesised that tenure would have an impact on the type and level of psychological career resource implementation. This hypothesis was based on previous research which indicated that individuals' tenure influences the development of their psychological career resources in terms of their satisfaction with specific career-related needs and outcomes (Coetzee & Esterhuizen, 2010; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2008; Ferreira et al., 2010). As previous research has shown that career experience has a significant impact on the time and level of career preoccupations that individuals develop, it was hypothesised that tenure would significantly predict psychosocial career preoccupations (Coetzee, 2016; João & Coetzee, 2012).

It was anticipated that the study would provide an empirically tested model of career wellbeing for the diverse South African work context – a model which takes into account the moderating impact of certain sociodemographic variables such as race, gender, age, qualification, job level, and tenure. Knowledge of the elements of this career wellbeing profile would, hopefully, assist organisations to support the members of their diverse workforces in optimising their career wellbeing.

Research hypothesis 5 is discussed next.

#### **4.3.5 Hypothetical differences between the respective sociodemographic groups**

Research hypothesis 5 assumed that individuals from diverse sociodemographic groups differed substantially regarding their occupational passion, type of passion, career satisfaction and the application of their psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations (see Figure 4.1).

As pointed out in the literature review (see sections 2.3.3; 2.4.3; 3.1.3 and 3.2.3), significant differences have been found between respective sociodemographic variables, for example race, gender, age, qualification, job level, and tenure, and the variables of career satisfaction, occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations.

It was hypothesised that individuals from different race groups (black Africans, coloureds, Indian/Asians and whites) would differ significantly in respect of their career satisfaction. It was in fact expected that black South Africans would experience higher levels of career satisfaction

in relation to the other racial groups. This hypothesis is based on previous research which has found that black South Africans tend to value their career progression, career goals and career adaptability more than other racial groups (Coetzee & Stoltz, 2015; Koekemoer, 2014). Also, owing to employment legislation such as the Employment Equity Act (Republic of South Africa, 1998) and Black Economic Empowerment, black South Africans have more career opportunities than the other racial groups. There has, however, been little research into studying the career satisfaction of South African employees across different industries and job levels (Koekemoer, 2014).

As previous research has found significant differences between individuals from collectivistic versus individualistic racial groups, it was hypothesised that this study would find significant differences between the racial groups in relation to occupational passion. Burke et al. (2014) found that the type and level of passion toward work was influenced by the importance that certain racial groups attached to work, work–life balance and career progression. Furthermore, it has been found that individuals from collectivistic racial groups tend to be more obsessively passionate about their work than individuals from individualistic racial groups (Burke et al., 2014; Vallerand et al., 2007; Vallerand et al., 2010). It was hypothesised that individuals from collectivistic backgrounds experience greater obsessive passion than individuals from individualistic racial groups.

It was hypothesised that significant differences would be observed between the respective racial groups regarding the development of psychological career resources. This is based on previous research which indicated that black South Africans have a greater propensity to develop psychological career resources in comparison to the other racial groups (Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee et al., 2014; Ferreira et al., 2010).

It was expected that individuals from different racial groups would have different types and levels of concern about their careers. This is based on previous research which identified the fact that black South Africans have greater career concern than the other racial groups (Coetzee & Stoltz, 2015; João & Coetzee, 2012).

It was also hypothesised that significant differences would be found for the construct of career satisfaction between the gender groups. More specifically, it was hypothesised that males would experience greater career satisfaction than their female counterparts. Previous research has indicated that significant gender discrimination still prevails in the South African workplace, making it more difficult for females to have successful and satisfactory careers than their male counterparts (Martin & Barnard, 2013). Furthermore, previous research has indicated that due to traditional gender roles such as raising a family, females tend to experience more

interruptions to their career life stories, with this having a negative effect on their career satisfaction (Kiaye & Singh, 2013; Kirchmeyer, 2005; Obers, 2014). Despite the fact that the concept of career satisfaction has been studied extensively in an international context across gender groups, it would appear that there is a paucity of such research in the South African context.

It was expected that significant differences would be observed between the gender groups for the psychological career resources. This is based on previous research findings which found significant differences between the gender groups in the regard (Coetzee et al., 2014; Coetzee & Bergh, 2009; Venter, 2012). Based on previous research which indicated that there are differences in the career activities that the respective gender groups are concerned about (Coetzee & Harry, 2015), it was hypothesised that similar results would be obtained in the current research study.

It was hypothesised that significant differences would be found regarding the construct of occupational passion between the gender groups. Curran et al. (2015) point out that because females are more susceptible to gender role orientation, such as appearance and self-worth needs related to the job context, they tend to experience higher levels of obsessive passion than males. Nevertheless, there seems to be paucity of research within the South African context on the differences between the genders in terms of the construct of occupational passion.

It was expected that significant differences would be observed between the gender groups for the psychological career resources. This is based on previous research findings which found significant differences between the gender groups for the respective psychological career resources (Coetzee et al., 2014; Coetzee & Bergh, 2009; Venter, 2012). Based on previous research, which indicated that there are differences in the career activities that the respective gender groups are concerned about (Coetzee & Harry, 2015), it was hypothesised that similar results would be obtained in the current research study.

It was expected that significant differences would be found between individuals of different ages in relation to the construct of career satisfaction. More specifically, it was expected that younger individuals would experience greater career satisfaction than older individuals. This hypothesis was based on the literature review, which indicated that because younger individuals can invest more energy and drive in their career self-management practices they are able to experience greater career satisfaction (Jung & Takeuchi, 2014; Zacher, 2014). However, at the time of the study, there was little South African research available which

considered the differences between the various age groups of working adults for career satisfaction.

The literature review pointed out that older individuals tend to experience greater levels of overall passion and, more specifically, harmonious passion toward their work than their younger colleagues (Birkeland & Buch, 2015). This research finding was based on the premise that there are often other aspects in the lives of older individuals that result in more balanced identities in relation to their work (Birkeland & Buch, 2015). Thus, based on this research finding it was hypothesised that older individuals would experience greater levels of overall occupational passion and, more specifically, harmonious passion than their younger counterparts. At the time of this study there was a gap in the research on age-group differences in respect of occupational passion within the South African context.

It was hypothesised that significant differences would be observed between the age groups for psychological career resources. Previous studies have identified the fact that there are significant differences between the age groups in terms of their propensity to develop and utilise the respective psychological career resources (Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee et al., 2014). As Coetzee (2014b, 2015) indicates that the construct of psychosocial career preoccupations is not age related, it was hypothesised that similar findings would be observed in the current research study.

According to Ng and Feldman (2014), low educational qualifications often have a negative effect on an individual's ability to follow a career path of their choosing and this, in turn, has an adverse effect on their career satisfaction. Based on this research finding, it was expected that more highly qualified individuals would experience greater career satisfaction than their more underqualified counterparts. This research hypothesis had not, however, been tested in the South African context at the time of this study.

Vallerand et al. (2007) found that, since individuals with higher educational qualifications have usually had to spend considerable time in acquiring the knowledge and skills related to specific work activities, they often tend to be more passionate about these activities than individuals with lower educational qualifications. In line with this research finding, this study hypothesised that individuals with higher educational qualifications would experience greater levels of occupational passion than individuals with lower educational qualifications.

It was expected that there would be significant differences between the qualification groups in terms of their psychological career resources. Previous research has found that the preferences that individuals have differ depending on their qualifications (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2008). As previous research has shown that qualification

influences individuals' career concerns, it was hypothesised that there would be differences in the type of psychosocial career preoccupations that individuals would develop based on their educational qualification (Coetzee, 2015, 2016).

It was hypothesised that individuals in more senior positions would experience greater career satisfaction than their more junior counterparts. This hypothesis was based on previous research which indicated that because individuals in managerial roles have more power over resources, they experience greater career satisfaction than their non-managerial counterparts (Ng et al., 2005; Robinson, 2007). Although previous research in South Africa has studied the predictors of managerial career satisfaction, there appears to be a paucity of South African research into the differences between the respective job level groups in relation to career satisfaction (Koekemoer, 2014).

Previous research had pointed out that since individuals at the lower job levels have to demonstrate more intrinsic motivation, that is, occupational passion, if they are to reach more senior job levels, they tend to be more passionate about their work than individuals higher up the organisational ladder (Astakhova et al., 2010; Burke et al., 2014; Vallerand et al., 2003). It was thus hypothesised that individuals at the lower job levels would experience greater occupational passion than individuals at the more senior job levels. At the time of the research study there appeared to be scant South African research into the differences between the various job level groups regarding the construct of occupational passion.

It was hypothesised that differences between individuals from respective job level groups would be observed for the development of psychological career resources. This hypothesis is based on previous research which indicated that there are differences between job levels in terms of the development of psychological resources and more specifically career preferences (Coetzee, 2008; Ferreira et al., 2010). As previous research has identified the fact that job level influences the type of concern that individuals have toward their careers, it was expected that there would be differences in the type of psychosocial career preoccupations that individuals would develop based on their job level (Sharf, 2010).

The literature review pointed out that individuals who had not been with an organisation for a long time (tenure) usually experience less support from the organisation and this would negatively affect their career satisfaction (Kameny et al., 2014). In line with this research finding it was hypothesised that individuals with longer tenure at an organisation would experience greater levels of career satisfaction than those with shorter tenure. At the time of the study there appeared to have been no research which had analysed the differences between the respective tenure groups in terms of career satisfaction within the South African context.

Previous research studies have found that generally passion towards work deteriorates over time (Nordström et al., 2016; Qadeer et al., 2016). However, other research has found that individuals with longer tenure experience greater levels of harmonious passion than individuals with shorter tenure, as these more experienced individuals are less concerned about contingencies related to fitting into the organisational context (Birkeland & Buch, 2015). The literature review pointed out the individuals with shorter tenure tend to have higher levels of obsessive passion due to their need to make a significant impact on the organisation (Birkeland & Buch, 2015). It was thus hypothesised that individuals with longer tenure would experience lower levels of occupational passion than individuals with shorter tenure, although the individuals with longer tenure would experience more harmonious passion than obsessive passion. At the time of this study there was no South African research available which had analysed the differences between the tenure groups in relation to the construct of occupational passion.

Previous research has shown that tenure influences the type of psychological career resources that are developed (Coetzee & Esterhuizen, 2010). This influenced the hypothesis as it was expected that similar results would be obtained by the current research. Coetzee (2016b) found that the amount of time that an individual has spent with an organisation (tenure) affects their career concern. It was thus hypothesised that differences would be observed between the respective tenure groups for psychosocial career preoccupations.

Based on the hypothetical relationships between the respective construct variables, the next section discusses the practical implications of these relationships.

#### **4.4 IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE**

The constructs of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations, career satisfaction, and the relationship dynamics between these variables appear to have practical implications for career management practices in terms of enhancing the career wellbeing (satisfaction) of employees.

##### **4.4.1 Career satisfaction**

Career satisfaction is an outcome resource that individuals utilise to measure the extent of their contentment with their own careers (Hobfoll et al., 2015; Ng & Feldman, 2014). Career satisfaction may therefore serve as a benchmark that individuals can apply to determine their satisfaction with their own career progress, the achievement of their career outcomes and the utilisation of their psychosocial career resources, as well as to evaluate their career life stories (Abele & Spurk, 2009a; Hobfoll et al., 2015; Ng & Feldman, 2014).

Individuals who are satisfied with their careers usually demonstrate a positive attitude toward the organisation and, if their career expectations are met, they engage in proactive and adaptive behaviours to increase their performance at work, to perform better at work and to ensure that organisational outcomes are achieved (Fleisher, Khapova, & Jansen 2014; Maurer & Chapman, 2013).

Conversely, ongoing dissatisfaction with the achievement of career outcomes will result in lower levels of career wellbeing (Kidd, 2008). Low levels of career wellbeing may in turn result in low levels of overall wellbeing, as career wellbeing has been found to be a significant predictor of general contentment and happiness with life in general (Diener, 2013). Creed, Hood, and Hu (2017) suggest that continuous goal-orientated behaviour in the pursuit of achieving positive career outcomes, such as career satisfaction, has a highly positive impact on the career wellbeing of individuals.

The practical implications of occupational passion are explained next.

#### **4.4.2 Occupational passion**

Occupational passion is perceived as the intrinsic motivator and psychosocial resource that individuals utilise to obtain career-related outcome resources. Because passion for their work assists individuals to persevere in the complex and dynamic contemporary work environment, it also assists them to achieve career outcomes such as career satisfaction (Houliort et al., 2015; Vallerand, 2015). Harmonious passion toward work facilitates the balanced internalisation of those activities about which an individual is passionate into an individual's self-concept, thus assisting individuals to not over-invest their psychosocial resources in their career-related outcomes (Houliort et al., 2013). Furthermore, harmonious passion toward work facilitates the development of skills and knowledge related to a wide variety of different career-related activities, thus resulting in a well-rounded career profile (Philippe et al., 2010; Vallerand et al., 2014). Since a harmoniously passionate employee enjoys more intrinsic freedom to engage in a wide variety of positive career-related activities, such as the building of positive professional relationships, aspiring to greater work–life balance and proactive and adaptive behaviour, this should lead to the acquisition of outcome resources such as career wellbeing and career satisfaction (Kidd, 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2014; Vallerand et al., 2010).

In terms of career self-management, the autonomous motivational proactive behaviour that stems from passion toward work enables individuals to manage the changes and challenges of the contemporary work environment (Vallerand, 2015). The intrinsic motivator of passion toward work can be utilised to assist individuals to cope with unexpected changes or setbacks

in their careers, for example changes in the job content and downsizing, as well as unexpected changes within the self, such as changes in career identity and goals (Heslin & Turbin, 2016).

Obsessive passion, however, leads to the controlled internalisation of work-related activities in an individual's self-concept (Vallerand et al., 2003). Since obsessively passionate individuals usually participate in work-related activities because of contingencies such as self-acceptance, higher self-esteem and acceptance of others related to the activities, they may experience lower levels of career satisfaction (Vallerand, 2015). Furthermore, the rigorous persistence exhibited in taking part in certain work-related activities will have a negative impact on the freedom of individuals to take part in other positive career-related activities, such as the building of professional relationships and of skills in and knowledge of a wide variety of topics, thus resulting in decreased adaptability in the ever-changing work environment (Vallerand, 2015). Obsessively passionate individuals are thus liable to experience negative career wellbeing symptoms such as burnout, unemployment and the lack of a professional support structure (Vallerand et al., 2010).

The practical implications of psychological career resources are discussed next.

#### **4.4.3 Psychological career resources**

Psychological career resources are perceived as the intrinsic motivators and psychosocial resources that can be used by individuals within the career context to acquire more psychosocial career resources and career outcome resources (Hobfoll et al., 2015). Individuals with a well-rounded psychological career resources profile tend to be more proactive and adaptable and thus better able to cope with the changes and challenges of the modern career environment (Coetzee, 2008). Individuals with well-developed career preferences are usually clear about their career choices and preferred career paths and this helps them to be proactive in planning and managing their careers (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009).

Individuals who apply their career preferences when managing their careers will know where to invest their passion, energy and drive, with this potentially having a positive impact on their career wellbeing. Furthermore, such individuals tend to invest their passion in the activities that they prefer and enjoy, thus experiencing greater levels of career satisfaction.

Career values serve as the intrinsic motivators and psychosocial resources that individuals utilise to benchmark their level of resource outcome attainment (Coetzee, 2008; Hobfoll et al., 2015). Individuals with clearly defined career values are able to direct their passion toward the activities that allow them to satisfy their career values. In addition, individuals with clearly defined benchmarks of career satisfaction may be more content when they achieve their

career-related outcomes (Coetzee, 2008; Ng & Feldman, 2014). Research shows that individuals with clearly defined career goals experience greater career ease in attaining career outcomes such as career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Heslin & Turbin, 2016).

Well-developed career enablers should assist individuals to invest their skills and knowledge in the activities they are passionate about. Harmoniously passionate individuals should be able to apply their career enablers in a wide variety of career-related activities and this should lead to greater levels of career satisfaction. Conversely, obsessively passionate individuals would invest their career enablers only in the activities that they are passionate about, which would potentially lead to an unbalanced professional profile and a lack of adaptability, which is negatively related to career satisfaction (Ng & Feldman, 2014). Research findings show that individuals who develop continuously in their work are more satisfied with their careers (Ng et al., 2005).

Career drivers should assist individuals to invest their motivation, energy and passions in the acquisition of career-related outcomes such as career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2008). Harmoniously passionate individuals would invest their energy and drive into a wide variety of different career-related activities, thus leading to a well-rounded career profile which would potentially result in higher levels of employability and career satisfaction (Symington, 2012). However, individuals who invest their energy and drive only in the activities that they feel passionate about tend to experience obsessive passion which is negatively related to career outcomes such as career wellbeing (Vallerand et al., 2010).

Career harmonisers are used by individuals to balance their career drivers (Coetzee, 2008). Career harmonisers such as emotional literacy assist individuals to implement their career drivers in a wide variety of career-related activities. This leads to more rounded career profiles that include career satisfaction and career wellbeing (Coetzee, 2008). Career harmonisers such as emotional literacy and self-esteem enable individuals to cope effectively with the changes and challenges posed by the ever-changing, contemporary work environment (Coetzee, 2008). The career harmoniser of positive self-esteem should facilitate the development of harmonious passion toward work, as individuals with positive self-esteem are not dependent on their work to feel valued and respected (Mageau et al., 2011).

Conversely, individuals with low self-esteem often use work-related activities to boost their self-worth with this ultimately leading to the development of obsessive passion, lower career satisfaction and lower career wellbeing (Mageau et al., 2011). Furthermore, career harmonisers enhance the development of positive professional relationships, skills

development, proactive and adaptive behaviour and the ability to cope with pressure (Ferreira, 2012).

The practical implications of psychosocial career preoccupations are discussed next.

#### **4.4.4 Psychosocial career preoccupations**

Psychosocial career preoccupations are perceived as the intrinsic motivators and psychosocial resources that help individuals to demonstrate proactive and adaptive behaviour, thus helping to cope with the pressures of the modern work environment. Career establishment preoccupations result in individuals addressing their concerns about fitting into both the work and the team environment, upskilling themselves and attaining secure and stable employment (Coetzee, 2014b). Individuals who engage in proactive behaviour in respect of satisfying their psychosocial career preoccupations are better equipped to cope with the concerns, pressures and setbacks of the modern career environment, as well as the intrinsic changes that may occur such as changes in career aspirations and values (Heslin & Turbin, 2016).

Individuals who are serious about satisfying their career preoccupations would need to show proactive and adaptive behaviour by investing their passion in those activities that would satisfy their career establishment preoccupations. Individuals who focus on satisfying a wide variety of career concerns should develop harmonious passion, as harmoniously passionate individuals strive to achieve balance in their careers (Vallerand, 2015). However, individuals who become overconcerned with the satisfaction of their career establishment preoccupations would experience obsessive passion, which results in the depletion of outcome resources such as career wellbeing and career satisfaction (Strauss et al., 2015).

Career adaptation preoccupations result in individuals showing concern about the challenges in the employment environment and this has a negative impact on their employability (Coetzee, 2014b). Because measures of objective career success such as job security and stability are predictors of subjective career success such as career satisfaction, individuals should satisfy their career adaptation preoccupations if they experience greater career satisfaction. Thus, individuals should invest their passion and energy proactively in terms of the satisfaction of the career concerns related to adapting to the work environment, remaining relevant in the job market and constantly upscaling themselves (Coetzee, 2015). Individuals who ensure that their career adaptation preoccupations are satisfied should experience greater levels of employability, with this resulting in higher levels of career satisfaction and career wellbeing over time (Coetzee, 2015). However, individuals who become obsessed with satisfying their career concerns without other psychosocial resources being available would be prone to experience obsessive passion (Coetzee, 2014b; Vallerand, 2015).

The satisfaction of work–life adjustment preoccupations should result in individuals acting proactively in respect of satisfying their career outcomes such as career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2014b). The attainment of greater work–life balance, taking on fewer work responsibilities and eventual retirement should result in a more balanced approach to career management which is closely associated with harmonious passion (Vallerand, 2015). Better balance between work-related activities and the pressures of psychosocial life should facilitate the development of overall career wellbeing (Creed & Blume, 2013). In turn, individuals who experience concern about the balance between work and their psychosocial lives should also experience greater career satisfaction (Spurk et al., 2015).

In short, it would seem that the variables of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations, career satisfaction and the relationship dynamics between these variables may be of significant benefit to career management and career wellbeing practices.

The chapter synthesis and evaluation of the key findings are presented next.

#### **4.5 CHAPTER EVALUATION AND SYNTHESIS**

The aim of this chapter was to provide an overview of the literature review which would assist the researcher to construct a theoretical hypothesised model of career wellbeing for the South African working adult.

It is hoped that the current research will contribute to the existing knowledge on the link between autonomous motivators, psychosocial resources and the acquisition of outcome resources by studying the relationship dynamics between the intrinsic motivators, psychosocial resources and outcome resources of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction. It was also hoped that an understanding of the relationships between the intrinsic motivators, psychosocial resources and the outcome resources, as discussed in this study, would make a significant contribution to the available research on the antecedents of career wellbeing. Furthermore, it was hoped that the key elements of the final hypothesised model of career wellbeing would assist industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners to develop interventions for career wellbeing and career management practices.

Because intrinsic, autonomous motivation facilitates career self-management, problem-solving behaviour, the setting of more challenging career goals and the development of positive work relationships (Parker & Liao, 2016), it was hypothesised that such motivation would also lead to the acquisition of outcome resources such as career satisfaction.

This chapter hypothesised the existence of a significant link between the psychosocial resource and intrinsic motivator of occupational passion and the outcome resource of career satisfaction. This hypothesis was built on the premise that when individuals invest their energy, interests and drive (occupational passion) in certain work-related activities, they tend to be more satisfied with the outcomes (Vallerand, 2015). It was hoped that the knowledge arising from an understanding of the relationship dynamics between the variables of occupational passion and career satisfaction would inform career wellbeing and career management practices in terms of understanding the type and the level of passion toward work that leads to greater levels of career satisfaction. Furthermore, it was hoped that the knowledge gained from the investigation into the relationship dynamics between occupational passion and career satisfaction would inform industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners about the risks related to obsessive passion and the negative impact it may have regarding the depletion of outcome resources such as career satisfaction and career wellbeing.

The chapter hypothesised that there would be a significant relationship between the psychosocial resource and intrinsic motivator of occupational passion and the outcome resource of career satisfaction. This hypothesis was based on the premise that intrinsic motivators and psychosocial resources may be utilised to obtain outcome resources as well as to protect against the loss of other psychosocial resources (Hobfoll et al., 2015). Based on the finding that psychological career resources lead to proactive and adaptive behaviour, it was hypothesised that a well-rounded, psychological career resource profile would enhance the development of the other psychosocial resources and offer protection against the depletion of resources.

It was hoped that a career theory would be enhanced by understanding the relationship dynamics between the variables of psychological career resources and career satisfaction in the sense that more information would be available on the psychological career resources that either enhance or deplete the outcome resource of career satisfaction. In addition, it was hoped that the final hypothesised career wellbeing profile would inform industrial psychologists and HR practitioners in relation to the practical interventions that they could implement to support individuals in developing well-rounded psychological career resource profiles, which ultimately lead to higher levels of career satisfaction.

It was hypothesised in this chapter that psychological career resources and occupational passion would be significantly related to each other. It was expected that occupational passion would relate to higher levels of career satisfaction through the presence of a well-rounded psychological career resources profile. Furthermore, it was hypothesised that the respective psychological career resources would interact in a positive manner with each other to protect

against the loss of occupational passion. Furthermore, from a practical perspective, it was hoped that the research findings would inform industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners of the risks involved in unbalanced psychological career resource profiles, as this may lead to the development of obsessive passion and the depletion of harmonious passion.

It was hypothesised that a significant relationship exists between psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction. It was expected that psychosocial career preoccupations facilitate the development of the proactive and adapted behaviour that leads to the acquisition of the outcome resource of career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2014b). However, it was also expected that, when individuals overemphasise the satisfaction of their psychosocial career preoccupations in the absence of other psychosocial resources to buffer against the loss of resources, career satisfaction would be depleted (Strauss et al., 2017).

It was anticipated that the knowledge gained on the relationship dynamics between the variables of psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction would inform current career theory on the proactive behaviour related to psychosocial career preoccupations and how the implementation of such proactive behaviour can influence career satisfaction. In addition, it was hoped that the relationship dynamics between psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction would inform practical interventions on the value of concern about one's career outcomes, as well as the potential negative impact of being overly concerned about specific psychosocial career preoccupations in the absence of other positive resources.

It was hypothesised in this chapter that a significant relationship would exist between psychosocial career preoccupations and occupational passion. More specifically, it was hypothesised that the proactive behaviour related to psychosocial career preoccupations would facilitate the type and level of occupational passion that may develop in individuals. Furthermore, it was hoped that the knowledge gained on the relationship dynamics between the variables of psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction would inform career wellbeing practices related to the proactive behaviour that should be developed to ensure that certain psychosocial preoccupations are satisfied, thus resulting the development of harmonious passion as opposed to obsessive passion.

It was hypothesised that significant relationships exist between the constructs of psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations. It was also hypothesised that the respective proactive and adaptive behaviours related to the construct of psychological career resources would enhance the development of the respective proactive and adaptive behaviour related to the construct of psychosocial career preoccupations.

It was hoped that the relationship dynamics that were found between these two variables would inform current career theory in respect of the psychological career resources that should be fostered to satisfy certain psychosocial career preoccupations. It was also hoped that career theory would be advanced by understanding the way the proactive and adaptive behaviour related to the satisfaction of psychosocial career preoccupations affects the development of a well-rounded, psychological career resources profile. In addition, it was hoped that the final hypothesised model of career wellbeing would influence practical interventions related to the development of a well-rounded, psychological career resources profile, as well as the positive proactive adaptive behaviour related to psychosocial career preoccupations.

It was expected that psychological career resources would significantly mediate the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction, while it was hypothesised that a well-rounded, psychological career resources profile would significantly strengthen the relationship dynamics between occupational passion and career satisfaction. It was also hypothesised that an unbalanced psychological career resources profile – in other words, an overemphasis on certain proactive behaviours related to some psychological career resources in the absence of other positive psychological career resources – would have a significantly negative impact on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction (Strauss et al., 2017).

It was hypothesised that psychosocial career preoccupations would significantly mediate the relationship dynamics between occupational passion and career satisfaction. It was also hypothesised that overemphasis on certain proactive and adaptive behaviours related to the satisfaction of all psychosocial career preoccupations, in combination with a lack of other positive resources, would significantly deplete the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction. However, it was expected that if the proactive and adaptive behaviour related to psychosocial career preoccupations were supported by other positive psychosocial resources, the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction would be strengthened. It is hoped that the research findings inform career theory regarding the adaptive and proactive behaviours related to the satisfaction of psychosocial career preoccupations and how these behaviours affect the relationship dynamics between occupational passion and career satisfaction.

It was hypothesised in this chapter that the respective sociodemographic variables of race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure would significantly predict occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction. It was hoped that the insights gained from the research into the sociodemographic variables

that significantly predict the research variables would enhance the available knowledge on the predictors of career wellbeing.

Based on the literature review it was hypothesised that there would be significant differences between individuals from different sociodemographic backgrounds (i.e. race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) in relation to the research variables of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction. This hypothesis is in line with COR theory (Hobfoll, 2002), which states that individuals from different backgrounds are more able to acquire certain psychosocial resources than individuals from other backgrounds. It was hoped that the information on the differences between individuals from respective backgrounds would contribute to the existing knowledge on the sociodemographic groups that tend to experience greater career wellbeing compared to others. It was further hoped that the final career wellbeing profile developed would be used to put proactive measures and interventions in place to assist specific groups who tend not to experience career wellbeing.

At the time of the study little seemed to have been done in terms of an empirically tested psychosocial career wellbeing model for the South African context. There also seemed to be a gap in the research on occupational passion within the South African context. In addition, the relationship dynamics between occupational passion and career satisfaction seemed to have been under-researched in South Africa. There was also clearly a need to study the mediating effect of the constructs of psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations on the relationship dynamics between occupational passion and career satisfaction. The role of the sociodemographic variables of race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure have also not been studied as moderators of the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction within the South African context. Finally, the differences between the sociodemographic variables of race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure in relation to the variables of occupational passion, career satisfaction, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations have not been studied in the South Africa either jointly or in a single study.

The overall interdependent theoretical relationship dynamics between the respective variables enabled the researcher to formulate a theoretical psychosocial career wellbeing model, as illustrated in Figure 4.1.

The chapter summary is presented next.

## 4.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter addressed research aims 3 and 4 of the literature review; namely, to conceptualise the theoretical relationship between the respective career wellbeing-related psychosocial resources and career satisfaction; to construct a theoretically integrated, psychosocial career wellbeing framework that could be used to inform career wellbeing practices; and to outline the implications of the psychosocial career wellbeing framework for career management practices.

The literature research aims 1, 2, 3, and 4 were accordingly achieved:

Research aim 1: To determine how the literature defines career wellbeing and career satisfaction within the context of the contemporary world of work.

Research aim 2: To determine how the literature conceptualises occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations.

Research aim 3: To determine the theoretical elements of the psychosocial career wellbeing model that emerged from the relationship dynamics between the career constructs of occupational passion, career satisfaction, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations.

Research aim 4: To determine the implications of the theoretically suggested psychosocial model of career wellbeing for career management practices.

In Chapter 5 the empirical investigation that was conducted is discussed with the specific aim of formulating the statistical approaches that were adopted.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **RESEARCH METHOD**

The focus of this chapter is on the statistical methods which were applied to determine whether it would be possible to construct a psychosocial model of career wellbeing for diverse South African working adults. Within the research a cross-sectional quantitative survey design was implemented which did not seek to establish cause and effect relations, but only to explore the direction, magnitude, and nature of the relationship dynamics between the respective variables. This was accomplished by examining the relationship dynamics between occupational passion (independent variable), career satisfaction (dependent variable), psychological career resources (mediating variable) and psychosocial career preoccupations (mediating variable). The chapter commences with a brief discussion of the sample and the population used in the research study. The chapter then discusses the measuring instruments that were used and the rationale for their use. The data collection process and the statistical processing methods applied are then explained. Finally, the chapter elaborates on the formulation of the research hypotheses.

The empirical phase entailed the following nine steps:

Step 1: Determination and description of the sample

Step 2: Choosing and motivating the psychometric battery

Step 3: Ethical considerations and administration of the psychometric battery

Step 4: Capturing the criterion data

Step 5: Formulation of research hypotheses

Step 6: Statistical processing of the data

Step 7: Reporting and interpreting the results

Step 8: Integration of research findings

Step 9: Formulation of research conclusions, limitations and recommendations

Steps one to six are discussed in this chapter and steps seven to nine are discussed in Chapters 6 and 7.

## 5.1 DETERMINATION AND DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

A sample may be described as a small proportion of a population selected for the purposes of observation and exploration (Bryman & Bell, 2015), with the population indicating the total number of members (Khan, 2011). The aim of sampling is to optimise limited resources such as money and time (Della Porta & Keating, 2008). A key consideration to take into account during sampling is whether or not the sample is representative of the total population (Bernard, Wutich, & Ryan, 2016). There are two major approaches which may be taken when deciding on the sampling methods to be used (Levy & Lemeshow, 2013). The first such approach is probability sampling, in terms of which every participant has an equal chance of being selected as part of the sample (Levy & Lemeshow, 2013). The second approach is a non-probability sampling approach where the participants are not given an equal chance of being part of the sample (Levy & Lemeshow, 2013).

This study used a purposive sampling approach. Purposive sampling is a method of non-probability sampling, in terms of which the sample is chosen for a specific purpose (Bryman & Bell, 2015). The goal of this sampling technique is to identify a specific sample, in a calculated manner, to ensure that it is relevant to the desired research outcomes (Bryman & Bell, 2015). The sample is identified so as to ensure that participants are diverse in terms of significant features relating to the research outcomes (Bryman & Bell, 2015). The benefit of purposive sampling is that its purpose is to ensure precision in the identification of a sample that is selected according to the variables and features that are specific to the study in question (Ritchie, Lewis, Nicholls & Ormston, 2013). One of the negative characteristics of the purposive sampling technique is that it may be time consuming in respect of the specific variables and features that are sought (Ritchie et al., 2013).

The research population in this study included South African working adults. A purposive sample of  $n = 1215$  individuals, varying in terms of race, gender, qualification, age, job level and tenure, was targeted via the professional, online, social media site, LinkedIn. The inclusion/exclusion criteria for the sample was: (1) individuals needed to be South African, (2) individuals needed to be working adults and (3) individuals needed to be 'connected' to the researcher on LinkedIn. The participants were asked to complete an online survey consisting of the four measuring instruments. A total of 550 usable questionnaires were returned ( $n = 550$ ) and thus a response rate of 45% was achieved. This result was perceived as one of the limitations of the study as it meant that the research results could not be generalised to the entire population.

The profile of the sample is described based on the following sociodemographic variables, namely, race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure. These sociodemographic

variables were incorporated based on the findings of the literature review on the influence of these variables on the career wellbeing indicators/psychosocial resources of career satisfaction, occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations.

**5.1.1 Distribution of race groups in the sample**

Table 5.1 and Figure 5.1 illustrate the racial distribution of the sample with black Africans comprising 7.6%, coloureds 3.0%, Indian/Asians 3.4% and whites 82.5% of the total sample of research participants (n = 550). These frequencies indicated that the white racial group made up most of the sample (82.5%). In other words, the participants of white ethnic origins (82.5%) were predominant in the sample.

Table 5.1  
Race Distribution in the Sample (n = 550)

Race	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Black African	42	7.6	7.6
Coloured	17	3.0	10.6
Indian/Asian	19	3.4	14.0
White	454	82.5	96.5
Multiple ethnicity/other	18	3.2	100
Total	550	100.0	

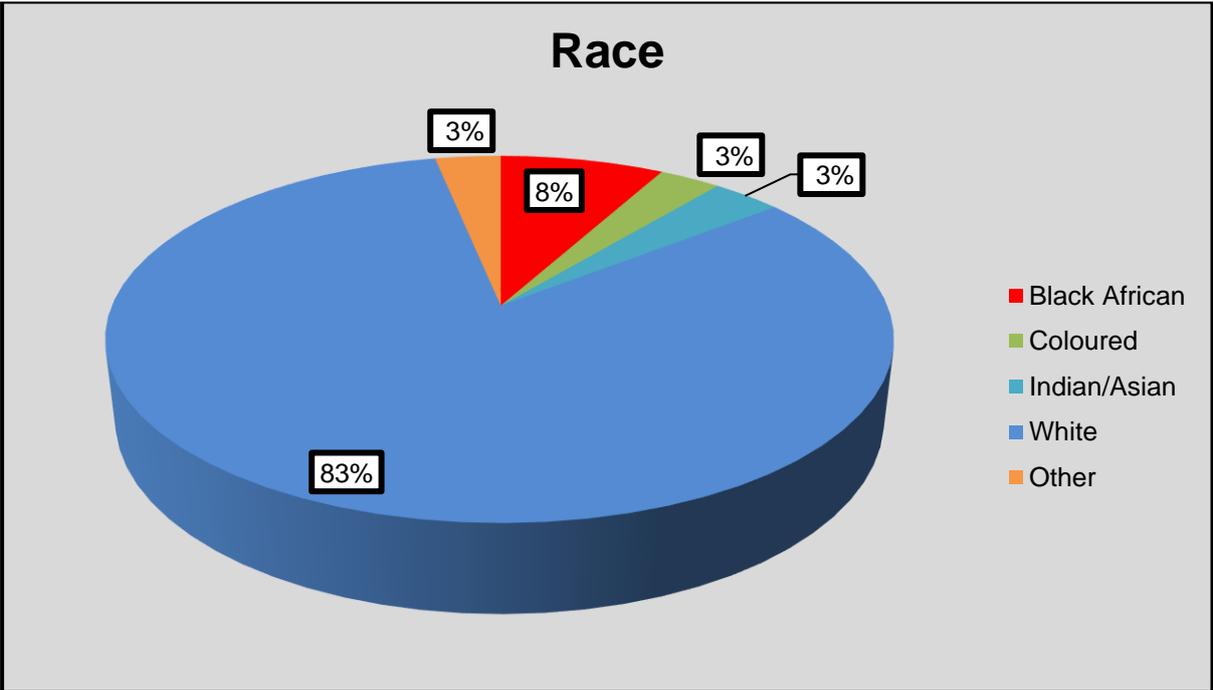


Figure 5.1: Sample distribution by race (n = 550)

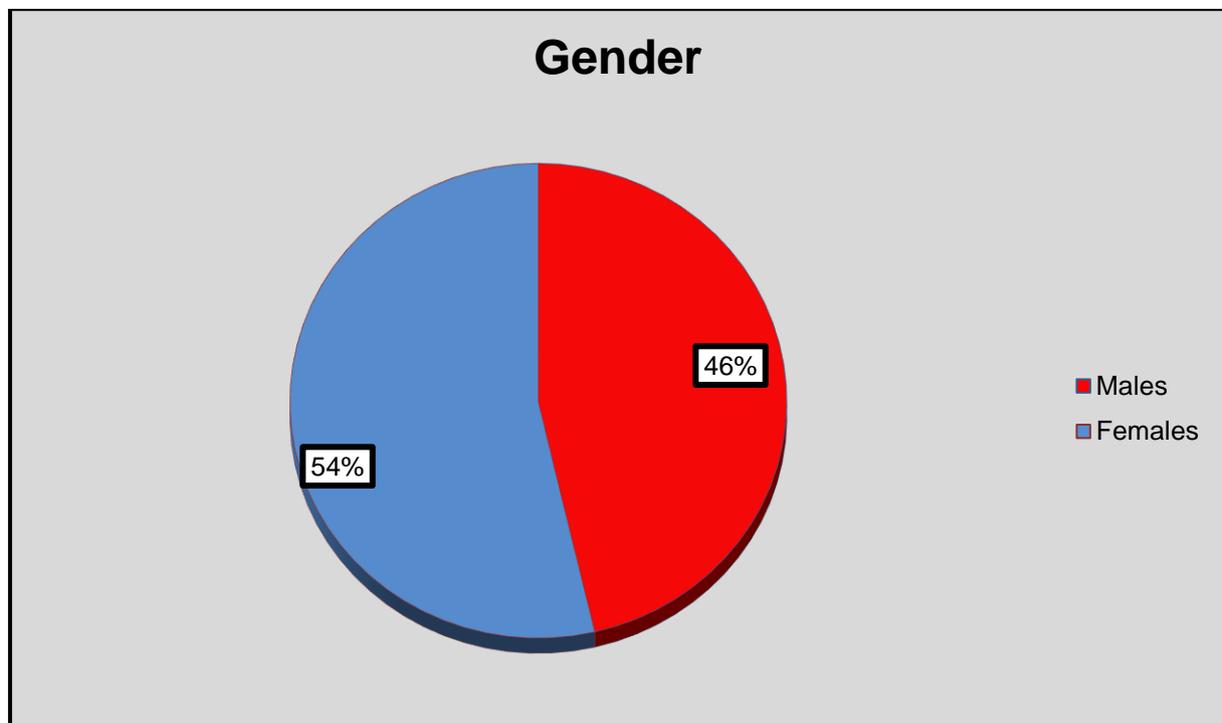
### 5.1.2 Distribution of gender groups in the sample

Table 5.2 and Figure 5.2 present the distribution of gender groups in the sample. Male participants made up 46.3% of the sample and female participants 53.6% ( $n = 550$ ). Overall, male and female participants were relatively equally distributed.

Table 5.2

*Gender Distribution in the Sample ( $n = 550$ )*

Gender	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Males	255	46.3	46.3
Females	295	53.6	100
Total	550	100.0	



*Figure 5.2: Sample distribution by gender ( $n = 550$ )*

### 5.1.3 Distribution of age groups in the sample

Table 5.3 and Figure 5.3 present the distribution of the age groups in the sample. The ages of the participants were grouped into distinct categories, ranging between 18 years and 65 years and older. The frequencies of the age groups revealed that the 18 to 30-year age group (55.5%) and the 31 to 45-year age group (22.18%) were in the majority in the sample. Participants between 46 and 64 years made up 19.45% of the sample, while those aged 65 years and older made up 2.9% of the total sample ( $n = 550$ ). The mean age of the sample of participants was 34 ( $SD = 10.95$ ).

Table 5.3

*Age Distribution in the Sample (n = 550)*

Age	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
18–30 years	305	55.5	55.5
31–45 years	122	22.1	77.68
46–64 years	107	19.4	97.13
65 years and older	16	2.9	100.0
Total	550	100.0	

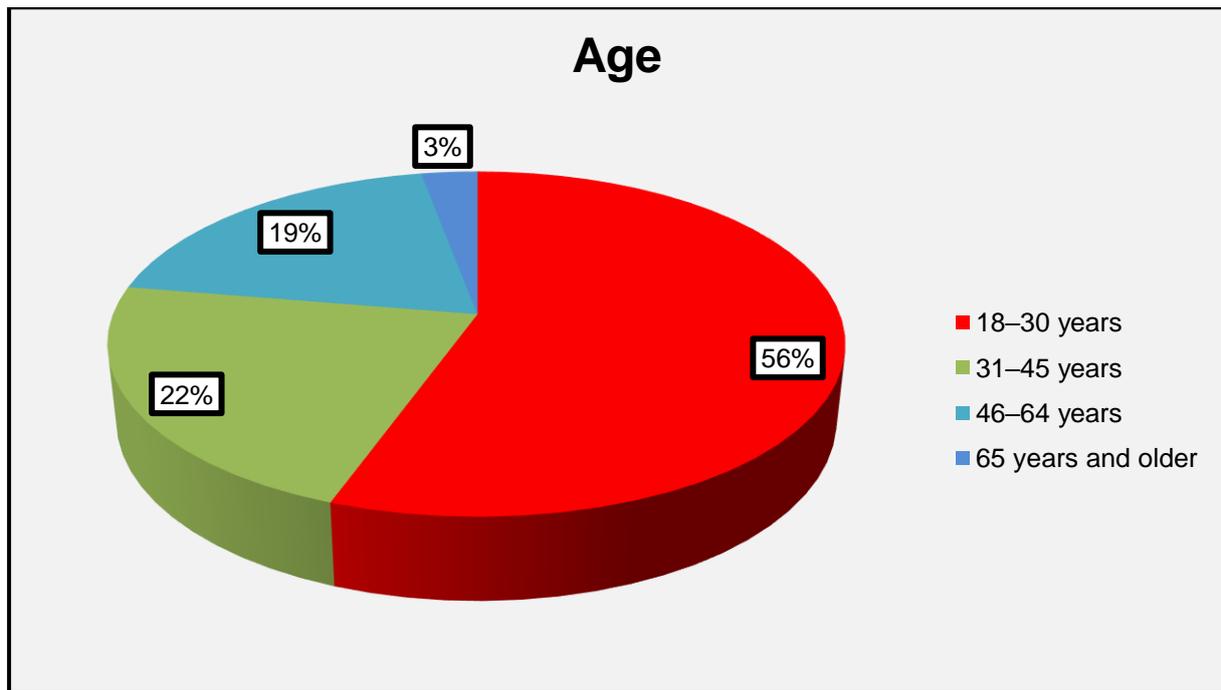


Figure 5.3: Sample distribution by age (n = 550)

#### 5.1.4 Distribution of educational qualifications in the sample

Table 4.4 and Figure 4.4 indicate the distribution of educational qualifications in the sample. This distribution was as follows: 4.3% of the sample had attained Grade 12 (NQF level 4); 3.1% had a higher certificate (NQF level 5); 7.5% had a diploma or advanced certificate (NQF level 6); 21.4% had obtained a bachelor's degree (NQF level 7) and 63.6% had a postgraduate degree (NQF levels 8–10). Overall, employees with graduate and postgraduate level qualifications (85%) were in the majority in the sample.

Table 5.4

*Educational Qualification Distribution in the Sample (n = 550)*

<b>Educational qualification</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>	<b>Cumulative Percentage</b>
Grade 12 (NQF level 4)	24	4.3	4.3
Higher certificate (NQF level 5)	17	3.1	7.4
Diploma or advanced certificate (NQF level 6)	41	7.5	14.9
Bachelor's degree (NQF level 7)	118	21.4	36.3
Postgraduate degree (NQF levels 8–10)	350	63.6	100
Total	550	100.0	

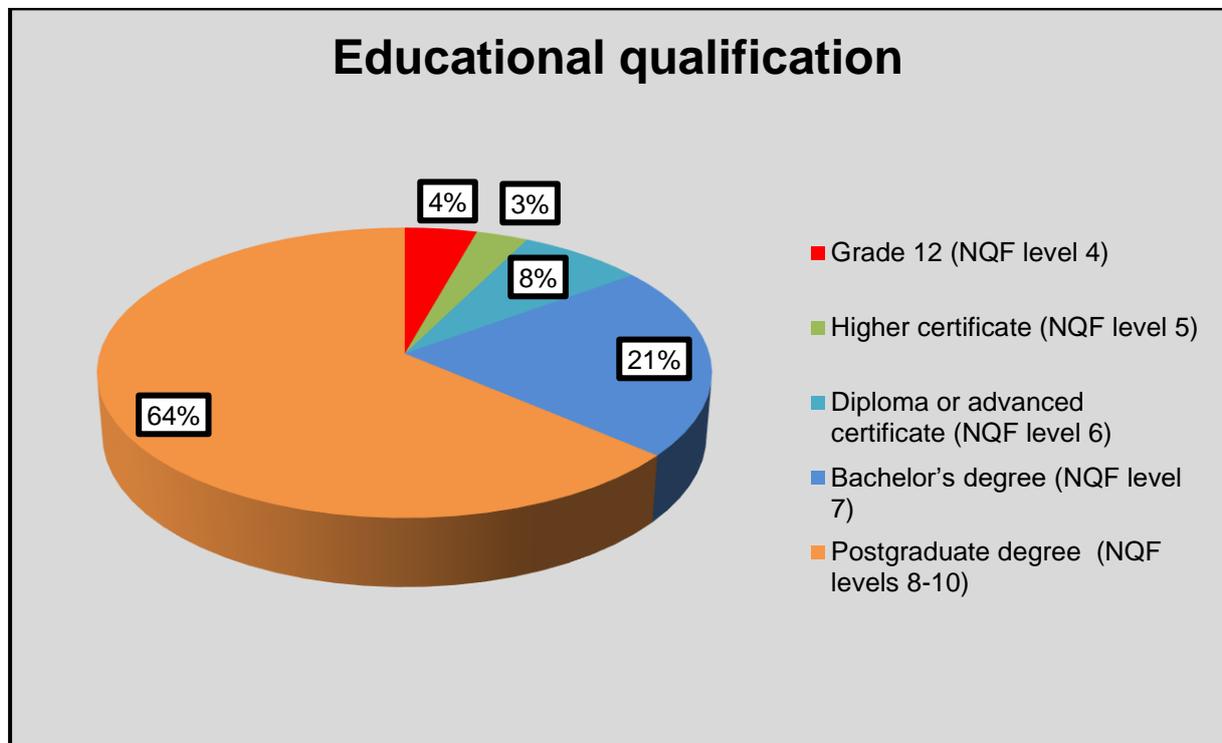


Figure 5.4: Sample distribution by educational qualification (n = 550)

### 5.1.5 Distribution of job level groups in the sample

Table 5.5 and Figure 5.5 represent the job level distribution in the sample: 27.2% of the participants worked as staff members; 21.2% as managers; and 51.4% at the owner/executive/c-level. Overall, the management/executive/c-level group was in the majority (72.6%).

Table 5.5

*Job Level Distribution in the Sample (n = 550)*

Job level	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Staff member	150	27.2	27.2
Management	117	21.2	48.4
Owner/executive/c-level	283	51.4	100
Total	550	100.0	

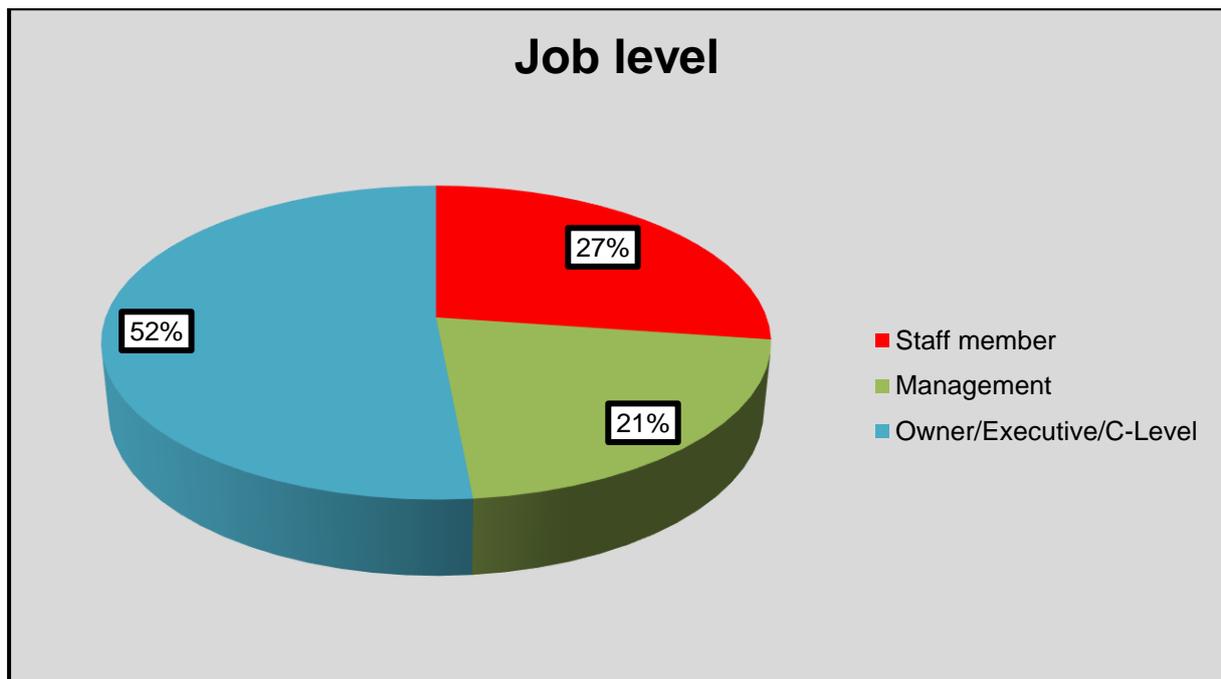


Figure 5.5: Sample Distribution of Job Level (n = 550)

### 5.1.6 Distribution of tenure groups in the sample

Table 5.6 and Figure 5.6 illustrate the tenure distribution of the sample. This distribution showed that 57.8% of the participants had been employed for one to five years; 17.1% for six to ten years; 14.3% for 11 to 20 years; and 10.72% for 21 or more years. Overall, employees with 1 to 10 years tenure (74.9%) made up most of the sample.

Table 5.6

Tenure Distribution in the Sample (n = 550)

Tenure	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
One to five years	318	57.8	57.8
Six to ten years	94	17.1	74.9
Eleven to twenty years	79	14.3	89.2
Twenty-one and more years	59	10.7	100
Total	550	100.0	

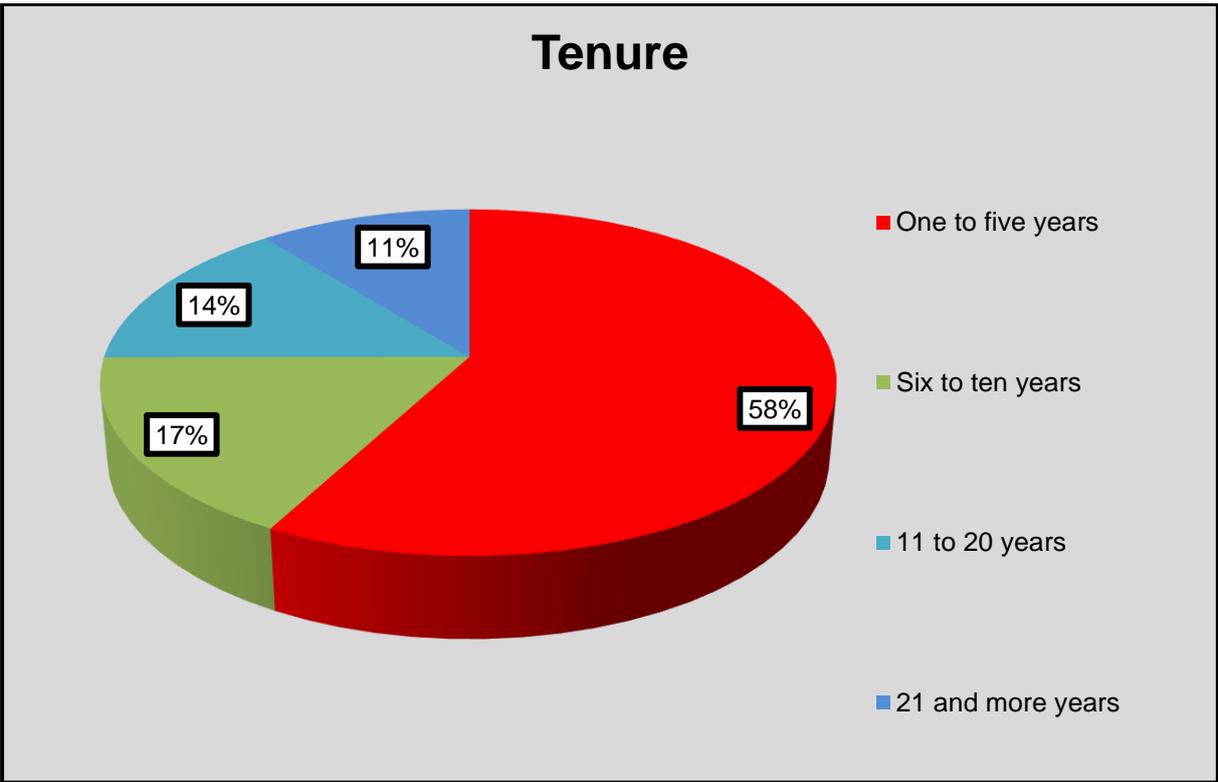


Figure 5.6: Sample distribution by tenure (n = 550)

**5.1.7 Summary of sociodemographic profile of sample**

As summarised in Table 5.7 below, the sociodemographic profile of the sample indicated that significant characteristics had to be considered in the interpretation of the empirical results, namely, race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure. The participants in the sample were predominantly white females, aged between 18 and 30 years with a mean age of 34. Overall, the management/executive c-level group was in the majority, as were employees with 1 to 10 years of tenure (74.9%). Overall, employees with graduate and postgraduate level qualifications comprised most of the sample.

Table 5.7

*The Main Characteristics of the Sample Profile*

<b>Sociodemographic variable</b>	<b>Predominant characteristic</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Race	White	82.5
Gender	Female/Male	53.6/46.3
Age	18–30 (mean age: 34)	55.5
Job Level	Owner/executive/c-level	72.6
Tenure	Less than 5 years/more than 5 years	53/42
Qualification	Graduate and postgraduate	85

Notes: N = 550

## 5.2 SELECTING AND JUSTIFYING THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY

The literature review had provided information on both the psychometric battery and the measuring instruments to be used based on their relevance to the theories and the paradigms which underpinned this research study. The literature review was perceived as exploratory research with the relevant models and theories of the career wellbeing psychosocial resources and indicators of career satisfaction, occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations being discussed in an integrated manner. The measuring instruments that were used in this study were chosen for their reliability, validity and appropriateness in evaluating the constructs which were deemed relevant to the study.

The following measuring instruments were selected. They are discussed in the sections below.

- A sociodemographic information questionnaire
- The Career Satisfaction Scale (CSS) (Greenhaus et al., 1990)
- The Passion Scale (PS) (Vallerand et al., 2003)
- The Psychological Career Resource Inventory (PCRI) (Coetzee, 2007)
- The Psychosocial Career Preoccupations Scale (PCPS) (Coetzee, 2014b)

### 5.2.1 The Career Satisfaction Scale (CSS)

The following subsections discuss the rationale and motivation for selecting the CSS, as well as its purpose, administration, interpretation, validity and reliability.

#### 5.2.1.1 Rationale and purpose

The CSS (Greenhaus et al., 1990) is a self-rating measure, comprising a single dimension, namely, how satisfied individuals are with their progress in meeting career-related goals (e.g. income, advancement, development, and overall career goals) and achieving global career-related successes.

### *5.2.1.2 Dimensions of the Career Satisfaction Scale*

The questionnaire comprises five questions which measure career satisfaction as a global construct. A detailed description of the single dimension is provided below:

The single dimension relates to an individual's career satisfaction, which is conceptualised as an individual's idiosyncratic evaluation of their own career, which is often seen as the primary indicator of subjective career success (Abele, Spurk, & Volmer, 2011; Ng et al., 2005). The questions included in the instrument (reflected as statements) are based on individuals' estimations of their progress in meeting career-related goals and achieving global career-related successes and include, for example, the following statements: "I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career" and "I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals".

### *5.2.1.3 Administration*

The CSS is a self-administered questionnaire. Participants are given clear instructions on how to complete it. It takes between five and ten minutes to complete the questionnaire.

### *5.2.1.4 Interpretation*

The single dimension is measured using a five-point Likert-type scale. Participants are asked to rate the extent to which they agree or disagree with a specific statement on the following scale:

1 = Strongly disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Neither disagree nor agree

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly agree

The scale from 1 to 5 reflects to the degree of satisfaction experienced by individuals in relation to their careers and, thus, the higher the score, the higher their satisfaction with their career.

### *5.2.1.5 Reliability and validity of the CSS*

Using the Cronbach's alpha coefficient on a cross-industry sample, Spurk et al (2015) found high reliability ( $\alpha = .90$ ) for the scale. The CSS displays high levels of construct validity and is related to constructs such as objective career success, career self-management and

networking behaviours. It has been used in cross-sectional, longitudinal and intervention studies (Abele & Spurk, 2009b; Raabe, Frese & Beehr, 2007; Wolff & Moser, 2009).

#### *5.2.1.6 Motivation for using the CSS*

The CSS was developed for the purpose of measuring individuals' career satisfaction and was thus deemed applicable to this study. The purpose of this research study was to examine various trends and relationships in respect of a number of variables but not to make individual predictions based on the CSS. It was subsequently assumed that the CSS had the potential to provide valuable information on the construct of career satisfaction in this research study.

### **5.2.2 The Passion Scale (PS)**

The following subsections discuss the rationale and motivation for selecting the Passion Scale (PS), as well as its purpose, administration, interpretation, validity and reliability.

#### *5.2.2.1 Rationale and purpose*

The PS (Vallerand et al., 2003) is a self-rating measure. This scale assesses the two types of passion, namely, obsessive and harmonious passion. There are six items for each of the two passion subscales. These items are assessed on a seven-point scale. In addition, there are five other items which are used to identify whether passion is prevalent in the individual (passion criteria).

#### *5.2.2.2 Dimensions of the PS*

The PS consists of 17 items grouped into three dimensions and measured by three subscales:

#### **Harmonious passion**

The harmonious passion subscale measures the participants' views on whether they experience harmonious passion toward a work-related activity that they enjoy and deem as important. Six items measure the subscale of harmonious passion and include the following statements: "The new things that I discover with this activity allow me to appreciate it even more" and "This activity reflects the qualities I like about myself".

#### **Obsessive passion**

The obsessive passion subscale measures the participants' views on whether they experience obsessive passion toward a work-related activity they enjoy and deem as important. Six items measure the subscale of obsessive passion and include the following statements: "I have difficulty imagining my life without this activity" and "I have a tough time controlling my need to do this activity".

## **Passion criteria**

The passion criteria subscale measures whether passion is prevalent in the participant. The passion criteria consist of five items and include, for example, the following statements: “I spend a lot of time doing this activity” and “This activity is part of who I am”.

### *5.2.2.3 Administration*

The PS is a self-administered instrument. The participants are given clear instructions on how to complete. It takes between five and ten minutes to complete. While the participants are completing the questionnaire, they are asked to think of a work-related activity that they like, that is important to them, and on which they spend a significant amount of time. The participants respond on a seven-point Likert-type scale to statements referring to the extent to which they experience either harmonious passion or obsessive passion and/or the passion prevalence for a favourite work-related activity.

### *5.2.2.4 Interpretation*

The three subscales (harmonious passion, obsessive passion and passion criteria) are measured separately and are intended to reveal the participants' type of passion and their passion prevalence – the higher the score accorded to a statement, the truer it is for the participant. Accordingly, the subscale with the highest mean scores indicates the participant's type of passion and/or the prevalence or absence of passion. The ratings for the three subscales are defined as follow:

1 = Not agree at all

2 = Very slightly agree

3 = Slightly agree

4 = Moderately agree

5 = Mostly agree

6 = Strongly agree

7= Very strongly agree

Items 1, 3, 5, 6, 8 and 10 measure harmonious passion, items 2, 4, 7, 9, 11 and 12 measure obsessive passion and items 13, 14,15,16 and 17 measure passion criteria (prevalence). None of the items is reverse-scored.

#### *5.2.2.5 Reliability and validity of the PS*

Vallerand et al. (2003) reported on the internal consistency reliability of the PS using Cronbach's alpha coefficients for each of the subscales. They found  $\alpha = .79$  for harmonious passion and  $\alpha = .89$  for obsessive passion.

#### *5.2.2.6 Motivation for using the PS*

The PS was designed to measure individuals' passion for work, that is, occupational passion, and was, therefore, relevant to this study. The purpose of this research study was to examine various trends and relationships in respect of a number of variables but not to make individual predictions based on the PS. Subsequently, the PS had the potential to provide valuable information on the construct of occupational passion for the purposes of this research study.

### **5.2.3 Psychological Career Resources Inventory (PCRI)**

The next section discusses the rationale and motivation for selecting the PCRI, as well as its purpose, administration, interpretation, validity and reliability.

#### *5.2.3.1 Rationale and purpose*

The PCRI (Coetzee, 2007b, 2008, 2014a) is a self-rated, multifactorial assessment measure. The scale is used to determine an individual's self-perceived strengths in terms of the five domains of psychological career resources.

#### *5.2.3.2 Dimensions of the PCRI*

The PCRI consists of five dimensions and 64 items. A detailed description of the five dimensions is presented below:

#### **Career preferences**

The career preferences dimension measures the preferences (stability/expertise, managerial, variety/creativity and independence/autonomy) that determine an individual's career choices and changes. Seventeen items measure the subscale of career preferences and include the following: "I would prefer a career in which I could develop my skills and knowledge in depth" and "I would prefer a career that requires me to have special knowledge and skills to perform well".

#### **Career values**

The career values dimension measures individuals' motives for a specific career preference (growth/development and authority/influence). Eight items measure the subscale of career

values and include the following statements: “I like to engage in further growth and learning opportunities” and “I like to be knowledgeable and skilled in what I do”.

### **Career enablers**

The career enablers dimension measures the skills which individuals use in their career planning, management and decision-making processes. These skills include practical/creative skills and self/other skills. Eight items measure the subscale of career enablers and include the following statements: “I am good at researching the information and ideas I need to obtain my goals” and “I can discipline myself to keep my composure and get the most out of myself”.

### **Career drivers**

The career drivers dimension measures individuals’ career drivers (career purpose, career directedness and career venturing), including their understanding of their future career goals and outcomes as well as their understanding of where and how to find support to achieve these goals and find new opportunities. The subscale of career drivers is measured by eight items and includes the following: “I am deeply aware of my and others' spiritual side, that we all have a life purpose and that all life forms are sacred” and “I trust in the purpose of my life, that there is a reason for my being here in this world”.

### **Career harmonisers**

The career harmonisers dimension measures individuals’ career harmonisers (self-esteem, behavioural adaptability, emotional literacy and social connectivity). These are the meta-competencies that assist individuals to display proactive and adaptable career behaviour. The subscale of career drivers is measured using 20 items that include the following statements: “I admit when I am afraid of something” and “I show others that I care about them”.

#### *5.2.3.3 Administration*

The PCRI is a self-administered questionnaire. The participants are given clear instructions on how to complete the questionnaire. It takes approximately 15 minutes to complete it. The participants rate the statements on a six-point Likert-type scale based on their self-perceived psychological career resources.

#### *5.2.3.4 Interpretation*

Each of the PCRI subscales (i.e. career preferences, career values, career enablers, career drivers and career harmonisers) is measured separately and indicates the participants’ psychological career resources in respect of the respective dimensions. The researcher is thus able to determine which dimensions are perceived to be true for the participant and which not

with higher scores indicating that the statements are more applicable to the participant. Subscales with the highest mean scores are considered to be the participant's dominant psychological career resource. The responses are measured in terms of the following six-point Likert-type scale:

1 = Never

2 = Rarely

3 = Sometimes

4 = Often

5 = Almost always

6 = Always

#### *5.2.3.5 Reliability and validity of the PCRI*

An exploratory factor analysis conducted by Coetzee (2008) found that the PCRI items satisfied not only the psychometric criteria for both convergent and discriminant validity, but also that the content was suited to the theoretical constructs that were measured. The study by Coetzee (2008) indicated that the Cronbach's alpha for each subscale ranged between  $\alpha = .71$  and  $\alpha = .88$ . A study by Ferreira (2012) found that the Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficients for each subscale ranged from  $\alpha = .68$  to  $\alpha = .84$ , while Coetzee (2014a) obtained Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficients for each subscale ranging from  $\alpha = .68$  to  $\alpha = .90$ .

#### *5.2.3.6 Motivation for using the PCRI*

The PCRI was developed for the purpose of measuring psychological career resources in the South African employment context and thus was relevant to this research study. The PCRI has established validity and reliability within the South African context (Coetzee, 2008, 2014a; Ferreira, 2012). As the purpose of the research study was not to make individual predictions based on the PCRI, but rather to examine broad trends and certain relationships between variables, the measuring instrument was deemed to be satisfactory for the purpose of this study.

### **5.2.4 The Psychosocial Career Preoccupations Scale (PCPS)**

The next section discusses the rationale and motivation for selecting the PCPS, as well as its purpose, administration, interpretation, validity and reliability.

#### *5.2.4.1 Rationale and purpose*

The PCPS (Coetzee, 2014b) is a self-rating, multi-factored measurement instrument that includes the factors of career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations, and work–life adjustment preoccupations. It was designed to measure participants' career concerns and career preoccupations.

#### *5.2.4.2 Dimensions of the PCPS*

The PCPS consists of 24 items which are clustered in three subscales:

##### **Career establishment preoccupations**

The career establishment preoccupations subscale measures individuals' concerns about fitting into the organisational and group context, about security and stability and about developing in their careers (Coetzee, 2014b). The subscale comprises 13 items including, for example, the following questions: "To what extent are you concerned about fitting in with others in your job or study group?" and "To what extent are you concerned about exploring career possibilities?"

##### **Career adaptation preoccupations**

The career adaptation preoccupations subscale measures the employability-related concerns of individuals, such as adapting to changing work environments. These may include the adaptations and adjustments that have to be made in terms of talents, interests and abilities to ensure that employment opportunities are realised (Coetzee, 2014b). The subscale comprises five items, which include: "To what extent are you concerned about making a career change?" and "To what extent are you concerned about changing your current career field?"

##### **Work–life adjustment preoccupations**

The work–life adjustment preoccupations subscale measures individuals' concerns about achieving greater harmony between work and personal life, reducing the amount of work they do and settling down and which may also include withdrawing from paid employment completely. The subscale comprises six items, including, for example: "To what extent are you concerned about balancing work with family responsibilities?" and "To what extent are you concerned about withdrawing from paid employment altogether?"

#### 5.2.4.3 Administration

The PCPS is self-administered and participants are provided with detailed instructions on how to complete the questionnaire. It takes between 10 and 15 minutes to complete it. The participants are asked to respond to statements on a 5-point Likert-type scale by specifying the degree to which they feel concerned about certain career needs/preoccupations.

#### 5.2.4.4 Interpretation

The three subscales (career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations) are measured separately and indicate the participants' preoccupations related to career stages. The researcher is then able to evaluate whether the participants perceive the dimensions as true or not, with a higher score indicating that the statement is truer for the specific participant. The subscale with the highest mean scores indicates the participant's dominant career stage preoccupation. The ratings are indicated as follow:

1 = Not concerned

2 = Somewhat concerned

3 = Much concerned

4 = Highly concerned

5 = Extremely concerned

#### 5.2.4.5 Reliability and validity of the PCPS

Coetzee's (2014b) exploratory factor analysis (EFA) found high internal consistency reliability for the PCPS. Furthermore, the same study indicated high Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranging between .72 and .95. Bivariate correlations ranged between  $r \geq .53 \leq .66$  ( $p = .00$ ), thus confirming the construct validity of the PCPS.

#### 5.2.4.6 Motivation for using PCPS

The PCPS was developed to measure the career preoccupations and career concerns of individuals in an employment context and was, thus relevant, to this research study. As the purpose of the research study was not to make individual predictions based on the PCPS, but rather to examine broad trends and certain relationships between variables, the measuring instrument was deemed to be satisfactory for the purpose of this study.

### **5.2.5 Limitations of the psychometric battery**

All of the instruments utilised in this study were self-report instruments. Self-report involves a respondent's examination of their own behaviour through techniques such as surveys, questionnaires and interviews (Demetriou, Ozer, & Essau, 2015). One of the disadvantages of self-report questionnaires is that they elicit responses that may be subjective and it is easy for respondents to exaggerate (Demetriou et al., 2015). According to Coaley (2014), measuring instruments that make use of self-reporting assume that respondents have the capability to provide honest and accurate answers regarding their personal behaviour. However, Coaley (2014) cautions that reactivity, a phenomenon where respondents may react differently when they know that their answers are being monitored, has the potential to influence the reliability of the results. Social desirability is another phenomenon that should be considered when using self-report questionnaire. Social desirability refers to the tendency of respondents to respond in a way that makes them appear better or more desirable (Coaley, 2014; Demetriou et al., 2015).

In conclusion, after an extensive examination of several research instruments related to the measurement of the career wellbeing indicators/psychosocial resources, four instruments, namely, the CSS, PS, PCRI and PCPS, were selected. The limitations of the four research instruments were considered during the interpretation of the findings derived from the research results.

### **5.3 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS IN ADMINISTRATION OF THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY**

This step describes the collection of the requisite data from the sample:

The University Research Ethics Committee of UNISA provided the researcher with ethical clearance for the study. The ethics clearance certificate is attached as **appendix B**. The moral rules and principles of the UNISA Research Ethics Policy (UNISA, 2013) were strictly followed in respect of the following guidelines:

- Autonomy (the participants' rights, autonomy and dignity must be respected and protected by the research).
- Beneficence (the welfare of all members of society should be enhanced, protected and respected by the research).
- Non-maleficence (the research should cause no harm to any of the participants or to anyone else).
- Justice (the research should fairly distribute the risks and benefits among people).

- Participants' right to confidentiality must be respected at all times and clearly explained to them.
- Participants' anonymity must be protected at all times and clearly explained to them.
- Participants' informed consent must be sought before any of the data provided by them is used.

The research participants were contacted via the professional network website known as LinkedIn with the LinkedIn message functionality (similar to email) being used to send out a hyperlink containing the survey to the researcher's professional network on LinkedIn. The participants were advised that their participation in the research was completely voluntary. LinkedIn was used as it gave the researcher access to a large population of individuals from diverse industries and backgrounds. In 2017 LinkedIn had more than 400 million members in over 200 countries and territories. LinkedIn allows users (workers and employers) to create profiles and "connect" to each other in an online social network which may represent real-world professional relationships. It also provides the means whereby users may exchange information.

Users of LinkedIn decide to share information about themselves within the protected framework that the site provides. Users are not permitted to use LinkedIn unless they accept the terms of use as well as the terms of confidentiality. Users do not need to obtain permission from LinkedIn to share information and may do so freely with each other. Users may remove themselves from LinkedIn at any time and may also complain to the website administrators and the United States of America legislative authorities if they feel that their privacy is being compromised. In addition, the South African Protection of Personal Information Act, 2013, which states that personal information will not be used for research purposes without the participants' consent, protects South African LinkedIn users. Users may invite anyone (whether a site user or not) to become a connection. However, if the invitee selects "I don't know" or "Spam", this counts against the inviter as it would mean that the two parties would not be able to become "connections". The invitee must provide their informed consent to become connected to the inviter. Only users who have given their consent to connect with the researcher were contacted on LinkedIn.

A secure message was sent to the participants via LinkedIn (similar to email). The message contained the following: An explanation of the purpose of the study, the participant's rights, the fact that the study would not harm the participant in any way, the participant's right to confidentiality, the procedure for completing the questionnaire and the fact that the participant was not in any way forced to take part in the study. In addition, a hyperlink was provided for the participants to "click" on which would take them to the questionnaire. The questionnaire

was administered via Lime Survey, which is a web application that is installed on the user's server – in this case the research institution (UNISA). After installation, researchers can manage Lime Survey from a secure web interface and utilise rich text in questions and messages, using a rich text editor, while images and videos may also be integrated into the survey.

Once the participant had been taken to the Lime Survey questionnaire they were provided with a cover page which repeated the information that had been included in the initial message. For a participant to be able to continue to the questionnaire, they had to “click” on agreement to all three of the following: “the information gathered from the completed questionnaires will be used for research purposes”; “the partners in this survey may use the findings for the purpose of developing the profession/ informing the decisions towards the development of the profession”; and “the information concerning myself will be treated with confidentiality and will not be made available to any person”. The data gathered via Lime Survey was stored on the UNISA server to ensure that no third party could gain access to it. In view of the fact that the participants' personal information did not belong to LinkedIn and the candidates were permitted to freely decide to share their information as well as decide on the type of information that would be shared, LinkedIn's permission was not required to send out the messages.

The research participants' anonymity was assured during both the data collection and the data analysis processes because the participants were not required to provide any information that would render them identifiable. A coding system was used to record the participants' responses and capture the data outputs, in the publications based on this research study and in any possible future conference papers.

The Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 (Republic of South Africa, 1998) requires that psychological tests and related assessment techniques are administered and interpreted in a fair and objective manner and that only those tests and techniques that are valid, reliable and free from prejudice against any individual or any particular group of working adults be used. In order to ensure that the research complied with the legislation only research instruments that had been proven to be scientifically valid, reliable and free from prejudice were included in the psychometric test battery. The research instruments were administered with great caution while duly considering the rights of the participants. In addition, during the data collection process the researcher made every effort to ensure that the data was reliable and that it was analysed, reported and interpreted in a fair, valid and reliable manner.

## 5.4 CAPTURING OF CRITERION DATA

A Microsoft Excel spreadsheet was used to capture the participants' responses to each item on the four questionnaires. On the spreadsheet, each row represented a participant and each column represented a question. An independent statistician was contracted to score the data from the completed questionnaires on the spreadsheet. SAS version 9.4 (SAS, 2013) and Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 23 (SPSS Inc., 2015) were the statistical programs that were used to import and analyse the data.

## 5.5 FORMULATION OF THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

In order to achieve the research objectives of this research study, research hypotheses were formulated. A research hypothesis may be described as a proposed explanation for a phenomenon (Goodwin & Goodwin, 2016). In addition, a research hypothesis is seen as a logical construct that is inserted between a research problem and a research solution and provides a suggested answer to the research question (Goodwin & Goodwin, 2016). A research hypothesis is thus a rational yet cautious proposal in respect of a relationship between different variables (Goodwin & Goodwin, 2016).

The research hypotheses were formulated and are listed below in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8

*Research Hypotheses*

Research aim	Research hypothesis	Statistical procedures
<p><b>Research aim 1:</b> To explore the direction and magnitude of the statistical inter-correlations between the sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure), the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction).</p>	<p><b>H1:</b> There are statistically significant inter-relationships between the sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure), the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction).</p>	Correlation analysis
<p><b>Research aim 2:</b> To determine whether individuals' psychological career resources (career drivers, career harmonisers, career preferences and career values) and psychosocial career preoccupations (career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations) significantly mediate the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction.</p>	<p><b>H2:</b> Individuals' psychological career resources (career drivers, career harmonisers, career preferences and career values) and psychosocial career preoccupations (career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations) significantly mediate the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction.</p>	Multilevel mediation modelling



Table 5.8 con't

Research aim	Research hypothesis	Statistical procedures
<b>Research aim 3:</b> Based on the overall statistical relationships between the dependent and independent variables, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations as mediating variables to explore whether there is a good fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model.	<b>H3:</b> Based on the overall statistical relationships between the independent variable (occupational passion) and dependent variable (career satisfaction), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) there is a good fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model.	Structural equation modelling
<b>Research aim 4:</b> To determine whether individuals' sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) significantly moderate the relationship between the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction).	<b>H4:</b> Individuals' sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) significantly moderate the relationship between the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction).	Stepwise multiple regression Hierarchical moderated regression
<b>Research aim 5:</b> To determine whether individuals from diverse sociodemographic groups differ significantly regarding their levels of occupational passion, type of passion, career satisfaction and application of psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations.	<b>H5:</b> The sociodemographic groups (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) will differ significantly regarding their occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction.	Tests for significant mean differences

## 5.6 STATISTICAL PROCESSING OF THE DATA

The statistical procedures that were utilised in this research study entailed a preliminary statistical analysis (consisting of common method variance, measurement model validity and internal consistency reliabilities); a descriptive statistical analysis (consisting of means, standard deviations, kurtosis, and skewness and frequency data); a correlation analysis (consisting of Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients and Spearman correlations); and inferential and multivariate statistics (consisting of multilevel mediation modelling, structural equation modelling, stepwise multiple regression, hierarchical moderated regression analysis and test for significant mean differences).

The process involved in the analysis of the data entailed four stages and is depicted in Figure 5.7 below.

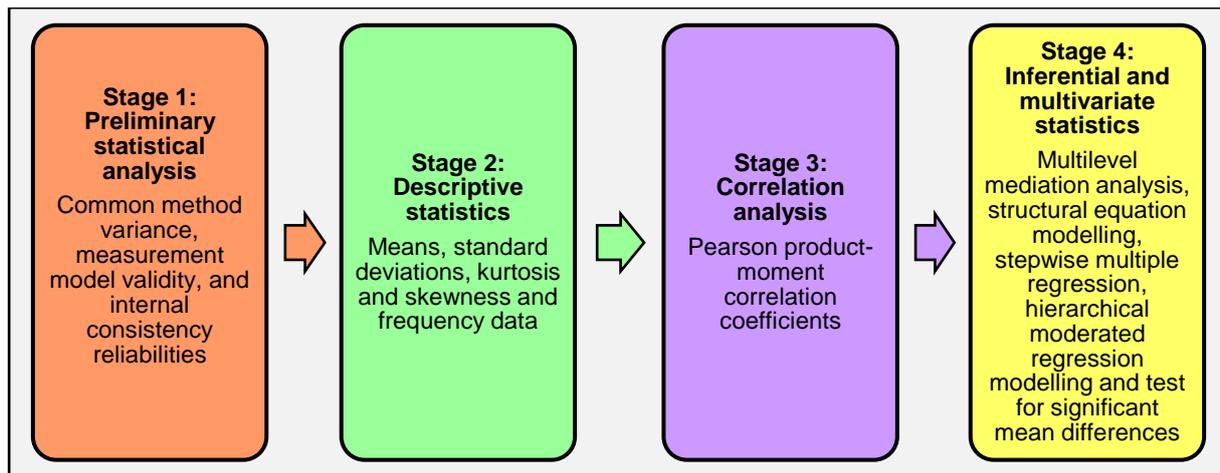


Figure 5.7: Overview of the data analysis process and statistical procedures

### 5.6.1 Stage 1: Preliminary statistical analysis

A preliminary statistical analysis was performed in order to determine the common method variance, measurement model validity and internal consistency reliabilities of the data.

#### 5.6.1.1 Step 1: Common method variance (bias)

Due to both the cross-sectional nature of the research study and the self-report nature of the measures used in the study, it was important to test for common method variance (bias). The concept of common method variance refers to a discrepancy in the observed measures which may be due to the type of measures being used in the research (Jex & Britt, 2014). Theorists maintain that the common method variance is seen as a perplexing variable, which may have a systematic effect on both the independent and the dependent variables (Highhouse, Doverspike & Guion, 2015; Jakobsen & Jensen, 2015). The manifestation of common method variance, which measures both the independent and dependent variables, may be ascribed to the use of the same survey participants (common source) to provide feedback on the questionnaires (Highhouse et al., 2015; Jex & Britt, 2014).

In this current research, Harman's one-factor test and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (one factor solution) were conducted to assess for common method variance (Brown, 2014). Harman's single-factor test uses exploratory factor analysis, which loads all the questionnaire items that are presumed to be influenced by common method bias. The use of exploratory factor analysis enabled the researcher to establish whether a single factor was present or whether a general factor added to most of the covariance between the measurements (Fuller, Simmering, Atinc, Atinc, & Babin, 2015; Jakobsen & Jensen, 2015). A one factor confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was also used to determine whether common method bias had occurred (Favero & Bullock, 2014). The following threshold values were considered for the goodness of fit statistics: the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and standardised root

mean square residual (SRMR) are  $\leq .10$  (model acceptance) and  $\leq .08$  (good fit), and the comparative fit index (CFI) and Bentler-Bonett non-normed index (NNI) are  $\geq .90$  or higher (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Kock, 2015; Pallant, 2013). If poor fit statistics were obtained for the one factor CFA, it was assumed that no common method variance was present in the respective measure (Fuller et al., 2015). In this research, the items of the respective research constructs were loaded into the factor analysis to establish whether a general factor was the reason for the main variance in the data (Fuller et al., 2015).

#### *5.6.1.2 Step 2: Internal consistency reliability and construct validity of the measurement model*

The extent to which the items of a scale are homogeneous in terms of measuring the same construct indicates the internal consistency of the scale (Dunn et al., 2013; Kline, 2013). Internal consistency thus refers to the correlation between certain scale items (Dunn et al., 2013). If the correlations between certain scale items are positive and high then there is high internal consistency (Dunn et al., 2013). Thus, when participants respond to certain items in a certain manner, it is expected that they would respond to other related items in a similar manner (Dunn et al., 2013). Internal consistency reliability is measured by the Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Cho & Kim, 2015).

In this study, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were used to establish the internal consistency reliability of the four research instruments, as well as the average degree of correlation between the respective test items. According to Cho and Kim (2015), the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is a score between 0 and 1; where a higher score signifies a more reliable item or scale. A Cronbach alpha's coefficient of .70 is a satisfactory benchmark to indicate the reliability of a scale (Brown, 2014).

It is also important to calculate composite reliabilities, as the Cronbach's alpha tends to understate reliability (Peterson & Kim, 2013). In this study composite reliabilities were therefore also calculated, with a composite reliability  $\geq .70$  being considered satisfactory (Teo, 2011). The composite reliability (CR) (threshold value:  $>.70$ ) and average variances extracted (AVE) (threshold value  $>.50$ ) were computed to assess the construct reliability of the scales.

Construct validity refers to the extent to which a test measures what it is supposed to be measuring (Rubin & Babbie, 2014). Convergent and discriminant validity are perceived as the two sub-types of validity that make up the concept of construct validity (Rubin & Babbie, 2014). Convergent validity indicates to the extent to which two measures of constructs that should be theoretically related are in fact related while discriminant validity measures whether constructs or measurements that are theoretically supposed to be unrelated are in fact unrelated (Rubin & Babbie, 2014).

In this study, the CR and AVE were also calculated to establish the convergent validity of the four research scales. The AVE is used to establish the overall amount of variance that may be attributed to the construct relative to the amount of variance attributed to measurement error (Henseler, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2015; Teo, 2011). According to Teo (2011), the CR should be larger than the AVE for convergent validity, the AVE  $\geq$  .50 for satisfactory convergent validity and the AVE  $\geq$ .70 for good convergent validity.

The discriminant validity of each of the four scales was assessed by means of comparing the AVE, the maximum shared variance (MSV) and the average shared variance (ASV). The MSV refers to the maximum amount of variance that is shared between two variables while ASV refers to the average amount of variance that is shared between two variables (Henseler et al., 2015). The MSV should be smaller than the AVE, and the ASV should also be smaller than the AVE for satisfactory discriminant validity (Henseler et al., 2015).

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to assess the construct validity of the overall measurement model. The construct validity is determined by goodness-of-fit indices where the the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and standardised root mean square residual (SRMR) are  $\leq$  .10 (model acceptance) and  $\leq$  .08 (good fit), and the comparative fit index (CFI) and Bentler-Bonett non-normed index (NNI) are  $\geq$  .90 or higher (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Kock, 2015; Pallant, 2013).

### **5.6.2 Stage 2: Preliminary descriptive statistical analysis**

A descriptive statistical analysis involves the application of statistical techniques to provide summaries of the random variables obtained from a research sample (Mertler & Reinhart, 2016). The purpose of a descriptive statistical analysis is to summarise and present data in a meaningful way (Mertler & Reinhart, 2016). In this research study, descriptive statistics were used to provide information on the features of the data that were associated with the research constructs, namely, occupational passion, career satisfaction, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations. SAS version 9.4 (2013) was used to provide the descriptive statistics required.

This stage consisted of the following two steps:

- (1) Determining the means, standard deviations, kurtosis and skewness of the categorical and frequency data.
- (2) Testing for assumptions (through multilevel mediation modelling, structural equation modelling, stepwise multiple regression, hierarchical moderated regression analysis and tests for significant mean differences).

#### *5.6.2.1 Step 1: Means and standard deviations, kurtosis and skewness, and frequency data*

SAS version 9.4 (2013) was used to calculate the means and standard deviations for all the intrinsic motivators and psychosocial career resources of career wellbeing (occupational passion, psychosocial career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations, and career satisfaction, which serves as an indicator of career wellbeing). The mean is calculated by adding the sum of the responses and then dividing this amount by the total number of responses (Field, 2013). The standard deviation is calculated in order to ascertain the variability in the sample responses (Field, 2013). This is done by quantifying the amount of variation or dispersion of a set of data values from the mean value (Field, 2013). A small standard deviation indicates that the data points are clustered closely together around the mean (Field, 2013), while a large standard deviation indicates that the data set is spread out away from the mean (Field, 2013). A standard deviation of zero indicates that the data points are the same in value (Field, 2013).

Skewness is used to determine whether the data is skewed positively, negatively or normally while kurtosis indicates how flat (platykurtic) or pointed (leptokurtic) a data set is (Bonett & Wright, 2000; Pallant, 2013). A positive/right/non-parametric skew in the data indicates that the mean is to the right (greater than) of the median (Bonett & Wright, 2000; Pallant, 2013), while a negative/left non-parametric skew indicates that the mean is to the left (less than) of the median (Joanes & Gill, 1998; Pallant, 2013). Thus, kurtosis describes the shape of a probability distribution (Bonett & Wright, 2000). Distributions with kurtosis of less than 3 are said to be platykurtic (Joanes & Gill, 1998; Pallant, 2013), while distributions with kurtosis greater than 3 are said to be leptokurtic (Bonett & Wright, 2000; Pallant, 2013). With an exact symmetrical distribution (normal) the skewness and kurtosis are both equivalent to zero (Pallant, 2013).

#### *5.6.2.2 Step 2: Test for assumptions*

The main purpose of research was to make valid interpretations from a sample of data attained from a population. However, challenges may arise when random samples from a larger population are used to provide specific values that apply to the entire population. Accordingly, in this research study, statistical methods were used to establish the level of confidence at which certain inferences could be made about the research findings.

The following points were considered during the multivariate procedures and tests for significant mean differences:

- (a) the accuracy of the data entered into the data file and missing values
- (b) the ratio of cases to independent variables

- (c) outliers (univariate and multivariate)
- (d) normality, linearity and homoscedasticity, and
- (e) multicollinearity and singularity.

Each of these points will now be discussed.

#### **a) The accuracy of data entered into the data file and missing values**

The dataset was screened in order to avoid miscoding and to guarantee the precision of the data. By using SAS version 9.4 (2013), the frequency statistics for the respective scale items were retrieved. During this process, the minimum and maximum values and the means and standard deviations were also examined to ensure data accuracy. It was found that all of the items fell within the probable range of values, thus indicating that the data could be deemed to be satisfactory for the purposes of supplementary analysis. No missing values were detected as only completed questionnaires were accepted for the data analysis.

#### **b) Ratio of cases to independent variables**

To ensure that a research study has sufficient statistical power it is essential to determine the sample size as this influences the extent to which it may be said that the sample represents the population (Emmel, 2013). De Vaus (2006) advises that, when establishing whether the size of a sample is adequate for testing a multiple correlation coefficient, the general rule of thumb is  $N \geq 50 + 8m$  (where  $m$  refers to the number of independent variables in the study). According to the above-mentioned formula, the required sample size in this study was  $N = 58$  and, therefore, the sample size of  $N = 550$  used in the study was considered satisfactory in terms of acceptable statistical power. A sample size which was satisfactory was important for the determination of effects through correlation and regression analysis.

#### **c) Outliers**

According to Zimek, Schubert, and Kriegel (2012), an outlier is an individual data point which differs meaningfully from other individual data points in the same data set. The purpose of using an outlier test is to establish whether an outlier value has occurred accidentally or whether the outlier is so extreme that there is a particular reason for it, such as a defective measurement instrument (Montgomery, Peck & Vining, 2015).

Graphing methods for residuals are important in the determination of likely outliers in one variable (Chatterjee & Hadi, 2015). Outliers in this research study were determined by examining the graphic boxplots of the standardised normal scores for each variable.

#### **d) Normality, linearity and homoscedasticity**

The multivariate normality assumption is based on the notion that each individual variable must have a normal distribution so that multivariate normal distribution may be followed (Mertler & Reinhart, 2016). In this research study skewness and kurtosis were applied, in conjunction with the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, to test for multivariate normality, as this has been found to be the most suitable test for examining multivariate normality (Corder & Foreman, 2014; Pallant, 2013).

The assumption of linearity suggests that a linear relationship exists between all dependent variable pairs and all covariate pairs over all the groups (Harrell, 2015). In this study, scatterplots of dependent variable pairs for each group were examined to establish linearity (Harrell, 2015). A linear relationship is indicated by a scatterplot with an elliptical shape (Harrell, 2015).

The homoscedasticity assumption suggests that the degree of variability between quantitative dependent variables should be equivalent over a sequence of independent variables (Yang & Mathew, 2017). A graphical method such as scatterplots is extremely useful in determining homoscedasticity violations (Yang & Mathew, 2017). Accordingly, bivariate scatterplots were generated for all potential variable pairs and used to test for both linearity and homoscedasticity in this research study. These bivariate scatterplots showed no irregularities.

#### **e) Multicollinearity and singularity**

Multicollinearity occurs when two or more variables are strongly correlated with one another ( $r \geq .80$ ) (Cohen et al., 2013). Multicollinearity indicates a condition of extreme redundancy among the respective variables (Cohen et al., 2013) while, conversely, singularity transpires when a perfect correlation among the variables exists ( $r = 1.00$ ) (Cohen et al., 2013).

In this research study multicollinearity and singularity assumptions were tested by applying the variance inflation factor (VIF), tolerance, eigenvalues and condition indices. These tests showed no irregularities.

### 5.6.3 Stage 3: Correlation analysis

The various statistical methods that are used to measure and describe the relationship that exists between variables are known as correlation analysis (Cohen et al., 2013). Cohen et al. (2013) state that if a relationship exists between variables, then a change in one variable will result in a continuous and predictable change in another variable. In this study, the correlation analysis was conducted using SAS version 9.4 (2013), with correlation analysis methods being applied to test the strength and direction of the relationship between the intrinsic motivators and psychosocial career resource variables of career wellbeing (i.e. occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction).

Correlation analysis was used to test research hypothesis 1:

H1: There are statistically significant inter-relationships between the sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure), the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction).

Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) was applied to establish the strength and direction of the relationship between the respective variables. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient ( $\rho$ ) was applied to determine the links between the sociodemographic variables and the construct variables. According to Prion and Haerling (2014), Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient is a bivariate correlation coefficient which is used to describe the linear relationship between two interval/ratio scale variables while Spearman's rho is a nonparametric measure of rank correlation (statistical dependence between the ranking of two variables). Spearman's rank correlation coefficient assesses the extent to which the relationship between two variables can be explained using a monotonic function (Prion & Haerling, 2014). The features of the  $r$  are as follows (Prion & Haerling, 2014):

- The  $r$  values have a range from -1 (relationship between variables with a perfect inverse), to 0 (no relationship between variables) to +1 (perfect direct relationship between variables).
- In order to depict linear relationships scatterplots are used with values grouped around a straight line.
- A higher linear correlation is represented by a closer grouping around the straight line, whilst weak relationships are represented by broadly spread values away from the straight line.

The cut-off point,  $r \geq .30$  (moderate effect) at probability level ( $p \leq .05$ ), was used for the purpose of this study in order to establish the practical significance of the correlation coefficients (Prion & Haerling, 2014).

#### **5.6.4 Stage 4: Inferential and multivariate statistical analysis**

SAS version 9.4 (SAS, 2013) and Hayes PROCESS procedure for SPSS version 2.15 (Hayes, 2013) software were used to calculate the inferential and multivariate statistics within the study. This stage involved the following five steps:

- (1) Multilevel mediation modelling was used to determine whether individuals' psychological career resources (career drivers, career harmonisers, career preferences and career values) and psychosocial career preoccupations (career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations) significantly mediate the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction. Hayes PROCESS procedure for SPSS version 2.15 (Hayes, 2013) software was used to conduct the multilevel mediation modelling.
- (2) In order to examine the fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model, structural equation modelling (SEM) was performed. SAS version 9.4 (SAS, 2013) software was used to conduct the SEM.
- (3) Due to the large number of sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure), stepwise multiple regression analysis was used as a preliminary step to determine the sociodemographic variables which were the most significant predictors of career satisfaction. SAS version 9.4 (SAS, 2013) software was used to conduct the stepwise multiple regression analysis.
- (4) Hierarchical moderated regression analysis was performed to examine whether the most significant sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level, tenure) (as identified by the stepwise multiple regression analysis) moderated the relationship between the dependent variable (occupational passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction). Hayes PROCESS procedure for SPSS version 2.15 (Hayes, 2013) software was used to conduct the hierarchical regression modelling.
- (5) Tests for significant mean differences were performed to determine whether significant differences existed between the groups of sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level, tenure) for each of the research variables. ANOVA's, Pooled

and Satterthwaite post-hoc tests were used in SAS version 9.4 (SAS, 2013) software to establish the source of the significant mean differences between the variables.

### **Step 1: Multilevel mediation modelling**

Multilevel mediation modelling was performed to test research hypothesis 2:

H2: Individuals' psychological career resources (career drivers, career harmonisers, career preferences and career values) and psychosocial career preoccupations (career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations) significantly mediate the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction.

According to Tofighi and Thoemmes (2014), mediation analysis is a statistical method used to determine the relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable as transmitted through an intervening variable, generally referred to as a mediator. The mediated (indirect) effect is the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable through the mediator (Tofighi & Thoemmes, 2014). A direct effect refers to an unmediated effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable (Tofighi & Thoemmes, 2014).

The extension of the classic mediation model to clustered data is known as multilevel mediation modelling (Tofighi, West, & MacKinnon, 2013; Zhang, Zyphur, & Preacher, 2009). When data is clustered together this may include respondents' data that is nested in clusters or recurring measures received from the same respondent over a period of time (Zhang et al., 2009). Data that is collected at the lower level (e.g. at the individual level) is labelled Level 1 data, while data collected at a higher level (e.g. at the cluster level) is labelled Level 2 data (Tofighi et al., 2013). Multilevel data may thus include more than two levels. Multilevel mediation methods model mediation at different levels of the analysis while considering bias in standard errors resulting from a lack of independence among observations which is common in such data (Kenny, Korchmaros, & Bolger, 2003).

The multilevel mediation modelling entailed using SPSS (V.2.15) PROCESS procedure, developed by Hayes (2013), to perform the multilevel mediation modelling on four models. The more stringent bias-corrected (BC) bootstrapping approach (Preacher & Hayes, 2008) was used to test the mediation effect of each the psychological career resources (career drivers, career harmonisers, career preferences and career values) and psychosocial career preoccupations (career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations) on the relationship between occupational passion (independent variable) and career satisfaction (dependent variable). The direct and indirect

(mediation) effects were calculated by using the more reliable bootstrapping bias-corrected 95% lower level (LLCI) and upper level (ULCI) (Tofighi & Thoemmes, 2014). SPSS (V.2.15) PROCESS procedure, developed by Hayes (2013), was used to test the following four models:

Model 1: Tested (1) the pathway from harmonious passion to career satisfaction, (2) the indirect (mediating) effect of career preferences on the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction, (3) the indirect (mediating) effect of career values on the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction, (4) the indirect (mediating) effect of career enablers on the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction, (5) the indirect (mediating) effect of career drivers on the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction, (6) the indirect (mediating) effect of career harmonisers on the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction, (7) the indirect (mediating) effect of career establishment preoccupations on the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction, (8) the indirect (mediating) effect of career adaptation preoccupations on the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction and (9) the indirect (mediating) effect of work–life adjustment preoccupations on the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction.

Model 2: Tested (1) the pathway from obsessive passion to career satisfaction, (2) the indirect (mediating) effect of career preferences on the relationship between obsessive passion and career satisfaction, (3) the indirect (mediating) effect of career values on the relationship between obsessive passion and career satisfaction, (4) the indirect (mediating) effect of career enablers on the relationship between obsessive passion and career satisfaction, (5) the indirect (mediating) effect of career drivers on the relationship between obsessive passion and career satisfaction, (6) the indirect (mediating) effect of career harmonisers on the relationship between obsessive passion and career satisfaction, (7) the indirect (mediating) effect of career establishment preoccupations on the relationship between obsessive passion and career satisfaction, (8) the indirect (mediating) effect of career adaptation preoccupations on the relationship between obsessive passion and career satisfaction and (9) the indirect (mediating) effect of work–life adjustment preoccupations on the relationship between obsessive passion and career satisfaction.

Model 3: Tested (1) the pathway from passion prevalence to career satisfaction, (2) the indirect (mediating) effect of career preferences on the relationship between passion prevalence and career satisfaction, (3) the indirect (mediating) effect of career values on the relationship between passion prevalence and career satisfaction, (4) the indirect (mediating) effect of career enablers on the relationship between passion prevalence and career satisfaction, (5) the indirect (mediating) effect of career drivers on the relationship between passion prevalence

and career satisfaction, (6) the indirect (mediating) effect of career harmonisers on the relationship between passion prevalence and career satisfaction, (7) the indirect (mediating) effect of career establishment preoccupations on the relationship between passion prevalence and career satisfaction, (8) the indirect (mediating) effect of career adaptation preoccupations on the relationship between passion prevalence and career satisfaction and (9) the indirect (mediating) effect of work–life adjustment preoccupations on the relationship between passion prevalence and career satisfaction.

Model 4: Tested (1) the pathway from overall occupational passion to career satisfaction, (2) the indirect (mediating) effect of career preferences on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction, (3) the indirect (mediating) effect of career values on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction, (4) the indirect (mediating) effect of career enablers on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction, (5) the indirect (mediating) effect of career drivers on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction, (6) the indirect (mediating) effect of career harmonisers on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction, (7) the indirect (mediating) effect of career establishment preoccupations on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction, (8) the indirect (mediating) effect of career adaptation preoccupations on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction and (9) the indirect (mediating) effect of work–life adjustment preoccupations on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction.

In each of the four models, partial mediation as baseline model was hypothesised because of the presence of multiple mediators. Partial mediation occurs when the indirect effect  $\beta_{yx.m}$  does not drop to zero and when the mediation (indirect effect of X on Y) is still significant (Preacher & Kelley, 2011).

Based on the results obtained from the multilevel mediation modelling, as performed by the SPSS (V.2.15) PROCESS procedure, developed by Hayes (2013), two structural equation models (SEM) were tested in order to obtain the best model fit for the final hypothesised model of significant constructs relevant to the final psychological wellbeing profile. The SEM process is explained below.

#### 5.6.4.1 Step 2: Structural equation modelling (SEM)

Structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to test research hypothesis 3:

H3: Based on the overall statistical relationships between the independent variable (occupational passion) and dependent variable (career satisfaction), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) that there is a good

fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model.

Structural equation modelling (SEM) was performed in SAS version 9.4 (SAS, 2013). Based on the data from the multilevel mediation modelling, two SEM models were tested in order to obtain the best model fit data for the final empirically manifested psychosocial career wellbeing profile.

The main purpose of SEM is to explain the relationships between latent and observed variables in different types of theoretical models (Westland, 2015). The purpose of SEM is, therefore, to establish whether the data from the sample supports the specified theoretical model (Bollen & Pearl, 2013). SEM is most commonly used in both one- and two-stage methods (Westland, 2015):

- One-stage method: To conduct the statistical analysis with concurrent estimates for both the measurement and the structural models.
- Two-stage method: To start with the processing of the measurement model and then to optimise it in order to estimate the structural model.

In this study SEM analysis was conducted to test the relationship between the data from the sample and the theoretical model of career wellbeing. Keith (2014) cites a number of the benefits of using SEM:

- SEM allows the researcher to statistically model and test associations between multiple variables.
- During the process of analysing data statistically, SEM takes into account the measurement error.
- Modern SEM computer software has created an opportunity for researchers to examine advanced theoretical models of multifaceted manifestations with improved proficiency and simplicity.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is the measurement aspect of SEM, which shows relationships between latent variables and their indicators (Bollen & Pearl, 2013). Absolute fit indices are used in CFA to establish how well the a priori model fits, or replicates, the data. Absolute fit indices include the chi-squared test, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), the standardised root-mean-square residual (SRMR), the comparative fit index (CFI), the Akaike information criterion (AIC) and the Bentler-Bonett non-normed index (NNI).

The chi-squared test is used to directly compare the fit of nested models to the data. A disadvantage of the chi-squared test of model fit is that a model with a poor fit may not be rejected due to a small sample size or else good-fit models may be rejected due to large sample sizes (Keith, 2014). As a result, other goodness-of-fit tests have been developed.

The NNI analyses the inconsistencies between the chi-squared value of the hypothesised model and the chi-squared value of the null model (Bentler & Bonett, 1980). The comparative fit index (CFI) is used to examine the fit of the hypothesised model in comparison to an independence model (Keith, 2014). The CFI is often referred to as the Bentler comparative fit index, which is viewed as an incremental fit index that tests the comparative progress in the fit of the empirical model in comparison to that of a baseline model (the independence model) (Kline, 2011).

The most popular application of the Akaike information criterion (AIC) is as a predictive fit index and it is generally used to equate non-hierarchical hypothesised models with similar data (De Carvalho & Chima, 2014). The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), together with the standardised root-mean-square residual (SRMR), were calculated. The main purpose of the RMSEA is that it determines the extent to which the model does not fit the data (Chai & Draxler, 2014). The RMSEA thus determines the overall level of imprecision, and signifies the fitting function value related to the degrees of freedom (Chai & Draxler, 2014; Hu & Bentler, 1999). The standardised RMR (SRMR) is implemented as an absolute measure to determine model fit (Marcoulides & Schumacker, 2013). The SRMR is viewed as the standardised variance between the statistically observed correlational relationship and the hypothesised (predicted) correlational relationship (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Marcoulides & Schumacker, 2013).

The model with the best fit to the data was chosen as the final hypothesised model. For the purposes of the study, a structural model was developed to measure the fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model. This fit was based on the statistical relationship between the dependent and independent variables, and the psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations as mediating variables.

The stepwise multiple regression analysis and the hierarchical moderated regression analysis are discussed next.

#### 5.6.4.2 Step 3: Stepwise multiple regression analysis and hierarchical moderated regression analysis

Stepwise multiple regression analysis and hierarchical moderated regression analysis were performed in order to test research hypothesis 4:

H4: Individuals' sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) significantly moderate the relationship between the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction).

The regression analysis was conducted in two stages:

**Stage 1:** SAS version 9.4 (SAS, 2013) software was used to perform the stepwise multiple regression analysis. Due to the number of sociodemographic variables stepwise multiple regression analysis was used, as a first step, to identify the best predictive sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) that could significantly moderate the relationship between the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion, obsessive passion) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction).

The focus in stepwise multiple regression analysis is on determining the best combination of independent (predictor) variables to predict the dependent (predicted) variables (Draper & Smith, 2014). During the process of stepwise multiple regression, predictor variables are entered into the regression equation one at a time based on statistical criteria (Draper & Smith, 2014). The stepwise multiple regression approach of backward elimination was used in this study. Backward elimination comprises starting with all the construct and sociodemographic variables, testing the deletion of each variable using a chosen model fit criterion, deleting the variable (if applicable) whose loss provides the most statistically insignificant weakening of the model fit, and repeating this procedure until no further variables can be deleted without a statistically significant loss of fit (Cohen et al., 2013).

It is advised that the predictor variable that contributes the most to the prediction equation in terms of increasing the multiple correlation,  $R$ , be entered first at each step in the analysis (Draper & Smith, 2014). During the analysis, this process is continued only if supplementary variables add significance to the regression equation (Draper & Smith, 2014). The analysis stops when no additional predictor variables add anything statistically significant to the regression equation (Draper & Smith, 2014). Thus, during stepwise multiple regression not all predictor variables may be entered into the equation.

**Stage 2:** Hayes PROCESS procedure for SPSS version 2.15 (Hayes, 2013) software was used to perform the hierarchical moderated regression analysis. As a second step, hierarchical moderated regression analysis was used to test whether the best predictive sociodemographic variables, as established in step 1 (stepwise multiple regression analysis), significantly moderated the relationship between the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion, obsessive passion) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction). A similar procedure was applied in establishing the moderating role of the sociodemographic variables in the link between the mediating variables and career satisfaction.

Multiple regression may be described as an extension of traditional (bivariate) regression (Warne, 2011). The purpose of multiple regression analysis is to allow a researcher to examine the relationship between multiple dependent variables and independent variables (Cohen et al., 2013; Field, 2013; Warne, 2011). The outcome of a multiple regression analysis is the development of a regression equation (line of best fit) between the dependent variables and independent variables (Cohen et al., 2013). When a third variable has an effect or influence on the strength of the relationship between two variables then a moderating effect may be said to have occurred (Draper & Smith, 2014). Hierarchical moderated regression analysis is conducted to determine whether the relationship between a predictor variable and a criterion variable will be moderated by another predictor variable (known as the moderator or moderating variable) (Draper & Smith, 2014).

In this research study, the best predictor sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) acted as the moderating variables respectively in determining the relationship between the dependent variable of occupational passion, mediating variables of psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations and the dependent variable of career satisfaction.

Tests for significant mean differences is discussed next.

#### *5.6.4.3 Step 5: Test for significant mean differences*

Tests for significant mean differences was used to test research hypothesis 5:

H5: The sociodemographic groups (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) will differ significantly regarding their occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction.

The univariate procedure in SAS version 9.4 (SAS, 2013) was used to test for normality. A test for normality was first performed in order to establish whether the data had a normal distribution. The Shapiro-Wilk, Kolmogorov-Smirnov, Cramer-von Mises and the Anderson-

Darling tests were used to test for normality. The null-hypothesis of these tests is that the population is normally distributed. When the  $p$ -value is greater than the chosen alpha level ( $\leq .05$ ), then the null hypothesis that the data came from a normally distributed population cannot be rejected (Ho & Yu, 2015).

When the results revealed a normal distribution of the data SAS version 9.4 (SAS, 2013) was utilised to conduct parametric statistical analyses such as ANOVAs to measure the differences between the sociodemographic variables of race, age, qualification, job level and tenure while the independent samples t-test procedures and Tukey's studentised range test were used to test for significant mean differences between the genders (Morgan, Reichert, & Harrison, 2016).

In addition to the ANOVA's, Pooled and Satterthwaite post-hoc tests were used to establish the source of the significant mean differences between the variables of race, age, qualification, job level and tenure as these sociodemographic variables comprised of more than more two groups (Morgan et al., 2016). In addition, Cohen's  $d$  test was used to assess practical effect size in terms of the differences between the respective groups (Cohen et al., 2013).

The levels of statistical significance for each of the statistical procedures are discussed next.

#### **5.6.5 Statistical significance level**

The statistical significance level refers to the probability of making a Type I error (Morgan et al., 2016). A Type I error may be described as the rejection of a true null hypothesis while a Type II error refers to the inability to reject a false null hypothesis (Morgan et al., 2016). The statistically significant level of  $p \leq .05$  was selected for the purposes of this research study. This statistical significance level provided a 95% confidence level in the results of the study. By deciding on a statistical significance level of  $p \leq .05$ , if the null hypothesis is rejected, there is a 5% chance only of being inaccurate (Morgan et al., 2016).

The statistical significance level is normally set at either .05 or .01 for research pertaining to the social sciences (Morgan et al., 2016). Where the test for statistical significance shows a  $p \geq .05$  value, the inference can be drawn that the results are not statistically significant (Morgan et al., 2016). Results representing a  $p$ -value of less than 0.5 will result in the rejection of the null hypothesis and thus the results will be statistically significant (Sirkin, 2005).

##### *5.6.5.1 Level of significance: correlational statistical analysis*

Cohen et al. (2013) advise that the effect size is usually considered when establishing practical significance, that is, to determine whether an outcome is applicable to practice. Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) may be used to determine the effect size, where  $r \leq$

.20 indicates a small effect,  $r \geq .30 \leq .49$  indicates a moderate effect and  $r \geq .50$  indicates a large effect (Corder & Foreman, 2014; Prion & Haerling, 2014). For the purposes of this study, the statistical significance levels of  $p \leq .50$  and  $r \geq .30$  (moderate practical effect size) were chosen as the parameter for rejecting the null hypotheses.

#### *5.6.5.2 Level of significance: multilevel mediation modelling*

Tofighi and Thoemmes (2014) advise the use of the bootstrapping confidence interval method when drawing conclusions about the product of mediation modelling. Bootstrapping is a procedure that arbitrarily selects respondents from the original dataset and then creates a new dataset comprising the same number of respondents (Biesanz, Falk, & Savalei, 2010). With the intention of establishing a bootstrap confidence interval for multilevel mediation, a bootstrap sample from the initial data is supplied. The regression coefficients of the statistical model are predicted in this bootstrap sample and thus the index of multilevel mediation is calculated (Biesanz et al., 2010; Fritz, Taylor, & MacKinnon, 2012). Tofighi and Thoemmes (2014) suggest that this should be carried out numerous times and, through the grouping of all the calculated outputs, more reliable estimations of the analytical outputs are obtained.

Bootstrapping was carried out with 1000 bootstrap samples to determine the multilevel mediation effects of H2 in this study. The bootstrapping process was conducted three times: firstly, bootstrapping was done at the individual mean values of the mediator; secondly, bootstrapping was done with the value one standard deviation above the mean (+1 SD); and, thirdly, bootstrapping was done with the value one standard deviation below the mean (-1 SD) (Tofighi & Thoemmes, 2014). The implementation of more reliable bootstrapping bias-corrected 95% lower level (LLCI) and upper level (ULCI) confidence levels, excluding zero, the direct and indirect effects were calculated (Tofighi & Thoemmes, 2014).

#### *5.6.5.3 Level of significance: structural equation modelling (SEM)*

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is the measurement procedure used in structural equation modelling (SEM).

SAS version 9.4 (SAS, 2013), and more specifically, the CALIS procedure was used to establish the maximum likelihood fit indices through the Levenberg-Marquardt optimisation procedure in the CFA process. The benefit of the Levenberg-Marquardt optimisation procedure is that it may quickly and accurately solving generic curve-fitting problems (More, 1978).

In CFA, the goodness of fit index (GFI) value range is between 0 and 1 (Marcoulides & Schumacker, 2013). The model will have a satisfactory fit with the data when the GFI values are close to 1.0 (Marcoulides & Schumacker, 2013).

Absolute fit indices include the chi-squared test, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), the standardised root-mean-square residual (SRMR), the comparative fit Index (CFI), the Akaike information criterion (AIC) and the Bentler-Bonett non-normed index (NNI). The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and standardised root mean square residual (SRMR) are  $\leq .10$  (model acceptance) and  $\leq .08$  (good fit), and the comparative fit index (CFI) and Bentler-Bonett non-normed index (NNI) are  $\geq .90$  or higher. These absolute fit indices were determined via SAS version 9.4 (SAS, 2013).

Chi-square values provide information in relation of the extent to which the observed and the predicted covariances are differentiated from one another (Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger, & Muller, 2003). The smaller value of chi-square would reflect small differences between the covariance, thus indicating a better fit to the data (Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2013).

A NNI value between .90 and .95 is perceived as marginal, above .95 is good, and below .90 is considered to be a model that has a poor fit (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Keith, 2014). In this study CFI values close to  $>.90$  and higher were deemed to indicate a satisfactory model fit (Keith, 2014).

Low AIC values represent a marginal fit as opposed to models that fail to fit the data (De Carvalho & Chima, 2014; Kline, 2011). It is advised that a marginal value of RMSEA and SRMR for model acceptance is  $< .10$  while a value of  $< .08$  and lower is viewed as adequate for model fit (Chai & Draxler, 2014; Kline, 2011).

#### *5.6.5.4 Level of significance: stepwise regression and hierarchical moderated regression*

Due to the number of sociodemographic variables, stepwise regression analysis was performed to identify the best sociodemographic predictors that could be utilised in the moderated regression analysis. Stepwise regression is a method of calculating regression models by which certain variables are eliminated based on their inability to predict a dependent variable (Cohen et al., 2013). The sociodemographic variables that remained after the stepwise regression were included in the hierarchical moderated regression analysis.

The purpose of hierarchical moderated regression analysis is to predict the variance in the dependent variable in response to the variance in the independent variables (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). Within the hierarchical process the independent and moderating variables are included in a pre-determined sequence; the earlier blocks of variables (i.e. testing main effects) are accredited with any overlapping variance that these variables share with blocks of variables entered at a later stage (i.e. testing interaction effects) (Aiken & West, 1991). Subsequently, hierarchical moderated regression tests whether the regression model including the interaction term increases the variance accounted for in the dependent variable

(i.e. career satisfaction) (Aiken & West, 1991). A significant interaction (moderating) effect is indicated by a significant change (increase) in  $R^2$  (Aiken & West, 1991).

In both the stepwise regression and the hierarchical moderated regression the ANOVA ( $F_p$ ) was calculated to determine significance. A low  $F_p$ -value ( $< 0.05$ ) indicates that the null hypothesis may be rejected. Thus, a predictor that has a low  $F_p$ -value is likely to significantly predict the dependent variable. For both stepwise regression and the hierarchical moderated regression, the  $R^2$  values indicate the extent to which the independent variable explains the variance in the dependent variable (Hair et al., 2010). The  $R^2$  value is always between 0 and 100% (Hair et al., 2010):

- 0% indicates that the model explains none of the variability of the response data around its mean.
- 100% indicates that the model explains all the variability of the response data around its mean.

However, the problem with the  $R^2$  value is that it increases when variables are added. This may mean that a model with more variables would appear to have a better fit to the data simply because it has more terms (Hair et al. 2010). The adjusted  $R^2$  is then calculated and compare the explanatory power of the respective models with a different number of predictors (Hair et al., 2010). The adjusted  $R^2$  is thus an unbiased estimate of the  $R^2$  value and is interpreted in the same manner as the  $R$  value (Hair et al., 2010).

The effect-size metric  $f^2$  is utilised in order to determine the effect size of moderated regressions (Cohen et al., 2013). The  $f^2$  specifies the quantity of systematic variance associated with the moderating variable in association with the unexplained variance in the criterion (Draper & Smith, 2014). The effect sizes of  $f^2$  recommended are as follow (Cohen et al., 2013):

- $f^2 \geq .02$  (small effect size)
- $f^2 \geq .15$  (moderate effect size)
- $f^2 \geq .35$  (large effect size)

The level of significance for the tests for significant mean differences are discussed in the next section.

#### 5.6.5.5 Level of significance: tests for significant mean differences

A significance level of  $p \leq .05$  indicates that the tests of mean differences are significant and valid. Cohen's  $d$  test was used to determine the practical effect of the significant mean

differences between the two groups. Cohen's  $d$  is conceptualised as the difference between two means divided by a standard deviation for the data (Cohen et al., 2013). The descriptors for the effect sizes of  $d$  are provided below (Cohen et al., 2013):

- $d \geq .01$  (very small effect size)
- $d \geq .20$  (small effect size)
- $d \geq .50$  (moderate effect size)
- $d \geq .80$  (large effect size)
- $d \geq 1.20$  (very large effect size)

The next section discusses the limitations to the research design.

## **5.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH**

Due to the design of the research there were several limitations:

- The cross-sectional design that was used did not allow the researcher to control the research variables.
- The cross-sectional design also did not allow the researcher to establish the causality of the significant relationships between the respective variables which meant that only the magnitude and direction of associations could be considered in the interpretation of the results.
- During mediation modelling, the cross-sectional design did not allow the researcher to establish the causality of the significant relationships between the respective variables.
- The cross-sectional design is susceptible to common method variance. However, this was addressed in the study by testing for common method variance.
- The sociodemographic variables were limited to race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure.
- The sample size ( $n = 550$ ) was too small to allow the findings to be generalised to the entire South African working population.

## **5.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

The purpose of this chapter was to provide an insight into the empirical study which was conducted. The chapter included information on the population and a description of the sample. The chapter also discussed the selection of and motivation for using the psychometric battery, the administration and scoring of the psychometric battery, ethical considerations, the capturing of the criterion data and the formulation of the research hypotheses. The statistical processing of the data, which comprised three stages (i.e. descriptive, correlational and inferential statistical analyses) which was conducted during the empirical investigation and the

statistical significance levels which were used to examine the data were also discussed in this chapter. The chapter concluded with the limitations of the research design.

The empirical research results are reported in Chapter 6.

## CHAPTER 6

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The outcome of this chapter is to address research aims 1,2,3, 4 and 5 and to provide information on the results of the various statistical analyses that were conducted in the study. The purpose of conducting these analyses was to test the formulated research hypotheses as outlined in Table 5.8 (Chapter 5). In this chapter, the statistical results of the empirical study are reported by means of descriptive statistics, correlations and inferential statistics. The chapter uses tables and figures to present the statistical results. The empirical results are integrated and interpreted in the discussion section.

#### **6.1 PRELIMINARY STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

In this section, the common method variance, measurement model validity and the scale reliabilities are reported on.

##### **6.1.1 Common method variance**

Tehseen, Ramayah, and Sajilan (2017) describe common method variance (bias) as the systematic variance that is caused by the type of data collection method that is used in research, for example self-reporting surveys. If measures are affected by common method variance, the inter-correlations among the factors could be inflated or deflated. When one factor emerges from the analysis or if one overall factor explains the majority of the variance, common method variance has occurred (Kock, 2015). In the current research, Harman's one-factor test and confirmatory factor analysis (one-factor solution) were utilised to test for common method variance (Fuller et al., 2015). Table 6.1 provides a summary of these results. Goodness-of-fit is indicated where the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and standardised root mean square residual (SRMR) are  $\leq .10$  (model acceptance) and  $\leq .08$  (good fit), and the comparative fit index (CFI) and Bentler-Bonett non-normed index (NNI) are  $\geq .90$  or higher (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Kock, 2015; Pallant, 2013). The analyses were conducted using SAS version 9.4 (SAS, 2013) software.

Table 6.1

*Testing for Common Method Variance: Factor Solutions*

Measurement instrument	Harman's one-factor test: Percentage variance explained by a single factor	One-factor solution (confirmatory factor analysis)
Passion Scale (PS)	14.52%	Chi-square = 1648.35***/df = 119 SRMR = .12 RMSEA = .15 CFI = .68 NNI = .63 AIC = 1716.56
Psychological Career Resources Inventory (PCRI)	13.44%	Chi-Square = 12533.69 ***/df=1952 SRMR = 0.11 RMSEA = 0.10 CFI = .37 NNI = .36 AIC = 12789.69
Psychosocial Career Preoccupations Scale (PCPS)	21.13%	Chi-Square = 2235.42 ***/df =252 RMSEA = .12 SRMR = .07 CFI = .75 NNI = .72 AIC = 2331.4228
Career Satisfaction Scale (CSS)	N/a	Chi-Square = 58.19***/df =5 RMSEA = .17 SRMR = .03 CFI = .96 NNI = .93 AIC = 78.1948

Notes: N = 550; \*\*\* $p \leq .000$

The one-factor solution for the Passion Scale (PS) (Vallerand & Houliort, 2003) indicates that loading all the items of the PS onto one single factor accounted for only 14.52% of the covariance between the scale variables. When the PS variables were loaded onto a single construct in the CFA model, the fit indices indicated that the single factor did not fit the model well, with a CFI value of well below .90 and RMSEA and SRMR values above .10 (chi-square/df ratio = 13.85\*\*\*;  $p < .000$ ; RMSEA = .15; SRMR = .12; CFI = .68; NNI = .63).

In terms of the Psychological Career Resources Inventory (PCRI) (Coetzee, 2008), the one-factor solution specified that the loading all the items onto a single factor accounted for only 13.44% of the covariance among the scale variables. When the PCRI variables were loaded onto a single construct in the CFA model, however, the fit indices specified that the single factor did not fit the overall model well, with a SRMR value above .10 and a CFI value below .90 (Chi-square/df ratio = 6.52\*\*\*;  $p < .000$ ; RMSEA = .10; SRMR = .11; CFI = .37; NNI = .35).

With regard to the Psychosocial Career Preoccupations Scale (PCPS) (Coetzee, 2014b), the one-factor solution specified that loading all scale items onto a single factor explained only 21.13% of the covariance between the scale variables. When the PCPS variables were loaded

onto a single construct in the CFA model, the fit indices specified that the single factor did not fit the overall model well, with a RMSEA value above .10 and a CFI value below .90 (chi-square/df ratio = 8.87\*\*\*;  $p < .000$ ; RMSEA = .12; SRMR = .07; CFI = .75; NNI = .72).

As the Career Satisfaction Scale (CSS) (Greenhaus et al., 1990) is a one-factor scale, the one-factor CFA fitted the model well. This was supported by the fit indices which specified a single factor, with an SRMR value below .10 and a CFI and NNI values above .90 (chi-square/df ratio = 11.63\*\*\*;  $p < .000$ ; RMSEA = .17; SRMR = .03; CFI = .96; NNI = .93). As the RMSEA (.17) was too high it was suggested that the model should be improved.

Therefore, based on the one-factor results for the respective measurement scales, it was clear that common method variance was not a serious threat to the findings of the research (Tehseen et al., 2017).

### **6.1.2 Measurement model validity**

In order to establish the structural (construct) validity of the measurement scales, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), using SAS version 9.4 (SAS, 2013) software, was applied. In the SAS version 9.4 (SAS, 2013) software, the CALIS procedure was applied in order to determine the maximum likelihood fit indices using the Levenberg-Marquardt Optimisation procedure (More, 1978). The main purpose of CFA is to measure the validity of the measurement model of each scale, which allows researchers to draw valid conclusions (Bollen & Pearl, 2013). Table 6.2 below summarises the results of the CFA. The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and standardised root mean square residual (SRMR) are  $\leq .10$  (model acceptance) and  $\leq .08$  (good fit), and the comparative fit index (CFI) and Bentler-Bonett non-normed index (NNI) are  $\geq .90$  or higher (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Tehseen et al., 2017).

Table 6.2

*Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Construct Validity*

<b>Measurement instrument</b>	<b>Confirmatory factor analysis (original factor solution)</b>	<b>Confirmatory factor analysis optimised model</b>
<b>Passion scale (PS)</b>	Chi-square = 1648.35***/df = 119	Chi-square = 178.10 ***/df = 45
Construct factors:	SRMR = .12	SRMR = .04
Passion prevalence	RMSEA = .15	RMSEA = .08
Harmonious passion	CFI = .68	CFI = .96
Obsessive passion	NNI = .63	NNI = .94
	AIC = 1716.56	AIC = 244.1034
<b>Psychological Career Resources Inventory (PCRI)</b>	Chi-square = 12533.69 ***/df=1952	Chi-square = 778.58***/df = 221
Construct factors:	SRMR = .11	SRMR = .05
RMSEA = .10	RMSEA = .07	
Career values	CFI = .37	CFI = .90
Career preferences	NNI = .35	NNI = .87
Career enablers	AIC = 12789.69	AIC =930.5863
Career drivers		
Career harmonisers		
<b>Psychosocial Career Preoccupations Scale (PCPS)</b>	Chi-square = 2235.42 ***/df =252	Chi-square = 628.30 ***/df =156
Construct factors:	RMSEA = .12	RMSEA = .07
Career establishment preoccupations	SRMR = .07	SRMR = .05
Career adaptation preoccupations	CFI = .75	CFI = .93
Work–life adjustment preoccupations	NNI = .72	NNI = .92
	AIC = 2331.4228	AIC = 736.3007
<b>Career Satisfaction Scale (CSS)</b>	Chi-Square = 58.19***/df =5	Chi-square = 58.19***/df = 5
	RMSEA = .17	RMSEA = .10
	SRMR = .03	SRMR = .03
	CFI = .96	CFI = .96
	NNI = .93	NNI = .93
	AIC = 78.1948	AIC = 2331.4228

Notes: N = 550; \*\*\* $p \leq .000$

As indicated in Table 6.2, for the PS, the CFA indicated the overall construct validity of the subscales (original three subscale measurement model). The optimised model fit indices indicated an RMSEA and SRMR of below .08, a CFI and NNI > .90 and a lower AIC value (chi-square/df ratio = 3.95\*\*\*;  $p < .000$ ; RMSEA = .08; SRMR = .04; CFI = .96; NNI = .94; AIC = 244.1034).

Table 6.2 shows that the CFA for the PCRI indicated the overall construct validity of the subscales (original five subscale measurement model), with the optimised model fit indices

indicating an RMSEA and SRMR below .08, a CFI > .90 and a lower AIC value (chi-square/df ratio = 3.52\*\*\*;  $p < .000$ ; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .05; CFI = .90; NNI = .87; AIC = 930.5863).

According to Table 6.2, the CFA for the PCPS showed overall construct validity for the subscales (original three subscale measurement model), with the optimised model fit indices indicating a RMSEA and SRMR below .08, a CFI and NNI > .90 and an improved AIC value (chi-square/df ratio = 4.02\*\*\*;  $p < .000$ ; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .05; CFI = .93; NNI = .92; AIC = 736.3007).

As indicated in Table 6.2, the CFA for the CSS showed acceptable overall construct validity for the one-factor. The optimised model fit indices indicated a RMSEA equal to .10 and a SRMR below .08 and a CFI and NNI > .90 (chi-square/df ratio = 11.63\*\*\*;  $p < .000$ ; RMSEA = .10; SRMR = .03; CFI = .96; NNI = .93; AIC = 2331.4228).

The structural (construct) validity of the four measurement scales, as provided by the CFA results, confirmed that further statistical analysis was warranted and valid.

### **6.1.3 Assessing scale reliability and construct validity**

In this section, the convergent and discriminant validity of the following measurement models are discussed: the Passion Scale (PS) (Vallerand & Houliort, 2003); the Psychological Career Resources Inventory (PCRI) (Coetzee, 2008); the Psychosocial Career Preoccupations Scale (PCPS) (Coetzee, 2014b) and the Career Satisfaction Scale (CSS) (Greenhaus et al., 1990). As CFA and SEM are applicable to this study, the composite reliabilities and the Cronbach's alpha coefficients (internal consistency reliability) were calculated. Composite reliability is seen as a less biased estimate of reliability in comparison to the Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Peterson & Kim, 2013). A Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability coefficient of  $\geq .70$  is considered acceptable (Geldhof, Preacher, & Zyphur, 2014).

Convergent validity refers to the extent to which two measures of a certain construct that are theoretically related are in fact related (Henseler et al., 2015). In order to assess the convergent validity of the four scales, the average variance extracted (AVE) for each scale was calculated. AVE determines the level of variance captured by a construct versus the level owing to measurement error (Henseler et al., 2015). Cole and Preacher (2014) describe measurement error as the variance between the value measured through data collection and the precise value of a specific variable. Buzas, Stefanski, and Tosteson (2014) argue that measurement error is a result of poor test administration, environmental factors, self-report questionnaires and level of participant wellbeing. AVE exceeding  $>.70$  are perceived as very good whilst

values at the level of  $\geq .50$  are deemed to be acceptable, thus indicating construct reliability and convergent validity (Henseler et al., 2015).

Discriminant validity refers to the extent to which factors are distinct and uncorrelated (Henseler et al., 2015). Discriminant validity was established where maximum shared variance (MSV) and the average shared variance (ASV) were both lower than the average variance extracted (AVE) for all of the scales (Henseler et al., 2015).

The PS (Vallerand & Houliort, 2003) was utilised to measure participants' passion toward their work in terms of the subscales of passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion. Table 6.3 reports the Cronbach's alpha coefficient values, composite reliabilities and the AVEs, MSVs and ASVs for each of the three subscales of the PS.

The PCRI (Coetzee, 2008) was utilised to measure participants' psychological career resources in terms of the subscales of career preferences, career values, career enablers, career drivers and career harmonisers. Table 6.3 reports the Cronbach's alpha coefficient values, composite reliabilities and the AVEs, MSVs and ASVs for each of the five subscales of the PCRI.

The research applied the PCPS (Coetzee, 2014b) to determine participants' psychosocial career preoccupations in terms of the subscales of career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work-life adjustment preoccupations. Table 6.3 reports the Cronbach's alpha coefficient values, composite reliabilities and the AVEs, MSVs and ASVs for each of the three subscales of the PCPS.

The CSS (Greenhaus et al., 1990) was administered to determine participants' career satisfaction. Table 6.3 reports the Cronbach's alpha coefficient value, composite reliability and the AVEs, MSVs and ASVs for the single factor of the CSS. Table 6.3

Table 6.3

*Convergent and Discriminant Validity of the Measurement Model*

Scale dimension	Cronbach's alpha ( $\alpha$ )	Composite reliability (CR)	AVE	MSV	ASV	Results of convergent validity	Results of discriminant validity
<b>Passion scale</b>	.88						
Passion prevalence	.90	.91	.73	.70	.53	Yes	Yes
Harmonious passion	.81	.71	.45	.70	.48	No	No
Obsessive passion	.82	.79	.39	.28	.25	Yes	Yes
<b>Psychological career resources inventory</b>	.90						
Career preferences	.67	.69	.43	.47	.29	No	No
Career values	.77	.78	.56	.34	.25	Yes	Yes
Career enablers	.80	.81	.42	.47	.41	No	No
Career drivers	.80	.79	.43	.60	.34	No	No
Career harmonisers	.85	.85	.45	.60	.38	No	No
<b>Psychosocial career preoccupations scale</b>	.94						
Career establishment preoccupations	.93	.93	.41	.76	.41	No	No
Career adaptation preoccupations	.85	.86	.62	.56	.54	Yes	Yes
Work–life adjustment preoccupations	.75	.75	.44	.44	.76	No	No
<b>Career satisfaction scale</b>	.89	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a

Notes:

N = 550. AVE: average variance extracted. MSV: maximum shared value. ASV: average variance shared.

Convergent validity CR > AVE and AVE > .50

Discriminant validity MSV < AVE and ASV < AVE

As indicated in Table 6.3, the subscales for the PS indicated high overall reliability (> .71). Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the PS subscales ranged from  $\alpha = .81$  to  $\alpha = .90$ . However, the AVE was less than .50 for both harmonious (.45) and obsessive passion (.39) thus indicating unacceptable convergent validity. This outcome was perceived as a limitation to the research outcomes and was taken into consideration when computing alternative measurement models. The AVE for passion prevalence (.73) was higher than .50 and was deemed acceptable for convergent validity. Accordingly, constructs are deemed to be reliable

when  $AVE > .50$  (Henseler et al., 2015). With regard to discriminant validity, the AVE for harmonious passion is less than the MSV (indicating low discriminant validity). However, for passion prevalence and obsessive passion the results met the criteria for discriminant validity. The results are deemed acceptable for discriminant validity when  $MSV < AVE$  and  $ASV < AVE$  (Henseler et al., 2015).

Table 6.3 indicates that satisfactory reliabilities were achieved for the majority of the PCRI subscales ( $> .78$ ). However, the composite reliability of the career preferences subscale was .69, which was just below the cut-off of .70 (Henseler et al., 2015). Acceptable Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the majority of the PCRI subscales, ranging from  $\alpha = .77$  to  $\alpha = .85$  were achieved; however, the career preferences subscale reported a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .67, which was below the threshold of .70. The AVEs ranged between .43 and .56. The career drivers, career preferences, career enablers and career harmonisers subscales fell short of the threshold of .50 while the AVE for career values (.56) was acceptable for convergent validity. There was thus low convergent validity for the majority of the subscales as the AVE needed to be above .50 (Henseler et al., 2015). This was deemed to be a limitation to the research findings. In terms of discriminant validity, the AVE for the career values subscale was more than the MSV (thus indicating acceptable discriminant validity). However, this was not observed for any of the other subscales. The results were perceived as providing evidence for discriminant validity when  $MSV < AVE$  and  $ASV < AVE$  (Henseler et al., 2015).

According to Table 6.3, acceptable composite reliabilities were achieved for the PCPS ( $> .75$ ). High Cronbach's alpha coefficients for all the PCPS subscales, ranging from  $\alpha = .75$  to  $\alpha = .93$ , were obtained. However, only the career adaptation preoccupations (.62) subscale achieved an AVE of above .50, whilst career establishment preoccupations (.41) and work-life adjustment preoccupations (.44) were just below the threshold of .50. In addition, the AVE for subscales of career establishment preoccupations and work-life adjustment preoccupations were less than the MSV, indicating low discriminant validity for these subscales.

As indicated in Table 6.3, the CSS achieved an overall high Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .89, thus indicating acceptable reliability for the scale.

#### **6.1.4 Testing construct validity of the overall measurement model**

SAS version 9.4 (2013) was used to determine the construct validity of the two measurement models. As the model that was initially tested did not provide a satisfactory fit to the data (CFI and NNI were below .90), it was decided that a second model should be tested.

The two models included harmonious passion, obsessive passion, passion prevalence, career values, career preferences, career enablers, career drivers, career harmonisers, career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations, work–life adjustment preoccupations and career satisfaction as endogenous variables, and the overall scales of the PS, PCRI, PCPS and CSS as exogenous variables.

As indicated in Table 6.4, the first model that was tested obtained a chi square of 4177.02 (1896 df); CMIN/df = 2.2;  $p = .000$ ; RMSEA = .04; SRMR = .07; CFI = .88; NNI = .87; AIC = 4545.02. However, as the CFI and NNI values were below the threshold value of .90 it was decided to test a second model to ensure the optimisation of the construct validity of the overall measurement model.

The second (optimised) model that was tested obtained a chi-square of 4146.02 (1899 df); CMIN/df = 2.18;  $p = .000$ ; RMSEA = .05; SRMR = .07; CFI = .89; NNI = .88; AIC = 4508.99. As the RMSEA and SRMR values were below the threshold value of .08 and the CFI and NNI values were below the threshold value of .90, the second model showed significant improvements to the model fit.

Table 6.4

*Construct Validity of Overall Measurement Model*

Model	Chi-square	df	$p$	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	NNI	AIC
1	4177.02	1896	.000***	.04	.07	.88	.87	4545.02
2	4146.99	1899	.000***	.05	.07	.89	.88	4508.99

Notes: N = 550 \*\*\* $p \leq .000$

In summary, all of the measurement scales obtained acceptable construct validity. However, some of the scales indicated problematic reliability coefficients. Even so, it was decided to include the problematic subscales – harmonious passion, career preferences, career enablers, career drivers, career harmonisers, career establishment preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations – in the statistical analysis as the research was exploratory in nature. Acceptable construct validities for each of the four scales were achieved by means of the CFA analysis when the above-mentioned problematic subscales were incorporated in the scales. During the interpretation of the research findings the low internal consistency reliabilities were also considered.

## 6.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics is regarded as statistical methods that quantitatively describe or summarise the features of a collection of data (Ho & Yu, 2015). In this section, information is

provided on the standard deviations, kurtosis and skewness for each of the measuring instruments (PS, PCRI, PCPS and CSS).

The PS scores were obtained by determining the mean scores for all the items relating to the subscales of passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion (Vallerand & Houliort, 2003). The mean score is calculated by summing the individual scores for each of the respective sub-scales and dividing the result by the number of scores within the sub-scale (Vallerand & Houliort, 2003). All three subscales were measured on a seven-point Likert-type scale where 1 indicated that participants did not agree at all and 7 that participants very strongly agreed with a statement related to the participant's favourite work activity. The subscale with the highest mean score indicates the type of passion and/or the prevalence or absence of passion for the participant. Table 6.5 provides descriptive information on the PS subscales.

The PCRI was scored by attaining the mean score for all the items relating to the five subscales (career preferences, career values, career enablers, career drivers and career harmonisers) (Coetzee, 2008). Participants rated the statements on a six-point Likert-type scale based on statements related to their self-perceived psychological career resources, where 1 indicates never and 6 indicates always. The subscales with the highest overall mean scores were perceived as the participant's dominant psychological career resources. Table 6.5 provides descriptive information on the PCRI subscales.

The PCPS was scored by calculating the mean score for each of the three subscales, namely, career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work-life adjustment preoccupations. The PCPS requires participants to respond to statements on the extent to which they feel concerned about certain career needs and/or career preoccupations by implementing a five-point Likert-type scale. A higher score for an item would indicate that the specific statement is truer for the participant. The participant's dominant career preoccupation is determined by the subscale with the highest overall mean score. Table 6.5 provides a summary of the descriptive information for the three subscales as obtained in this study.

The CSS scores were calculated by establishing the mean score for all the items relating to the single factor of career satisfaction. The mean score is calculated by summing the individual scores for the entire scale and dividing the result by the number of scores. Participants were asked to rate the extent to which they agree or disagree with a specific statement related to their career satisfaction on a five-point Likert scale, where 1 indicated strongly disagree and 5 strongly agree. The higher the mean score for the overall scale the higher the participant's

career satisfaction was perceived to be. Table 6.5 provides the descriptive information for the CSS.

Table 6.5 provides a summary for each of the scales and subscales in terms of their minimum score, maximum score, mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis.

Table 6.5

*Descriptive Statistics: Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis*

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
<b>Passion scale</b>	1.40	7.0	4.51	.95	-.37	.56
Passion prevalence	1.00	7.00	5.51	1.17	-1.18	1.86
Harmonious passion	1.40	7.00	5.33	1.02	-1.00	1.45
Obsessive passion	1.00	7.00	3.16	1.28	.33	-.42
<b>Psychological Career Resources Inventory</b>	3.00	6.00	4.82	.58	-.19	-.28
Career preferences	2.00	6.00	4.73	.89	-.40	-.51
Career values	3.33	6.00	5.42	.61	-.88	.07
Career enablers	2.50	6.00	4.81	.70	-.18	-.57
Career drivers	2.00	6.00	4.62	.83	-.44	-.01
Career harmonisers	2.43	6.00	4.73	.74	-.41	-.26
<b>Psychosocial career preoccupations scale</b>	1.00	4.95	3.22	.93	-.54	-.57
Career establishment preoccupations	1.00	5.00	3.47	1.02	-.62	-.60
Career adaptation preoccupations	1.00	5.00	2.72	1.09	.13	-.82
Work–life adjustment preoccupations	1.00	5.00	2.97	.99	-.11	-.71
<b>Career satisfaction scale</b>	1.00	5.00	3.72	.90	-.81	.40

Notes: N = 550

In terms of the PS, the mean scores ranged from 3.16 to 5.51. The participants scored the highest on the passion prevalence subscale ( $M = 5.51$ ;  $SD = 1.17$ ), with harmonious passion being the predominant type of passion ( $M = 5.33$ ;  $SD = 1.02$ ) reported by the participants. The standard deviations for each of the three subscales were fairly similar, falling within the range of 1.02 to 1.28. The skewness values for the PS varied between -1.18 and .33, which indicated that the distribution for the PS was flatter than a normal distribution with a wider peak. The kurtosis indicated a range of between -.42 and 1.86, which indicates the possibility for extreme values which were lower than in a normal distribution, and the values were more widely spread

around the mean (Ho & Yu, 2015). These results indicated non-normality and were considered during further analysis.

The mean scores for the PCRI ranged between 4.62 and 5.42, indicating that career values ( $M = 5.42$ ;  $SD = .61$ ) was the predominant psychological career resource for the participants in the sample. The psychological career resource, career drivers ( $M = 4.62$ ;  $SD = .83$ ), was the lowest psychological career resource obtained in the sample. The standard deviations for each of the five subscales fell within a similar range of between .61 and .89. The mean scores for the PCRI indicated a distribution skewed to the right (skewness  $< 0$ ). The skewness values varied from -.88 to -.18, which suggests a flatter than normal distribution with a wider peak. The kurtosis values ranged between -.57 and .07, which would suggest the probability of extreme values which were lower than for a normal distribution, and that the values were more widely spread around the mean.

In terms of the PCPS, the mean scores ranged between 2.72 and 3.47, with career establishment preoccupations ( $M = 3.47$ ;  $SD = 1.02$ ) being the predominant career preoccupation and career adaptation preoccupations ( $M = 2.72$ ;  $SD = 1.09$ ) the lowest career preoccupation in the sample. The standard deviations for the three subscales were fairly similar in value, ranging between .62 and .13. The skewness values of the PCPS ranged between -.62 and .13, which indicates a flatter than normal structure with a wider peak. It was found that the kurtosis values ranged from -.82 to -.60, which showed that the likelihood for extreme values was lower than in a normal distribution, and that the values were more widely spread around the mean.

The mean score for the single factor on the CSS was 3.72, with a standard deviation of .90. The skewness value for the CSS was -.81, thus indicating that the distribution was flatter than a normal distribution and had a wider peak. The kurtosis value for the CSS was .40, which indicated that the possibility for extreme values was lower than for a normal distribution, and the values were more widely spread around the mean.

Overall, the career satisfaction of the participants was average. The participants reported relatively high levels of harmonious passion, and strong career values. Their career establishment preoccupations were identified as their highest career concerns. The participants' obsessive passion was relatively low, as were their career drivers and career adaptation concerns. This implies that harmonious passion for work along with clearly defined career values, low levels of establishment concerns, low levels of obsessive passion, low levels of career drivers and career adaptation concerns contributed the most to the career wellbeing profile of the sample of participants.

### 6.3 CORRELATIONAL STATISTICS

Correlation is a bivariate analysis that assesses the strength of association between variables and the direction of the relationship (Cohen et al., 2013). In this research, correlational statistics were performed in order to determine the magnitude and direction between the respective variables. Furthermore, correlational statistics were performed to test research hypothesis 1.

H1: There are statistically significant inter-relationships between the sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure), the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction).

#### 6.3.1 Correlations between sociodemographic variables and the scale constructs

Spearman correlations in SAS version 9.4 (2013) software were used to determine the relationship between the sociodemographic and the construct research variables.

Table 6.6 above provides a summary of the correlations between the sociodemographic variables and the constructs that are applicable to this research.

Table 6.6

*Bivariate Correlations of the Sociodemographic, Independent, Mediator and Dependent Variables*

Variables	Race	Gender	Age	Qualification	Job level	Tenure
Harmonious passion	.04	-.06	.17***	-.02	-.24***	.15
Obsessive passion	-.09	-.12	.05	-.09	-.01	.00
Passion prevalence	.04	.02	.18***	.02	-.21***	.11
<b>PS Overall scale</b>	-.01	-.08	.15	-.04	-.16***	.09
Career preferences	-.11	-.13	.01	.07	-.11	.04
Career values	-.07	-.01	-.16	.12	.05	-.11
Career enablers	-.05	-.11	.05	.01	-.16	-.09
Career drivers	-.09	-.05	.08	-.05	-.17***	.13
Career harmonisers	-.03	-.12	.01	-.04	-.08	.03
<b>PCRI Overall scale</b>	-.08	-.13	.03	.00	-.14	.07
Career establishment preoccupations	-.13	.11	-.35***	-.05	.32***	-.29***
Career adaptation preoccupations	-.16***	-.01	-.27***	.02	.28***	-.24***
Work–life adjustment preoccupations	-.14	.05	-.30***	.02	.23***	-.25***
<b>PCPS Overall scale</b>	-.16	.08	-.36***	-.02	.32***	-.30***
<b>CSS Overall scale</b>	.06	.00	.14	.00	-.22***	.12

Notes: N=550. \*\*\* $p \leq .001$  \*\* $p \leq .01$  \* $p \leq .05$

#### 6.3.1.1 Race

As indicated in Table 6.6, the results showed a significant negative bivariate correlation between race and the career adaptation preoccupations subscale ( $r = -.16$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .001$ ). There were no significant bivariate correlations with any of the subscales or overall scales of the PS, PCRI or CSS.

#### 6.3.1.2 Gender

In terms of gender, Table 6.6 shows no significant bivariate correlations between gender and any of the subscales or overall scales of the PS, PCRI, PCPS or CSS.

#### 6.3.1.3 Age

Table 6.6 indicates significant negative bivariate correlations between age and the career establishment preoccupations ( $r = -.35$ ; moderate practical effect;  $p < .001$ ), career adaptation preoccupations ( $r = -.27$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .001$ ), and the work–life adjustment preoccupations ( $r = -.30$ ; moderate practical effect;  $p < .001$ ) subscales. A significant negative bivariate correlation was also obtained between age and the PCPS overall scale ( $r = -.36$ ; moderate practical effect;  $p < .001$ ). Table 6.6 shows significant positive bivariate correlations between age and the subscales of harmonious passion ( $r = .17$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .001$ ) and passion prevalence ( $r = .17$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .001$ ). No significant bivariate correlations were observed between age and any of the subscales or overall scales of the PCRI or the CSS.

#### 6.3.1.4 Qualification

As shown in Table 6.6, no significant bivariate correlations between qualification and any of the subscales or overall scales of the PS, PCRI PCPS or CSS were observed.

#### 6.3.1.5 Job level

As seen in Table 6.6, results for job level and the subscales for the PCPS indicated significant positive bivariate correlations for the career establishment preoccupations subscale ( $r = .32$ ; moderate practical effect;  $p < .001$ ), the career adaptation preoccupations subscale ( $r = .28$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .001$ ) and the work–life adjustment preoccupations subscale ( $r = .23$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .001$ ). There was also a significant positive bivariate correlation between job level and the overall PCPS ( $r = .32$ ; moderate practical effect;  $p < .001$ ). Significant negative bivariate correlations were observed for the subscales of harmonious passion ( $r = -.24$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .001$ ), passion prevalence ( $r = -.21$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .001$ ) and career drivers ( $r = -.17$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .001$ ). Significant negative bivariate correlations were also identified between job level and the CSS overall scale ( $r = -.22$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .001$ ).

### 6.3.1.6 Tenure

In terms of tenure and the subscales for the PCPS scale, a significant negative bivariate correlation was found to exist between tenure and the career establishment preoccupations subscale ( $r = -.29$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .01$ ), the career adaptation preoccupations subscale ( $r = -.24$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .001$ ) and the work–life adjustment preoccupations subscale ( $r = -.25$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .001$ ). There were also significant negative bivariate correlations with the PCPS overall scale ( $r = -.30$ ; moderate practical effect;  $p < .01$ ). The results showed no significant bivariate correlations between tenure and the subscales and overall scales for the PS, PCRI and CSS.

Overall, the results showed significant correlations between the sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) and the subscales and overall scales of the PS, the PCRI, the PCPS and the CSS, all of which were small to moderate in practical effect size.

### 6.3.2 Correlations between the scale variables

Pearson product-moment correlations were calculated to establish the relationship between the respective research variables. Table 6.7 summarises the results of these correlations.

Table 6.7

*Bivariate Correlations of the Independent and Dependent Variables*

Variables	Harmonious passion	Obsessive passion	Obsessive passion	PS Overall scale	Career preferences	Career values	Career enablers	Career drivers	Career harmonisers	PCRI Overall scale	Career establishment preoccupations	Career adaptation preoccupations	Work–life adjustment preoccupations	PCPS Overall scale	CSS Overall scale
Harmonious passion	-														
Obsessive passion	.35***	-													
Passion prevalence	.73***	.42***	-												
<b>PS Overall scale</b>	.79***	.81***	.82***	-											
Career preferences	.18***	.15	.14	.20***	-										
Career values	.21***	.07	.19***	.18***	.42***	-									
Career enablers	.24***	.06	.19***	.18***	.52***	.50***	-								
Career drivers	.36***	.10	.24***	.26***	.33***	.30***	.53***	-							
Career harmonisers	.29***	.04	.17***	.18***	.31***	.36***	.54***	.59***	-						



Table 6.7 cont'd

Variables	Harmonious passion	Obsessive passion	Obsessive passion	PS Overall scale	Career preferences	Career values	Career enablers	Career drivers	Career harmonisers	PCRI Overall scale	Career establishment preoccupations	Career adaptation preoccupations	Work-life adjustment preoccupations	PCPS Overall scale	CSS Overall scale
<b>PCRI Overall scale</b>	.35***	.10	.25***	.27***	.62	.59***	.83***	.79***	.82***	-					
Career establishment preoccupations	-.02	.06	-.06	.02	.07	.27***	.02	-.01	-.08	.02	-				
Career adaptation preoccupations	-.17***	.09	-.09	-.04	.10	.18***	.02	-.09	-.10	-.01	.66***	-			
Work-life adjustment preoccupations	.03	.08	-.04	.07	.03	.25***	-.01	0.01	-.03	.02	.73***	.60***	-		
<b>PCPS Overall scale</b>	-.05	.08	-.01	.01	.07	.27	.01	-.02	-.08	.01	.96***	.80***	.83***	-	
<b>CSS Overall scale</b>	.30***	0.01	.18***	.17***	.03	.05	.22***	.40***	.33***	.33***	-.21***	-.33***	-.10	-.24***	N/a

Notes: N = 550. \*\*\* $p \leq .001$  \*\* $p \leq .01$  \* $p \leq .05$

### 6.3.2.1 Bivariate correlations among the scale variables

As specified in Table 6.7, the results showed significant bivariate correlations between the three subscale dimensions of the PS, in the range of  $r \geq .35$  to  $\leq .73$  (moderate to large practical effect size;  $p \leq .05$ ). The three subscale dimensions of the PS also had significant and positive correlations with the overall construct of occupational passion ( $r \geq .79$  to  $\leq .82$ ; large practical effect;  $p \leq .001$ ), indicating the construct validity of the overall construct of occupational passion.

In terms of the PCRI, significant bivariate correlations were observed amongst the five subscales, which ranged from  $r \geq .31$  to  $\leq .59$  (moderate to large practical effect size;  $p \leq .05$ ). These values indicated construct validity between the five subscales of psychological career resources. In addition, the five subscales of the PCRI indicated significant and positive bivariate correlations with the overall construct of the PCRI ( $r \geq .59$ ;  $p < .001$ ; large practical effect), which suggest the construct validity for the construct of psychological career resources as a whole.

Significant bivariate correlations were also observed between the three subscales of the PCPS, with values ranging from  $r \geq .60$  to  $\leq .73$  (large practical effect;  $p < .05$ ). Furthermore, the three subscale dimensions of the PCPS also had significant and positive correlations with the overall PCPS construct  $r \geq .80$  to  $\leq .96$  (large practical effect;  $p < .001$ ), indicating construct validity for the construct of psychosocial career preoccupations as a whole.

As the CSS is a single-factor scale the bivariate correlations were not calculated.

In general, the results showed significant bivariate correlations among the variables on the PS scale, the PCRI scale, the PCPS scale and the CSS scale, with the values varying from moderate to large practical effect size.

#### 6.3.2.2 *Bivariate correlations between the four scale variables*

Bivariate correlations were conducted to determine the strength and direction of the relationship between the respective variables.

##### **a) Bivariate correlations between PS subscales and PCRI subscales**

As indicated in Table 6.7, the results for the harmonious passion subscale showed significant positive bivariate correlations with the four subscales of the PCRI, with career preferences ( $r = .18$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .01$ ), career values ( $r = .21$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .001$ ), career enablers ( $r = .24$ ; small practical effect  $p < .05$ ), career drivers ( $r = .36$ ; moderate practical effect;  $p < .001$ ), and career harmonisers ( $r = .29$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .001$ ) and with the overall PCRI scale ( $r = .35$ ; moderate practical effect;  $p < .001$ ). In the case of the obsessive passion subscale, the results indicated no significant bivariate correlations with the subscales or the overall scale of the PCRI. In terms of passion prevalence, significant positive bivariate correlations with the three subscales of the PCRI were observed, with career values ( $r = .19$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .001$ ), career enablers ( $r = .19$ ; small practical effect  $p < .05$ ), career drivers ( $r = .24$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .001$ ) and career harmonisers ( $r = .17$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .001$ ) and with the overall PCRI scale ( $r = .25$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .001$ ).

The results of the overall PS scale indicated significant positive bivariate correlations with the psychological career resources subscales of career preferences ( $r = .20$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .001$ ), career values ( $r = .18$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .01$ ), career enablers ( $r = .18$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .01$ ), career drivers ( $r = .26$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .01$ ), and career harmonisers ( $r = .18$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .01$ ), and the overall PCRI scale ( $r = .27$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .01$ ). Multi-collinearity concerns were not present as the  $r$ -values were below the required threshold value ( $r > .85$ ) (Cohen et al., 2013).

##### **b) Bivariate correlations between the PS subscales and the PCPS subscales**

In terms of the harmonious passion subscale, the results indicated significant negative bivariate correlations with the career adaptation preoccupations subscale ( $r = -.17$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .001$ ). However, no significant negative bivariate correlations were obtained

between the harmonious passion subscale and the PCPS overall scale. The results indicated no significant bivariate correlations between the obsessive passion and the passion prevalence subscales and the respective PCPS subscales. In addition, neither of these subscales were significantly correlated to the overall PCPS scale. Furthermore, the PS overall scale did not show any significant bivariate correlations with either the PCPS subscales or the overall scale. The  $r$ -values were below the threshold value ( $r > .85$ ) which negated multicollinearity concerns (Cohen et al., 2013).

**c) Bivariate correlations between the PS subscales and the CSS overall scale**

With regard to the harmonious passion subscale, significant positive bivariate correlations were obtained with the overall CSS ( $r = .30$ ; moderate practical effect;  $p < .01$ ). However, the bivariate correlations conducted between the obsessive passion subscale and the overall CSS scale yielded no significant bivariate correlations. The passion prevalence subscale indicated significant positive bivariate correlations with the CSS overall scale ( $r = .30$ ; moderate practical effect;  $p < .01$ ). Significant positive bivariate correlations were also found between the PS overall scale and the CSS overall scale ( $r = .17$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .01$ ). In terms of the bivariate correlations, the  $r$ -values were below the threshold value ( $r > .85$ ) which lowered multicollinearity concerns (Cohen et al., 2013).

**d) Bivariate correlations between the PCRI subscales and the PCPS subscale**

In terms of the career values subscale, significant positive bivariate correlations were observed for the career establishment preoccupations subscale ( $r = .27$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .01$ ), the career adaptation preoccupations subscale ( $r = .18$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .01$ ) and the work–life adjustment preoccupations subscale ( $r = .25$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .01$ ). However, the career values subscale did not show significant bivariate correlations with the overall PCPS scale. In terms of the other PCRI subscales (career preferences, career enablers, career drivers and career harmonisers), no significant bivariate correlations were obtained with the PCPS subscales or overall scale. In addition, the PCRI overall scale did not show any significant bivariate correlations with any of the PCPS subscales or overall scale. Multi-collinearity was not a concern as the  $r$ -values fell below the cut-off value ( $r > .85$ ) (Cohen et al., 2013).

**e) Bivariate correlations between the PCRI subscales and the CSS overall scale**

In the case of the career preferences and career values subscales no significant bivariate correlations with the overall CSS scale were obtained. However, the career enablers subscale ( $r = .22$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .01$ ), the career drivers subscale ( $r = .40$ ; moderate practical

effect;  $p < .01$ ) and the career harmonisers subscale ( $r = .33$ ; moderate practical effect;  $p < .01$ ) showed significant positive bivariate correlations with the CSS overall scale. The PCRI overall scale ( $r = .33$ ; moderate practical effect;  $p < .01$ ) also showed significant positive bivariate correlations with the CSS overall scale. Concerns regarding multi-collinearity were dismissed as all of the  $r$ -values fell below the threshold value ( $r > .85$ ) (Cohen et al., 2013).

#### **f) Bivariate correlations between the PCPS subscales and the CSS overall scale**

The career establishment preoccupations subscale ( $r = -.21$ ; small practical effect;  $p < .01$ ) showed significant negative bivariate correlations with the overall CSS scale. The bivariate correlations between the career adaptation preoccupations subscale ( $r = -.33$ ; moderate practical effect;  $p < .01$ ) and the overall CSS was significantly negative. However, no significant bivariate correlations were obtained between the work–life adjustment preoccupations subscale and the CSS overall scale. The bivariate correlations between the PCPS overall scale ( $r = -.33$ ; moderate practical effect;  $p < .01$ ) and the CSS overall scale were significantly negative. The  $r$ -values fell below the threshold value ( $r > .85$ ) which negated multi-collinearity concerns (Cohen et al., 2013).

#### **Preliminary analysis 1: Towards constructing a psychosocial model of career wellbeing**

The correlation results provided supportive evidence for research hypothesis H1. Overall, these results showed significant bivariate correlations between the subscales of the PS scale, the PCRI, the PCPS scale and the CSS scale, which were small, moderate and large in practical effect size. With regard to the career wellbeing profile this implies that certain relationship dynamics between the constructs were evident that warranted further examination.

In summary, the following core conclusions were drawn:

#### **Sociodemographic and independent, mediator and dependent variables**

- Race was negatively correlated with career adaptation preoccupations.
- In terms of age, significant negative correlations were observed with career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and the work–life adjustment preoccupations subscales. A significant negative relationship was also found between age and the PCPS overall scale. Conversely, positive correlations were found between age and the subscales of harmonious passion and passion prevalence.
- When considering job level, significant negative correlations were obtained for the subscales of harmonious passion, passion prevalence and the career drivers subscale.

In addition, significant negative bivariate correlations were identified between job level and the CSS overall scale.

- A significant negative relationship was identified between tenure and the career establishment preoccupations subscale, the career adaptation preoccupations subscale and the work–life adjustment preoccupations subscale respectively. In terms of tenure, a significant negative relationship was also found with the PCPS overall scale.
- The bivariate correlations were small to moderate to large in practical effect size.

### **Independent, mediator and dependent variables**

- Significant positive bivariate correlations were found between the subscales of harmonious passion, psychological career resources, and the subscales of career preferences, career values, career enablers, career drivers, and career harmonisers. Harmonious passion was also positively correlated with the PCRI overall scale. Passion prevalence was significantly and positively correlated with career values, career enablers, career drivers and career harmonisers as well as with the overall PCRI scale.
- The harmonious passion subscale was found to have significant negative bivariate correlations with the career adaptation preoccupations subscale, but did not correlate with any of the other PCPS subscales or the overall scale.
- Both the harmonious passion and passion prevalence subscales were significantly positively correlated with the overall CSS. Significant positive bivariate correlations were also established between the PS overall scale and the CSS overall scale.
- There were significant positive bivariate correlations between the career values subscale and the career establishment preoccupations subscale, the career adaptation preoccupations subscale and the work–life adjustment preoccupations subscale respectively.
- The career enablers subscale, the career drivers subscale and the career harmonisers subscale showed significant positive bivariate correlations with the CSS overall scale. The PCRI overall scale also showed significant positive bivariate correlations with the CSS overall scale.
- The career establishment preoccupations subscale indicated significant negative bivariate correlations with the overall CSS scale, whilst the bivariate correlations between the career adaptation preoccupations subscale and the overall CSS were significantly negative.
- The bivariate correlations were small to moderate in practical effect size.

## **6.4 INFERENCEAL (MULTIVARIATE) STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

Inferential statistics were used to draw conclusions from the population and were reported and interpreted in the following five stages:

Stage 1: Multilevel mediation modelling

Stage 2: Structural equation modelling

Stage 3: Stepwise multiple regression analysis

Stage 4: Hierarchical moderated regression analysis

Stage 5: Tests for significant mean differences

### **6.4.1 Multilevel mediation modelling**

Multilevel mediation was conducted in order to further investigate the dynamics of the manifested psychosocial career wellbeing profile. This step involved testing research hypothesis H2:

H2: Individuals' psychological career resources (career drivers, career harmonisers, career preferences and career values) and psychosocial career preoccupations (career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations) significantly mediate the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction

The SPSS (V.2.15) PROCESS procedure developed by Hayes (2013) was applied to perform the multilevel mediation modelling in order to determine the psychological career resources (career drivers, career harmonisers, career preferences and career values) and psychosocial career preoccupations (career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations) that significantly mediate the relationship between the independent variables (harmonious passion, obsessive passion and passion prevalence) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction).

In order to establish the mediational pathway from the dependent variables (occupational passion, harmonious passion, obsessive passion, passion prevalence) to the dependent variable (career satisfaction), four multilevel mediation models were tested. As the design of the research was cross-sectional and non-experimental in nature, causal inferences were not obtained from the data analysis (Aguinis, Edwards, & Bradley, 2016). The main outcome of this hypothesis was to establish the magnitude of the direct and indirect effects between the

research variables. In an attempt to eliminate the risk of multicollinearity between the main and interaction effects, all continuous variables were mean centred before the analysis was conducted (Cohen et al., 2013).

A parallel multiple mediation model for each of the four models (a model for each of the passion constructs) that were tested was developed by utilising the PROCESS procedure developed by Hayes (2013) for SPSS (release 2.15). The bootstrapping approach with 1000 bootstrapping samples was used. In each of the four models, three sets of indirect effects were estimated: the indirect effects obtained using the five psychological career resources dimensions as mediating variables, the indirect effects obtained using the three psychosocial career preoccupations dimensions as mediating (M) variables, and the parallel indirect effects obtained using both the five psychological career resources and three psychosocial career preoccupations (M) variables as a multiple set of variables. In each of the equations, the passion constructs functioned as the independent variables (X) and career satisfaction as the dependent variable (Y). Total, direct and indirect effects were examined in the mediation models. As advised by Hayes (2013), the significance of the direct and indirect effects was interpreted by implementing the more reliable bootstrapping bias-corrected 95% lower level (LLCI) and upper level (ULCI) confidence levels, which excluded zero. Partial mediation as the baseline model was hypothesised because of the presence of multiple mediators. Partial mediation occurs when the indirect effect  $\beta_{yx.m}$  does not drop to zero and when the mediation (indirect effect of X on Y) is still significant (Preacher & Kelley, 2011).

The next section reports on the multilevel mediation results for the four models.

**Model 1:** Tested (1) the pathway from harmonious passion to career satisfaction, (2) the indirect (mediating) effect of career preferences on the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction, (3) the indirect (mediating) effect of career values on the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction, (4) the indirect (mediating) effect of career enablers on the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction, (5) the indirect (mediating) effect of career drivers on the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction, (6) the indirect (mediating) effect of career harmonisers on the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction, (7) the indirect (mediating) effect of career establishment preoccupations on the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction, (8) the indirect (mediating) effect of career adaptation preoccupations on the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction and (9) the indirect (mediating) effect of work–life adjustment preoccupations on the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction.

**Model 2:** Tested (1) the pathway from obsessive passion to career satisfaction, (2) the indirect (mediating) effect of career preferences on the relationship between obsessive passion and career satisfaction, (3) the indirect (mediating) effect of career values on the relationship between obsessive passion and career satisfaction, (4) the indirect (mediating) effect of career enablers on the relationship between obsessive passion and career satisfaction, (5) the indirect (mediating) effect of career drivers on the relationship between obsessive passion and career satisfaction, (6) the indirect (mediating) effect of career harmonisers on the relationship between obsessive passion and career satisfaction, (7) the indirect (mediating) effect of career establishment preoccupations on the relationship between obsessive passion and career satisfaction, (8) the indirect (mediating) effect of career adaptation preoccupations on the relationship between obsessive passion and career satisfaction and (9) the indirect (mediating) effect of work–life adjustment preoccupations on the relationship between obsessive passion and career satisfaction.

**Model 3:** Tested (1) the pathway from passion prevalence to career satisfaction, (2) the indirect (mediating) effect of career preferences on the relationship between passion prevalence and career satisfaction, (3) the indirect (mediating) effect of career values on the relationship between passion prevalence and career satisfaction, (4) the indirect (mediating) effect of career enablers on the relationship between passion prevalence and career satisfaction, (5) the indirect (mediating) effect of career drivers on the relationship between passion prevalence and career satisfaction, (6) the indirect (mediating) effect of career harmonisers on the relationship between passion prevalence and career satisfaction, (7) the indirect (mediating) effect of career establishment preoccupations on the relationship between passion prevalence and career satisfaction, (8) the indirect (mediating) effect of career adaptation preoccupations on the relationship between passion prevalence and career satisfaction and (9) the indirect (mediating) effect of work–life adjustment preoccupations on the relationship between passion prevalence and career satisfaction.

**Model 4:** Tested (1) the pathway from overall occupational passion to career satisfaction, (2) the indirect (mediating) effect of career preferences on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction, (3) the indirect (mediating) effect of career values on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction, (4) the indirect (mediating) effect of career enablers on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction, (5) the indirect (mediating) effect of career drivers on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction, (6) the indirect (mediating) effect of career harmonisers on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction, (7) the indirect (mediating) effect of career establishment preoccupations on the relationship between

occupational passion and career satisfaction, (8) the indirect (mediating) effect of career adaptation preoccupations on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction and (9) the indirect (mediating) effect of work–life adjustment preoccupations on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction.

*6.4.1.1 Model 1: Effect of harmonious passion through psychological career resources and psychosocial preoccupations on career satisfaction*

Research hypothesis H2 assumed that the magnitude and strength of the effect of harmonious passion (independent variable) on career satisfaction (dependent variable) would be significantly mediated by the psychological career resource variables (consisting of career preferences, career values, career enablers, career drivers and career harmonisers) and the psychosocial career preoccupation variables (consisting of career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations).

Table 6.8 describes the direct and indirect effects of the independent variable on the dependent variable through the mediating variables.

Table 6.8

*Direct Effects: Harmonious Passion, Psychological Career Resources, Career Preoccupations and Career Satisfaction*

Variable	$\beta$	SE	t	p	Bootstrapping BC 95% CI	
					LLCI	ULCI
<b>Harmonious passion – psychological career resources</b>						
Career preferences	.16	.04	4.49	.000	.09	.24
<i>F<sub>p</sub> = 20.20*** R<sup>2</sup> = .04</i>						
Career values	.13	.03	5.05	.000	.08	.18
<i>F<sub>p</sub> = 25.53*** R<sup>2</sup> = .04</i>						
Career enablers	.17	.03	5.85	.000	.11	.22
<i>F<sub>p</sub> = 34.20*** R<sup>2</sup> = .06</i>						
Career drivers	.29	.03	9.08	.000	.23	.36
<i>F<sub>p</sub> = 82.37*** R<sup>2</sup> = .13</i>						
Career harmonisers	.21	.03	7.14	.000	.15	.27
<i>F<sub>p</sub> = 51.02*** R<sup>2</sup> = .09</i>						
<b>Harmonious passion – psychosocial career preoccupations</b>						
Career establishment preoccupations	-.03	.04	-.68	.49	-.11	.05
<i>F<sub>p</sub> = .46*** R<sup>2</sup> = .001</i>						



Table 6.8 Cont'd

Variable	$\beta$	SE	t	p	Bootstrapping BC	
					95% CI	
					LLCI	ULCI
Career adaptation preoccupations <i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 17.15*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .02	-.19	.04	-4.14	.000	-.27	-.10
Work–life adjustment preoccupations <i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = .86*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .002	.04	.04	.93	.35	-.04	.12
<b>Psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations - career satisfaction</b>						
<b>Psychological career resources – career satisfaction</b>						
Career preferences <i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 25.52*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29	-.09	.04	-2.18	.03	-.18	-.01
Career values <i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 25.52*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29	-.07	.07	-1.07	.29	-.20	.06
Career enablers <i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 34.20*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29	.11	.07	1.57	.12	-.03	.24
Career drivers <i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 25.52*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .13	.30	.05	5.66	.00	.19	.41
Career harmonisers <i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 25.52*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29	.12	.06	2.03	.04	.00	.24
<b>Psychosocial career preoccupations– career satisfaction</b>						
Career establishment preoccupations <i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 25.52*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29	-.10	.05	-1.95	.05***	-.20	.00
Career adaptation preoccupations <i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 25.52*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .02	-.24	.04	-5.44	.00	-.32	-.15
Work–life adjustment preoccupations <i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 25.52*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .002	.15	.05	2.91	.00	.05	.25

Notes: N = 550. \*\*\**p* ≤ .001 \*\**p* ≤ .01 \**p* ≤ .05 SE: standard error. BC: bias corrected. CI: confidence interval. Number of bootstrap samples = 1000

As can be seen in Table 6.8, high levels of harmonious passion have a positive relationship with career preferences ( $\beta = .16$ ; LLCI = .09; ULCI = .24;  $p = .000$ ), career values ( $\beta = .13$ ; LLCI = .08; ULCI = .18;  $p = .000$ ), career enablers ( $\beta = .17$ ; LLCI = .11; ULCI = .22;  $p = .000$ ), career drivers ( $\beta = .29$ ; LLCI = .23; ULCI = .36;  $p = .000$ ) and career harmonisers ( $\beta = .21$ ; LLCI = .15; ULCI = .27;  $p = .000$ ). The results also show that high levels of harmonious passion

have a negative relationship with career adaptation preoccupations ( $\beta = -.19$ ; LLCI =  $-.27$ ; ULCI =  $-.10$ ;  $p = .000$ ). This suggests that high levels of harmonious passion are likely to be associated with higher levels of career path preference clarity, well-formulated career outcomes and benchmarks and the successful utilisation of skills during career management. The results also indicate that high levels of harmonious passion are associated with higher levels of energy investment in career self-management and are associated with positive self-evaluations regarding self-esteem, adaptability and emotional literacy. The results also show that individuals with high levels of harmonious passion are likely to have lower levels of concern with adapting to the needs of the environment and upskilling themselves to remain employable.

Career preferences ( $\beta = -.09$ ; LLCI =  $-.18$ ; ULCI =  $-.01$ ;  $p = .03$ ; negative association), career drivers ( $\beta = .30$ ; LLCI =  $.19$ ; ULCI =  $.41$ ;  $p = .00$ ; positive association), career harmonisers ( $\beta = .12$ ; LLCI =  $.00$ ; ULCI =  $.24$ ;  $p = .04$ ; positive association) and career adaptation preoccupations ( $\beta = -.24$ ; LLCI =  $-.32$ ; ULCI =  $-.15$ ;  $p = .000$ ; negative association) relate to higher levels of career satisfaction. This means that the adaptability in clear career preferences in combination with career goal clarity and willingness to explore new career opportunities (career drivers), positive self-evaluations regarding self-esteem, adaptability, emotional literacy and social connectivity (career harmonisers), and low concerns about employability, upskilling and searching for new opportunities (career adaptation preoccupations) is related to higher career satisfaction.

Table 6.9 describes the total, direct and indirect effects of the independent variable on the dependent variable through the mediating variables.

Table 6.9

*Total, Direct and Indirect Links between Harmonious Passion and Career Satisfaction through Psychological Career Resources and Career Preoccupations*

Effect ( $\beta$ )	SE	t	p	Bootstrap 95% confidence interval (CI)	
				LLCI	ULCI
<b>Total effect: harmonious passion (X) on career satisfaction (Y)</b>					
.27	.04	7.39	.000	.19	.34
Fp = 54.66*** R <sup>2</sup> = .09					
<b>Direct effect: harmonious passion (X) on career satisfaction (Y)</b>					
.11	.04	3.02	.003	.04	.18
<b>Indirect effect of harmonious passion (X) on career satisfaction (Y) through the mediating variables (M)</b>					
Total					
.16	.03			.10	.22



Table 6.9 cont'd

Effect ( $\beta$ )	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Bootstrap 95% confidence interval (CI)	
				LLCI	ULCI
Career preferences					
-.02	.009			-.04	-.003
Career values					
-.01	.01			-.03	.01
Career enablers					
.02	.01			-.005	.05
Career drivers					
.09	.02			.05	.14
Career harmonisers					
.03	.01			.002	.06
Career establishment preoccupations					
.003	.01			-.004	.02
Career adaptation preoccupations					
.04	.01			.02	.08
Work–life adjustment preoccupations					
.006	.01			-.005	.02

Notes: LLCI: lower level confidence interval. ULCI: upper level confidence interval. SE: standard error.

Table 6.10 summarises the significant mediators for the link between harmonious passion and career satisfaction.

Table 6.10

*Significant Mediators for the Link between Harmonious Passion and Career Satisfaction*

Variable	$\beta$	SE	Bootstrapping BC 95% CI	
			LLCI	ULCI
<b>Ratio of the indirect to total effect of harmonious passion (X) on (Y)</b>				
Career preferences	-.06	.04	-.16	-.01
Career drivers	.33	.11	.18	.60
Career harmonisers	.10	.06	.01	.23
Career adaptation preoccupations	.16	.06	.08	.32

Notes: LLCI: lower level confidence interval. ULCI: upper level confidence interval. SE: standard error.

Partial mediation as the baseline model was hypothesised because of the presence of multiple mediators. Partial mediation occurs when the indirect effect  $\beta_{yx.m}$  does not drop to zero and when the mediation (indirect effect of X on Y) is still significant. Table 6.9 shows that the total effect ( $\beta_{yx} = .27$ ; LLCI = .19; ULCI = .34;  $p = .000$ ) was significant, and when adding the mediating variables whilst controlling for the independent variable (X: harmonious passion), the total effect was still significant even though reduced (although not to zero:  $\beta_{yx.m} = .16$ ;

LLCI = .10; ULCI = .22; relatively large practical magnitude with ratio of indirect to total effect of X on Y:  $\beta = .60$ ; LLCI = .38; ULCI = .97).

As indicated in Table 6.10, the following variables functioned as significant mediators for the link between harmonious passion and career satisfaction: career preferences ( $\beta = -.02$ ; LLCI = -.04; ULCI = -.003; ratio of indirect to total effect of X on Y:  $\beta = -.06$ ; LLCI = -.16; ULCI = -.01); career drivers ( $\beta = .09$ ; LLCI = .05; ULCI = .14; ratio of indirect to total effect of X on Y:  $\beta = .33$ ; LLCI = .18; ULCI = .60); career harmonisers ( $\beta = .03$ ; LLCI = .002; ULCI = .06; ratio of indirect to total effect of X on Y:  $\beta = .10$ ; LLCI = .01; ULCI = .23); and career adaptation preoccupations ( $\beta = .04$ ; LLCI = .02; ULCI = .08; ratio of indirect to total effect of X on Y:  $\beta = .16$ ; LLCI = .08; ULCI = .32).

#### 6.4.1.2 Model 2: Effect of obsessive passion through psychological career resources and psychosocial preoccupations on career satisfaction

Research hypothesis H2 assumed that the magnitude and strength of the effect of obsessive passion (independent variable) on career satisfaction (dependent variable) would be significantly mediated by the psychological career resource variables (consisting of career preferences, career values, career enablers, career drivers and career harmonisers) and the psychosocial career preoccupation variables (consisting of career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations).

Table 6.11 describes the direct effects of the independent variable on the dependent variable through the mediating variables.

Table 6.11

*Direct Effects: Obsessive Passion, Psychological Career Resources, Career Preoccupations and Career Satisfaction*

Variable	$\beta$	SE	t	p	Bootstrapping BC 95% CI	
					LLCI	ULCI
<b>Obsessive passion– psychological career resources</b>						
Career preferences	.11	.03	3.71	.00	.05	.17
<i>F<sub>p</sub> = 13.77*** R<sup>2</sup> = .02</i>						
Career values	.04	.02	1.87	.06	-.00	.08
<i>F<sub>p</sub> = 3.51*** R<sup>2</sup> = .01</i>						
Career enablers	.04	.02	1.53	.13	-.01	.08
<i>F<sub>p</sub> = 2.35*** R<sup>2</sup> = .004</i>						



Table 6.11 cont'd

Variable	$\beta$	SE	t	p	Bootstrapping BC	
					LLCI	ULCI
Career drivers	.07	.03	2.46	.01	.01	.12
<i>Fp</i> = 6.07*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .01						
Career harmonisers	.03	.02	1.08	.28	-.02	.08
<i>Fp</i> = 1.16*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .002						
<b>Obsessive passion– psychosocial career preoccupations</b>						
Career establishment preoccupations	.05	.03	1.46	.14	-.02	.12
<i>Fp</i> = .14*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .004						
Career adaptation preoccupations	.08	.04	2.17	.03	.08	.15
<i>Fp</i> = 4.73*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .009						
Work–life adjustment preoccupations	.07	.03	2.11	.04	.00	.13
<i>Fp</i> = 4.46*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .008						
<b>Psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations - career satisfaction</b>						
<b>Psychological career resources – career satisfaction</b>						
Career preferences	-.09	.04	-1.97	.05	-.18	-.00
<i>Fp</i> = 24.09*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29						
Career values	-.06	.07	-.84	.40	-.19	.08
<i>Fp</i> = 24.09*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29						
Career enablers	.11	.07	1.57	.12	-.03	.24
<i>Fp</i> = 24.09*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29						
Career drivers	.33	.05	6.28	.00	.23	.44
<i>Fp</i> = 24.09*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29						
Career harmonisers	.13	.06	2.19	.03	.01	.25
<i>Fp</i> = 24.09*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29						
<b>Psychosocial career preoccupations– career satisfaction</b>						
Career establishment preoccupations	-.10	.05	-1.92	.05	-.20	.00
<i>Fp</i> = 24.09*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29						



Table 6.11 cont'd

Variable	$\beta$	SE	t	p	Bootstrapping BC 95% CI	
					LLCI	ULCI
Career adaptation	-.26	.04	-6.19	.00	-.35	-.18
<i>F</i> <sub>p</sub> = 24.09*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29						
Work–life adjustment preoccupations	.17	.05	3.29	.00	.07	.27
<i>F</i> <sub>p</sub> = 24.09*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29						

Notes: N = 550. \*\*\* $p \leq .001$  \*\* $p \leq .01$  \* $p \leq .05$  SE: standard error. BC: bias corrected. CI: confidence interval. Number of bootstrap samples = 1000.

As can be seen from Table 6.11, high levels of obsessive passion have a positive relationship with career preferences ( $\beta = .11$ ; LLCI = .05; ULCI = .17;  $p = .000$ ) and career drivers ( $\beta = .07$ ; LLCI = .01; ULCI = .12;  $p = .01$ ). The results also show that high levels of obsessive passion have a positive relationship with career adaptation preoccupations ( $\beta = .08$ ; LLCI = .08; ULCI = .15;  $p = .03$ ) and work–life adjustment preoccupations ( $\beta = .07$ ; LLCI = .00; ULCI = .13;  $p = .06$ ). This indicates that high levels of obsessive passion are related to higher levels of career path preference clarity, the investment of energy and drive toward achieving certain career outcomes, high levels of adaptation concerns and work–life adjustment concerns.

Career preferences ( $\beta = -.09$ ; LLCI = -.18; ULCI = -.00;  $p = .03$ ; negative association), career drivers ( $\beta = .33$ ; LLCI = .23; ULCI = .44;  $p = .00$ ; positive association), career harmonisers ( $\beta = .13$ ; LLCI = .01; ULCI = .23;  $p = .03$ ; positive association), career adaptation preoccupations ( $\beta = -.26$ ; LLCI = -.35; ULCI = -.18;  $p = .000$ ; negative association) and work–life adjustment preoccupations ( $\beta = .17$ ; LLCI = .07; ULCI = .27;  $p = .03$ ; positive association) relate to higher levels of career satisfaction. This implies that individuals with greater levels of career path clarity and high levels of career adaptation concerns would experience lower levels of career satisfaction. Whilst individuals who are able to invest their energy and motivation into achieving their career outcomes and utilise their self-esteem and emotional literacy to balance the utilisation of their career drivers would experience greater career satisfaction. The results imply that individuals who have greater concern with achieving balance between their work and personal lives would experience greater career satisfaction.

Table 6.12 describes the total, direct and indirect effects of the independent variable on the dependent variable through the mediating variables.

Table 6.12

*Total, Direct and Indirect Links between Obsessive Passion and Career Satisfaction through Psychological Career Resources and Career Preoccupations*

Effect ( $\beta$ )	SE	t	p	Bootstrap 95% confidence interval (CI)	
				LLCI	ULCI
<b>Total effect: obsessive passion (X) on career satisfaction (Y)</b>					
.01	.03	.28	.78	-.05	.06
Fp = .07					
R <sup>2</sup> = .000					
<b>Direct effect: obsessive passion (X) on career satisfaction (Y)</b>					
.00	.02	.17	.86	-.05	.16
<b>Indirect effect of obsessive passion (X) on career satisfaction (Y) through the mediating variables (M)</b>					
Total					
.003	.02			-.03	.04
Career preferences					
-.01	.006			-.02	-.001
Career values					
-.002	.003			-.01	.001
Career enablers					
.003	.004			-.001	.02
Career drivers					
.02	.01			.003	.04
Career harmonisers					
.004	.004			-.002	.02
Career establishment preoccupations					
-.01	.02			-.02	.001
Career adaptation preoccupations					
-.02	.01			-.05	-.002
Work–life adjustment preoccupations					
.01	.01			.001	.03

Notes: LLCI: lower level confidence interval. ULCI: upper level confidence interval. SE: standard error.

Table 6.12 indicates that the total direct and total indirect effect of obsessive passion on career satisfaction were not significant. Also, the indirect effect of obsessive passion on career satisfaction through the mediating variables was not significant. Partial mediation did not occur as the mediation (total indirect effect of X on Y) was not significant. However, partial mediation was evident as follows: obsessive passion had a significant indirect effect on career satisfaction through career preferences ( $\beta = -.01$ ; LLCI =  $-.03$ ; ULCI =  $.04$ ; negative effect), career drivers ( $\beta = .02$ ; LLCI =  $.003$ ; ULCI =  $.04$ ; positive effect), career adaptation preoccupations ( $\beta = -.02$ ; LLCI =  $-.05$ ; ULCI =  $-.002$ ; negative effect) and and work–life adjustment preoccupations ( $\beta = .01$ ; LLCI =  $.001$ ; ULCI =  $.03$ ; positive effect).

6.4.1.3 Model 3: Effect of passion prevalence through psychological career resources and psychosocial preoccupations on career satisfaction

Research hypothesis H2 assumed that the magnitude and strength of the effect of passion prevalence (independent variable) on career satisfaction (dependent variable) would be significantly mediated by the psychological career resource variables (consisting of career preferences, career values, career enablers, career drivers and career harmonisers) and the psychosocial career preoccupation variables (consisting of career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations).

Table 6.13 describes the direct effects of the independent variable on the dependent variable through the mediating variables.

Table 6.13

*Direct Effects: Passion Prevalence, Psychological Career Resources, Career Preoccupations and Career Satisfaction*

Variable	$\beta$	SE	t	p	Bootstrapping BC	
					LLCI	ULCI
<b>Passion prevalence – psychological career resources</b>						
Career preferences	.11	.03	3.50	.00	.05	.18
<i>F<sub>p</sub> = 12.23***</i>						
<i>R<sup>2</sup> = .02</i>						
Career values	.10	.02	4.61	.00	.6	.14
<i>F<sub>p</sub> = 21.28***</i>						
<i>R<sup>2</sup> = .04</i>						
Career enablers	.12	.03	4.71	.00	.07	.17
<i>F<sub>p</sub> = 22.19***</i>						
<i>R<sup>2</sup> = .04</i>						
Career drivers	.17	.03	5.95	.00	.12	.23
<i>F<sub>p</sub> = 35.39***</i>						
<i>R<sup>2</sup> = .06</i>						
Career harmonisers	.11	.03	4.27	.00	.06	.17
<i>F<sub>p</sub> = 18.24***</i>						
<i>R<sup>2</sup> = .03</i>						
<b>Passion prevalence – psychosocial career preoccupations</b>						
Career establishment preoccupations	-.01	.04	-.15	.88	-.08	.07
<i>F<sub>p</sub> = .02***</i>						
<i>R<sup>2</sup> = .00</i>						
Career adaptation	-.09	.04	-2.28	.02	-.17	-.01
<i>F<sub>p</sub> = 5.19***</i>						
<i>R<sup>2</sup> = .01</i>						
Work–life adjustment Preoccupations	.04	.04	1.01	.31	-.03	.11
<i>F<sub>p</sub> = 1.02***</i>						
<i>R<sup>2</sup> = .001</i>						



Table 6.13 cont'd

Variable	$\beta$	SE	t	p	Bootstrapping BC	
					95% CI	
					LLCI	ULCI
<b>Psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations - career satisfaction</b>						
<b>Psychological career resources – career satisfaction</b>						
Career preferences	.09	.04	-2.03	.04	-.18	-.00
<i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 24.54*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29						
Career values	-.07	.07	-.99	.32	-.20	.07
<i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 24.54*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29						
Career enablers	.10	.07	1.51	.13	-.03	.23
<i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 24.54*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29						
Career drivers	.32	.05	6.07	.00	.22	.43
<i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 24.54*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29						
Career harmonisers	.13	.06	2.21	.03	.01	.25
<i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 24.54*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29						
<b>Psychosocial career preoccupations– career satisfaction</b>						
Career establishment preoccupations	-.10	.05	-1.19	.06	-.20	.00
<i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 24.54*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29						
Career adaptation preoccupations	-.25	.04	-5.94	.00	-.34	-.17
<i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 24.54*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29						
Work–life adjustment Preoccupations	.16	.05	3.15	.00	.06	.26
<i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 24.54*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29						

Notes: N = 550. \*\*\* $p \leq .001$  \*\* $p \leq .01$  \* $p \leq .05$  SE: standard error. BC: bias corrected. CI: confidence interval. Number of bootstrap samples = 1000.

Table 6.13 indicates that high levels of passion prevalence have a positive relationship with career preferences ( $\beta = .11$ ; LLCI = .05; ULCI = .18;  $p = .000$ ), career values ( $\beta = .10$ ; LLCI = .06; ULCI = .14;  $p = .000$ ), career enablers ( $\beta = .12$ ; LLCI = .07; ULCI = .17;  $p = .000$ ), career drivers ( $\beta = .17$ ; LLCI = .12; ULCI = .23;  $p = .000$ ) and career harmonisers ( $\beta = .11$ ; LLCI = .06; ULCI = .17;  $p = .000$ ). This implies that high levels of passion prevalence are likely to be related to well-specified career preferences, clear career goals and outcomes, the successful utilisation of skills to achieve career objectives, the investment of energy in the achievement of career outcomes and positive self-evaluations regarding self-esteem, adaptability and emotional literacy.

The results also suggest that high levels of passion prevalence have a negative relationship with career adaptation preoccupations ( $\beta = -.19$ ; LLCI =  $-.27$ ; ULCI =  $-.10$ ;  $p = .000$ ). This means that individuals who have passion for their work are likely to be less concerned with upskilling and looking for alternative employment opportunities as part of their employability needs.

Career drivers ( $\beta = .32$ ; LLCI =  $.22$ ; ULCI =  $.43$ ;  $p = .000$ ; positive association), career harmonisers ( $\beta = .13$ ; LLCI =  $.01$ ; ULCI =  $.25$ ;  $p = .04$ ; positive association), career adaptation preoccupations ( $\beta = -.25$ ; LLCI =  $-.34$ ; ULCI =  $-.17$ ;  $p = .000$ ; negative association) and work–life adjustment preoccupations ( $\beta = .16$ ; LLCI =  $.06$ ; ULCI =  $.26$ ;  $p = .000$ ; positive association) relate to higher levels of career satisfaction. This means that the willingness to explore new career opportunities (career drivers), positive self-evaluations regarding self-esteem, adaptability, emotional literacy and social connectivity (career harmonisers), low concerns about employability, upskilling and searching for new opportunities (career adaptation preoccupations) and high concerns relating to achieving greater balance between the demands of work and life (work–life adjustment preoccupations) is related to higher career satisfaction.

Table 6.14 describes the total, direct and indirect effects of the independent variable on the dependent variable through the mediating variables.

Table 6.14

*Total, Direct and Indirect Links between Passion Prevalence and Career Satisfaction through Psychological Career Resources and Career Preoccupations*

Effect ( $\beta$ )	SE	t	p	Bootstrap 95% confidence interval (CI)	
				LLCI	ULCI
<b>Total effect: passion prevalence (X) on career satisfaction (Y)</b>					
.15	.03	4.50	.000	.08	.20
$F_p = 20.12^{***}$					
$R^2 = .04$					
<b>Direct effect: passion prevalence (X) on career satisfaction (Y)</b>					
.05	.03	1.68	.10	-.01	.10
<b>Indirect effect of passion prevalence (X) on career satisfaction (Y) through the mediating variables (M)</b>					
Total					
.10	.02			.05	.14
Career preferences					
-.01	.01			-.03	-.001
Career values					
-.01	.01			-.02	.01



Table 6.14 con't

Effect ( $\beta$ )	SE	t	p	Bootstrap 95% confidence interval (CI)	
				LLCI	ULCI
Career enablers					
.01	.01			-.002	.03
Career drivers					
.06	.02			.03	.09
Career harmonisers					
.02	.01			.001	.04
Career establishment preoccupations					
.000	.003			-.01	.01
Career adaptation preoccupations					
.02	.01			.01	.05
Work-life adjustment preoccupations					
.01	.01			-.002	.02

Notes: LLCI: lower level confidence interval. ULCI: upper level confidence interval. SE: standard error.

Table 6.15 summarises the ratio of the indirect to total effect of passion prevalence on career satisfaction.

Table 6.15

*Ratio of the Indirect to Total Effect of Passion Prevalence on Career Satisfaction*

Variable	$\beta$	SE	Bootstrapping BC 95% CI	
			LLCI	ULCI
<b>Ratio of the indirect to total effect of passion prevalence (X) on career satisfaction (Y)</b>				
Total	.66	.33	.34	1.38
Career preferences	-.07	.06	-.25	-.01
Career drivers	.39	.23	.17	.87
Career harmonisers	.10	.08	.01	.32
Career adaptation preoccupations	.15	.08	.04	.39

Notes: LLCI: lower level confidence interval. ULCI: upper level confidence interval. SE: standard error.

As a result of the existence of multiple mediators, partial mediation as the baseline model was hypothesised. As indicated in Table 6.14, partial mediation takes place when the indirect effect ( $\beta_{yx.m}$ ) does not reduce to zero and when the mediation (indirect effect of X on Y) is still significant. Tables 6.14 and 6.15 show that the total effect ( $\beta_{yx} = .15$ ; LLCI = .08; ULCI = .20;  $p = .02$ ) was significant, and when adding the mediating variables whilst controlling for the independent variable (X: passion prevalence), the total effect was still significant but reduced (although not to zero:  $\beta_{yx.m} = .10$ ; LLCI = .05; ULCI = .14; relatively large practical magnitude with ratio of indirect to total effect of X on Y:  $\beta = .46$ ; LLCI = -2.71; ULCI = 15.11).

As indicated in Tables 6.14 and 6.15, the following variables functioned as significant mediators for the link between passion prevalence and career satisfaction: career preferences ( $\beta = -.01$ ; LLCI = .03; ULCI = -.001; ratio of indirect to total effect of X on Y:  $\beta = -.07$ ; LLCI = -.25; ULCI = -.01); career drivers ( $\beta = .06$ ; LLCI = .03; ULCI = .09; ratio of indirect to total effect of X on Y:  $\beta = .39$ ; LLCI = .17; ULCI = .87); career harmonisers ( $\beta = .02$ ; LLCI = .001; ULCI = .04; ratio of indirect to total effect of X on Y:  $\beta = .10$ ; LLCI = .01; ULCI = .32); and career adaptation preoccupations ( $\beta = .02$ ; LLCI = .01; ULCI = .05; ratio of indirect to total effect of X on Y:  $\beta = .15$ ; LLCI = .04; ULCI = .39).

#### 6.4.1.4 Model 4: Effect of overall occupational passion through psychological career resources and psychosocial preoccupations on career satisfaction

Research hypothesis H2 assumed that the magnitude and strength of the effect of occupational passion (independent variable) on career satisfaction (dependent variable) would be significantly mediated by the psychological career resource variables (consisting of career preferences, career values, career enablers, career drivers and career harmonisers) and the psychosocial career preoccupation variables (consisting of career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations).

Table 6.16 describes the direct effects of the independent variable on the dependent variable through the mediating variables.

Table 6.16

*Direct Effects: Occupational Passion, Psychological Career Resources, Career Preoccupations and Career Satisfaction*

Variable	$\beta$	SE	t	p	Bootstrapping BC 95% CI	
					LLCI	ULCI
<b>Occupational passion – psychological career resources</b>						
Career preferences <i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 23.19*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .04	.19	.04	4.81	.00	.11	.27
Career values <i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 18.97*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .03	.12	.03	4.36	.00	.06	.17
Career enablers <i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 20.02*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .04	.14	.03	4.47	.00	.08	.20
Career drivers <i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 42.45*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .07	.23	.07	6.52	.00	.16	.31
Career harmonisers <i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 20.37*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .04	.15	.03	4.51	.00	.08	.21



Table 6.16 cont'd

Variable	$\beta$	SE	t	p	Bootstrapping BC	
					95% CI	
					LLCI	ULCI
<b>Occupational passion – psychosocial career preoccupations</b>						
Career establishment preoccupations <i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = .25*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .00	.02	.05	.49	.62	-.07	.11
Career adaptation <i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 1.09*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .00	-.05	.05	-1.04	.29	-.15	.05
Work–life adjustment Preoccupations <i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 3.28*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .01	.08	.04	1.81	.07	-.01	.17
<b>Psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations - career satisfaction</b>						
<b>Psychological career resources – career satisfaction</b>						
Career preferences <i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 24.53*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29	-.09	.04	-2.14	.03	-.18	-.01
Career values <i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 24.53*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29	-.06	.07	-.93	.35	-.19	.07
Career enablers <i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 24.53*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29	.11	.07	1.59	.11	-.03	.24
Career drivers <i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 24.53*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29	.32	.05	6.00	.00	.21	.42
Career harmonisers <i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 24.53*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29	.13	.06	2.19	.03	.01	.25
<b>Psychosocial career preoccupations– career satisfaction</b>						
Career establishment preoccupations <i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 24.53*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29	-.09	.05	-1.89	.06	-.20	.00
Career adaptation preoccupations <i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 24.53*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29	-.26	.04	-6.04	.00	-.34	-.17
Work–life adjustment Preoccupations <i>F<sub>p</sub></i> = 24.53*** <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> = .29	.16	.05	3.13	.00	.06	.26

Notes: N = 550. \*\*\* $p \leq .001$  \*\* $p \leq .01$  \* $p \leq .05$  SE: standard error. BC: bias corrected. CI: confidence interval. Number of bootstrap samples = 1000.

Table 6.16 indicates that high levels of overall occupational passion have a positive relationship with career preferences ( $\beta = .19$ ; LLCI = .11; ULCI = .27;  $p = .000$ ), career values ( $\beta = .12$ ; LLCI = .06; ULCI = .17;  $p = .000$ ), career enablers ( $\beta = .14$ ; LLCI = .08; ULCI = .12;  $p = .000$ ), career drivers ( $\beta = .23$ ; LLCI = .16; ULCI = .31;  $p = .000$ ) and career harmonisers ( $\beta = .15$ ; LLCI = .08; ULCI = .21;  $p = .000$ ). This suggests that high levels of overall occupational passion are likely to be associated with enhanced clarity in career preferences, well-formulated career goals, the successful utilisation of skills and knowledge to ensure career progress, the use of energy and drive in order to achieve career outcomes and greater understanding of emotions and the self, and enhanced self-esteem.

Career preferences ( $\beta = -.09$ ; LLCI = -.18; ULCI = -.01;  $p = .03$ ; negative association), career drivers ( $\beta = .32$ ; LLCI = .21; ULCI = .42;  $p = .00$ ; positive association), career harmonisers ( $\beta = .13$ ; LLCI = .01; ULCI = .25;  $p = .03$ ; positive association), career adaptation preoccupations ( $\beta = -.26$ ; LLCI = -.34; ULCI = -.17;  $p = .000$ ; negative association) and work–life adjustment preoccupations ( $\beta = .16$ ; LLCI = .06; ULCI = .26;  $p = .00$ ; positive association) relate to higher levels of career satisfaction. This suggests that individuals who have flexibility in choosing their career paths, invest energy in the attainment of their career outcomes, have well-developed emotional literacy and social connectivity, low levels of concern about employability, upskilling and searching for new opportunities (career adaptation preoccupations) and high levels of concern about creating better balance between work and life commitments (work–life adjustment preoccupations) are likely to also experience greater career satisfaction.

Table 6.17 describes the total, direct and indirect effects of the independent variable on the dependent variable through the mediating variables.

Table 6.17

*Total, Direct and Indirect Links between Occupational Passion and Career Satisfaction through Psychological Career Resources and Career Preoccupations*

Effect ( $\beta$ )	SE	t	p	Bootstrap 95% confidence interval (CI)	
				LLCI	ULCI
<b>Occupational passion – career satisfaction</b>					
<b>Total effect: Occupational passion on career satisfaction</b>					
Total effect					
.17	.04	4.21	.00	.09	.25
<b>Direct effect: Occupational passion on career satisfaction</b>					
Direct effect					
.06	.04	1.68	.09	-.01	.13



Table 6.17 con't

Effect ( $\beta$ )	SE	t	p	Bootstrap 95% confidence interval (CI)	
				LLCI	ULCI
<b>Indirect effect of occupational passion (X) on career satisfaction (Y) through the mediating variables (M)</b>					
Total					
.11	.03			.05	.16
Career preferences					
-.02	.009			-.04	-.001
Career values					
-.01	.01			-.03	.01
Career enablers					
.01	.01			-.002	.04
Career drivers					
.07	.01			.04	.12
Career harmonisers					
.02	.01			.002	.05
Career establishment preoccupations					
-.003	.01			-.02	.01
Career adaptation preoccupations					
.01	.01			-.01	.04
Work–life adjustment preoccupations					
.01	.01			.000	.04

Notes: LLCI: lower level confidence interval. ULCI: upper level confidence interval. SE: standard error.

Table 6.18 summarises the significant mediators for the link between overall occupational passion and career satisfaction.

Table 6.18

*Ratio of the Indirect to Total Effect of Overall Occupational Passion on Career Satisfaction*

Variable	B	SE	Bootstrapping BC 95% CI	
			LLCI	ULCI
<b>Ratio of the indirect to total effect of overall occupational passion (X) on career satisfaction (Y)</b>				
Total	.64	.57	.28	1.28
Career preferences	-.11	.09	-.34	-.01
Career drivers	.44	.31	.21	1.03
Career harmonisers	.11	.18	.01	.33
Work–life adjustment preoccupations	.08	.11	-.000	.32

Notes: LLCI: lower level confidence interval. ULCI: upper level confidence interval. SE: standard error.

As summarised in Tables 6.17 and 6.18, the following variables functioned as significant mediators for the link between occupational passion and career satisfaction: career preferences ( $\beta = -.02$ ; LLCI =  $-.04$ ; ULCI =  $-.001$ ; ratio of indirect to total effect of X on Y:  $\beta = -.11$ ; LLCI =  $-.34$ ; ULCI =  $-.01$ ); career drivers ( $\beta = .07$ ; LLCI =  $.04$ ; ULCI =  $.12$ ; ratio of indirect to total effect of X on Y:  $\beta = .44$ ; LLCI =  $.21$ ; ULCI =  $1.03$ ), career harmonisers ( $\beta = .02$ ; LLCI =  $.002$ ; ULCI =  $.05$ ; ratio of indirect to total effect of X on Y:  $\beta = .11$ ; LLCI =  $.01$ ; ULCI =  $.33$ ); and work–life adjustment preoccupations ( $\beta = .01$ ; LLCI =  $.000$ ; ULCI =  $.04$ ; ratio of indirect to total effect of X on Y:  $\beta = .08$ ; LLCI =  $-.000$ ; ULCI =  $.32$ ).

### **Preliminary analysis 2: Towards constructing a psychosocial model of career wellbeing**

In summary, the empirical results obtained from the multilevel mediation modelling provided supportive evidence for accepting research hypothesis H2.

The first mediation model tested the effect of harmonious passion through psychological career resources and psychosocial preoccupations on career satisfaction. The results revealed that career drivers, career harmonisers and career adaptation preoccupations would have a significant positive effect on the relationship dynamics between harmonious passion and career satisfaction. This means that individuals who invest their energy, motivation and drive in achieving their career outcomes, utilise their intrinsic resources (i.e. self-esteem, behavioural adaptability, emotional literacy and social connectivity) to keep their career drivers in balance and show proactive and adaptive behaviour in terms of satisfying their employability concerns exert important psychosocial resources. These resources strengthen the link between individuals' harmonious passion and career satisfaction which may contribute to their overall career wellbeing.

The second mediation model tested the effect of obsessive passion through psychological career resources and psychosocial preoccupations on career satisfaction. The results from the multilevel mediation modelling revealed that obsessive passion had a significant indirect effect on career satisfaction through career preferences (negative effect), career drivers (positive effect) and career adaptation preoccupations (negative effect). The link between obsessive passion and career satisfaction may only be strong when individuals have low career adaptation needs (i.e. low needs for upskilling/employability), no clear/strong career preferences and a strong drive to achieve career outcomes in the organisation.

Obsessive passion toward work (the controlled internalisation of work-related activities into an individual's self concept) causes individuals to be less adaptable, focus their attention on only developing the activities that they are passionate about and invest their energy in only the activities that they are passionate about (Vallerand, 2015). The link between obsessive

passion and career satisfaction is mediated through low concerns about being flexible in adapting their career preferences and investing their energy and drive to achieve a wide variety of career outcomes.

The third mediation model tested the effect of passion prevalence through psychological career resources and psychosocial preoccupations on career satisfaction. The results revealed that lack of clear career preferences (i.e. flexible preferences), career drivers, career harmonisers and career adaptation preoccupations had a significant positive effect on the relationship between passion prevalence and career satisfaction. Similar to harmonious passion, the link between intrinsic presence of passion and high levels of career satisfaction is stronger when individuals are not fixed on a career preference (i.e. they are adaptable), have clear career plans and drive to achieve these, and intrinsic resources (i.e. self-esteem, behavioural adaptability, emotional literacy and social connectivity) and high need to upskill and stay employable (i.e. high career adaptation concerns).

The fourth model tested the effect of overall occupational passion through psychological career resources and psychosocial preoccupations on career satisfaction. The results revealed that the lack of clear career preferences, and strong career drivers, career harmonisers, and work–life adjustment preoccupations had a significant positive effect on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction. The link between overall occupational passion and high levels of career satisfaction is stronger when individuals are not fixed on a career preference (i.e. they are adaptable), have clear career plans and drive to achieve these, and intrinsic resources (i.e. self-esteem, behavioural adaptability, emotional literacy and social connectivity) and high need to achieve work–life balance.

The results obtained from the multilevel mediation modelling were used in constructing a career wellbeing profile. It was observed that career preferences had a significant negative mediating effect on the relationship dynamics between the dependent and independent variables across the four models. It was thus implied that the lack of clear career preferences strengthened the positive link between each of the occupational passion constructs and career satisfaction.

It was also observed that career drivers had a significant positive mediating effect across three of the four models on the relationship dynamics between the dependent and independent variables. The strong drive to achieve career goals (career drivers) strengthened the link between occupational passion and career satisfaction. Career harmonisers and career adaptation preoccupations mediate the relationship dynamics between the dependent and independent variables across two of the four models.

In effect, when considering career wellbeing, career management practices must consider occupational passion (harmonious passion and passion prevalence) as antecedents (intrinsic motivational attributes) of career satisfaction through the development of important psychosocial resources such as flexible career preferences, strong career plans and actions to achieve career goals, career harmonisers (i.e. self-esteem, emotional literacy and social connectivity) and strong needs to be upskilled and remain employability (career adaptation preoccupations).

Drawing from the dualistic model of passion (Vallerand & Houliort, 2003), the final hypothesised empirical model analysed the dual types of passion, namely, harmonious passion and obsessive passion, and constructed two mediation models to ascertain which model fitted the data the best. These two models are discussed in the next section.

#### **6.4.2 Structural equation modelling (SEM)**

SAS version 9.4 (SAS, 2013) software was implemented to perform structural equation modelling (SEM) to test research hypothesis H3:

Based on the overall statistical relationships between the independent variable (occupational passion) and dependent variable (career satisfaction), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) that there is a good fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model.

The final hypothesised mediation model was tested using SEM. The first model included all three of the passion constructs (harmonious passion, obsessive passion and passion prevalence) and the four common significant mediators: career preferences, career drivers, career harmonisers and career adaptation preoccupations. Table 6.19 indicates a good fit to the data for the model. This was indicated by a high CFI, high NNI and satisfactory RMSEA and SRMR fit statistics with a chi-square of 35.67 (10 df); CMIN/df = 3.57;  $p = <.0001$ ; RMSEA = .09; SRMR = .04; CFI = .98; NNI = .94; AIC = 87.67).

The second SEM model included harmonious passion as the independent variable and career satisfaction as the dependent variable, and the significant mediating variables shown in the multilevel mediation modelling results: career preferences, career drivers, career harmonisers and career adaptation preoccupations. Table 6.19 indicates a good fit to the data for the model. This was indicated by a high CFI, high NNI and satisfactory RMSEA and SRMR fit statistics with a chi-square of 13.96 (5 df); CMIN/df = 2.79;  $p = .000$ ; RMSEA = .09; SRMR = .02; CFI = .99; NNI = .96; AIC = 45.95).

Table 6.19 provides the goodness-of-fit statistics for the two models that were tested.

Table 6.19

*Model Fit Statistics: Comparison between Models*

Model	Chi-square	df	<i>p</i>	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	NNI	AIC
1	35.67	10	<.0001	.09	.04	.98	.94	87.67
2	13.95	5	.000	.09	.02	.99	.96	45.95

Notes: N = 550

Both SEM models obtained a good fit with the data. The AIC values of the two SEM models were compared and a test for assessing whether the chi-squares of the two SEM models differed significantly was performed.

As indicated by Table 6.20, model 2 had both a lower AIC value (45.95) and a lower chi-square value (13.95) than model 1 (AIC: 35.67; chi-square: 35.67).

Table 6.20

*Chi-square Comparisons*

	Model 1	Model 2	Diff	<i>p</i> -value
Chi-square	35.67	13.95	21.72	.001
Df	10	5	5	
AIC	87.67	45.95		
CAIC	225.73	130.91		
BIC	199.73	114.91		

Notes: N = 550

The process of choosing the best structural model for the career wellbeing profile included testing whether the two models were nested within one another. As the model fit statistics were relatively similar for both of the models it was established that the models were nested within one another. Steiger, Shapiro, and Browne (1985) advise that chi-square comparisons should be conducted because the chi-square test statistics are asymptotically independent of the test statistics. Furthermore, chi-square values reflect the extent to which the observed and the predicted covariance differ from each other, hence the smaller value of chi-square would reflect small differences between the covariance. Chi-square comparisons thus allow the researcher to identify the best fit model.

Schermelleh-Engel et al. (2003) state that when comparing different SEM models to each other by means of chi-square comparisons, the smaller model fits the data better as it has more freely estimated parameters. As indicated by Table 6.20, model 2 (chi-square: 13.95) fit the

data better than model 1 (chi-square: 35.67) as the chi-square value of model 2 was significantly smaller than that of model 1. Furthermore, the AIC value (45.95) for model 2 is greater than that of model 1 (35.67), which indicates a better fit to the statistics than model 1. Model 2 was thus accepted as the structural model with the optimal fit.

When the structural model with the optimal fit had been specified, standardised path coefficients were assessed in order to establish the convergent validity for the factor structure of the model. As advised by Kline (2005), standardised path coefficients are perceived as being significant at .30 or more as this would suggest that a specific variable contributes sufficiently to the construct that it is supposed to measure.

Table 6.21 provides a summary of the outcome of the standardised path coefficients for the optimal fit structural equation model (SEM model 2).

Table 6.21

*Standardised Path Coefficients for the Final Hypothesised Structural Equation Model*

Manifested variable	Latent variable	B	Standard error	t-value
Psychological career resources	Career preferences	.39	.04	9.69
Psychological career resources	Career drivers	.85	.03	27.81
Psychological career resources	Career harmonisers	.71	.03	21.96
Harmonious passion	Career satisfaction	.09	.04	2.04
Harmonious passion	Psychological career resources	.42	.04	10.36
Harmonious passion	Career adaptation preoccupations	-.17	.04	-4.34
Psychological career resources	Career satisfaction	.39	.04	8.79
Career adaptation preoccupations	Career satisfaction	-.28	.04	-7.76

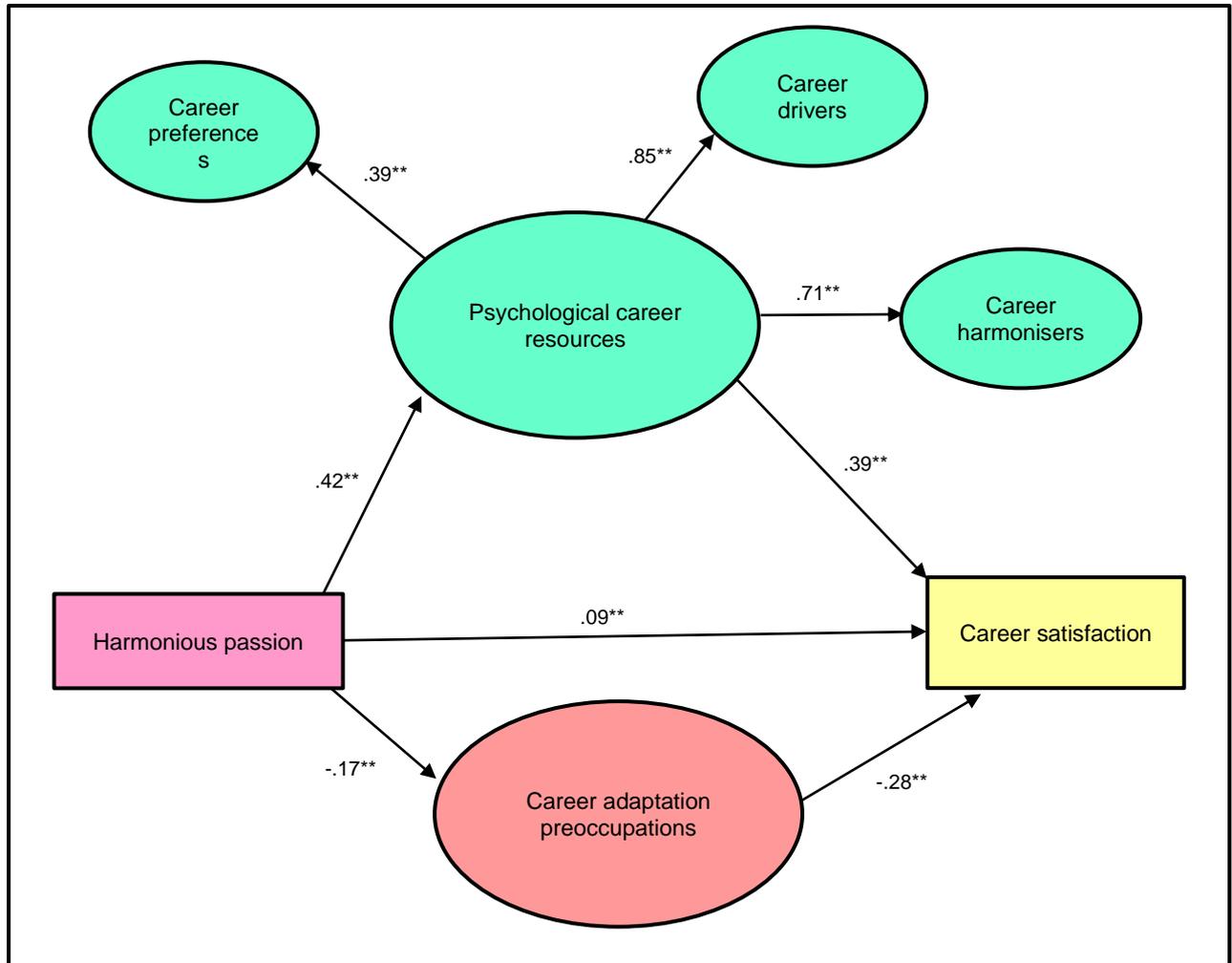
Notes: N = 550. t-values > 2.56 ( $p \leq .01$ ); t-values > 1.96 ( $p \leq .05$ ).

Table 6.21 shows that the factor loadings (path coefficients) for psychological career resources sufficiently converged onto career preferences ( $\beta = .39$ ; positive pathway), career drivers ( $\beta = .85$ ; positive pathway), career harmonisers ( $\beta = .71$ ; positive pathway) and career satisfaction ( $\beta = .39$ ; positive pathway) as the factor loadings were greater than the benchmark value of .30.

Although smaller than the benchmark value of .30, the factor loadings (path coefficients) for harmonious passion converged onto career satisfaction ( $\beta = .09$ ; positive pathway) and career adaptation preoccupations ( $\beta = -.17$ ; negative pathway). In addition, the factor loadings (path coefficients) for harmonious passion sufficiently converged onto psychological career

resources ( $\beta = .42$ ; positive pathway) as the factor loadings were greater than the benchmark value of .30.

Figure 6.1 illustrates the path coefficients of the final hypothesised model (SEM model 2).



Notes: All standardised path coefficient estimates \*\*  $p \leq .01$

Figure 6.1: Final structural model

The factor loadings (path coefficients) for career adaptation preoccupations converged onto career satisfaction ( $\beta = -.28$ ; negative pathway), but was lower than the benchmark value of .30.

### Preliminary analysis 3: Towards constructing a psychosocial model of career wellbeing

In summary, as indicated in Figure 6.1, the SEM final best fit model highlighted harmonious passion (the autonomous internalisation of work activities into an individual's self-concept) as an important intrinsic motivating antecedent of high levels of career satisfaction through the exertion of important psychosocial resources, namely career preferences, career drivers,

career harmonisers and career adaptation concerns. When considering career wellbeing, career management practices must consider occupational passion (harmonious passion) as an antecedent (intrinsic motivational attribute) of career satisfaction through the development of important psychosocial resources such as flexible career preferences, strong career plans and actions to achieve career goals, career harmonisers (i.e. self-esteem, emotional literacy and social connectivity) and addressing employees' needs to be upskilled and remain employability (career adaptation preoccupations).

Next, the stepwise multiple regression analysis is discussed.

### **6.4.3 Stepwise multiple regression analysis**

Owing to the number of sociodemographic variables, stepwise regression analysis, using SAS version 9.4 (SAS, 2013), was performed to identify the best sociodemographic predictors that could be utilised in the moderated regression analysis. This step involved testing research hypothesis H4:

Individuals' sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) significantly moderate the relationship between the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction).

#### *6.4.3.1 Stepwise regression: Sociodemographic variables and occupational passion as predictors of career satisfaction*

As illustrated in Table 6.22, stepwise regression analysis was performed in terms of each of the occupational passion subscales (consisting of harmonious passion, obsessive passion and passion prevalence) and each of the sociodemographic variables (consisting of race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure), with occupational passion as the independent variable and career satisfaction as the dependent variable. The stepwise multiple regression approach of backward elimination was implemented. Firstly, all of the occupational passion construct variables and sociodemographic variables were included, then the variables whose loss provided the most statistically insignificant weakening of the model fit were deleted based on the model fit criteria. This step was repeated until no further variables could be deleted without a statistically significant loss of fit. Finally, the stepwise regression consisted of six steps and step six produced the most significant predictors. The ANOVA ( $F_p$ ) and  $R^2$  values were used to state the variance that was explained by the model. The variables that yielded significant results are reported in Table 6.22.

Table 6.22

*Stepwise Regression Analysis Results: Sociodemographic Variables and Occupational Passion as Predictors of Career Satisfaction*

Variables	$\beta$	Standard error	F value	Pr > F
Job level	-.34*	.07	20.56	<.0001
Harmonious passion	.23**	.04	33.4	<.0001
Obsessive passion	-.08***	.03	6.61	.01
Model info				
$F(p)$	3.50***			
$R^2$	.15++			
Adjusted $R^2$	.14++			

Notes: N = 550. \*\*\* $p \leq .001$  \*\* $p \leq .01$  \* $p \leq .05$

+ $R^2 \leq .12$  (small practical effect size) ++ $R^2 \geq .13 \leq .25$  (moderate practical effect size)

+++  $R^2 \geq .26$  (large practical effect size)

Table 6.22 summarises the best predictors of career satisfaction as identified by step six of the stepwise multiple regression, namely, harmonious passion ( $\beta = .23$ ;  $p = <.0001$ ; positive predictor), obsessive passion ( $\beta = -.08$ ;  $p = 0.1$ ; negative predictor), and job level ( $\beta = -.34$ ;  $p = <.0001$ ; negative predictor). The adjusted  $R^2$  value of 0.14 (moderate practical effect size) indicated that the model predicted approximately 14% of the variance in career satisfaction.

#### 6.4.3.2 Stepwise regression: Sociodemographic variables and psychological career resources as predictors of career satisfaction

As summarised in Table 6.23, stepwise regression analysis was conducted in terms of each of the psychological career resources subscales (consisting of career preferences, career values, career enablers, career drivers and career harmonisers) and each of the sociodemographic variables (consisting of race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure), with psychological career resources as the independent variables and career satisfaction as the dependent variable. The stepwise multiple regression approach of backward elimination was utilised. As a first step, all of the psychological career resources construct variables and sociodemographic variables were entered into the model, then the variables whose loss provided the most statistically insignificant weakening of the model fit were removed based on the model fit criteria. This step was repeated until no further variables could be deleted without a statistically significant loss of fit. The stepwise regression analysis consisted of seven steps with step six yielding the most significant results. The ANOVA ( $F_p$ ) and  $R^2$  values were used to indicate the variance that was explained by the model. The variables that yielded significant results are provided in Table 6.22.

Table 6.23

*Stepwise Regression Analysis Results: Sociodemographic Variables and Psychological Career Resources as Predictors of Career Satisfaction*

Variable	$\beta$	Standard error	F value	Pr > F
Race	.26*	.10	6.81	.01
Job level	-.32*	.07	20.05	<.0001
Career preferences	-.13**	.04	10.82	.001
Career drivers	.36*	.05	46.13	<.0001
Career harmonisers	.19**	.05	10.43	0.001
Model info				
$F(p)$	4.48***			
$R^2$	.24++			
Adjusted $R^2$	.24++			

Notes: N = 550. \*\*\* $p \leq .001$  \*\* $p \leq .01$  \* $p \leq .05$

+ $R^2 \leq .12$  (small practical effect size) ++ $R^2 \geq .13 \leq .25$  (moderate practical effect size)

+++  $R^2 \geq .26$  (large practical effect size)

According to Table 6.23 the following variables were the most significant predictors of career satisfaction: career drivers ( $\beta = .36$ ;  $p < .0001$ ; positive predictor), career harmonisers ( $\beta = .19$ ;  $p = .0001$ ; positive predictor), career preferences ( $\beta = -.13$ ;  $p = .001$ ; negative predictor), job level ( $\beta = -.34$ ;  $p < .0001$ ; negative predictor) and race ( $\beta = .26$ ;  $p = .01$ ; positive predictor). The adjusted  $R^2$  value of 0.24 (moderate practical effect size) indicated that the model predicted approximately 24% of the variance in career satisfaction.

#### 6.4.3.3 Stepwise regression: Sociodemographic variables and psychosocial career preoccupations as predictors of career satisfaction

As shown in Table 6.24, stepwise regression analysis was implemented in terms of each of the psychosocial career preoccupations subscales (consisting of career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations) and each of the sociodemographic variables (consisting of race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure), with psychosocial career preoccupations as the independent variable and career satisfaction as the dependent variable. The stepwise regression technique of backward elimination was implemented, implying that the variables were eliminated, on a step-by-step basis, based on their level of significance in contributing to the model fit. Finally, the variables that were left were the variables that contributed most to the model fit. The stepwise regression analysis consisted of six steps with step five yielding the most significant results. The variables that produced significant results are reported in Table 6.24.

Table 6.24

*Stepwise Regression Analysis Results: Sociodemographic Variables and Psychosocial Career Preoccupations as Predictors of Career Satisfaction*

Variable	$\beta$	Standard error	F value	Pr > F
Job level	-.34*	.07	20.54	<.0001
Career adaptation preoccupations	-.30*	.04	52.49	<.0001
Work–life adjustment preoccupations	.15**	.04	11.00	.001
Model info				
$F(p)$	4.27***			
$R^2$	.18++			
Adjusted $R^2$	.17++			

Notes: N = 550. \*\*\* $p \leq .001$  \*\* $p \leq .01$  \* $p \leq .05$

+ $R^2 \leq .12$  (small practical effect size) ++ $R^2 \geq .13 \leq .25$  (moderate practical effect size)

+++  $R^2 \geq .26$  (large practical effect size)

According to Table 6.24, the stepwise regression analysis indicated that the following three variables were the most significant predictors of career satisfaction, namely, career adaptation preoccupations ( $\beta = -.30$ ;  $p < .0001$ ; negative predictor), work–life adjustment preoccupations ( $\beta = .15$ ;  $p = .001$ ; positive predictor) and job level ( $\beta = -.34$ ;  $p < .0001$ ; negative predictor). The adjusted  $R^2$  value of 0.17 (moderate practical effect size) indicated that the model predicted approximately 17% of the variance in career satisfaction.

In summary, the stepwise multiple regression analysis identified a number of significant predictors of career satisfaction. The first stepwise regression model indicated that job level and occupational passion are significant predictors of career satisfaction. The second stepwise regression model identified race, job level and psychological career resources as significant predictors of career satisfaction. The third stepwise regression model showed that psychosocial career preoccupations and the sociodemographic characteristic of job level are significant predictors of career satisfaction.

The significant results that were obtained in the stepwise regression analysis were used during the hierarchical moderated regression analysis which is discussed next.

#### 6.4.4 Hierarchical moderated regression analysis

Hierarchical moderated regression analysis, applying the Hayes PROCESS procedure for SPSS version 2.15 (Hayes, 2013), was implemented as a second step to determine the impact of the best predicting sociodemographic variables (as identified by the stepwise multiple regression) in constructing the career wellbeing profile.

Based on the results of the stepwise regression analysis, three hierarchical moderated regression models were tested:

Model 1: Occupational passion and job level as significant predictors of career satisfaction.

Model 2: Psychological career resources, race and job level as significant predictors of career satisfaction.

Model 3: Psychosocial career preoccupations and job level as significant predictors of career satisfaction.

Hierarchical moderated regression was performed to test research hypothesis H4:

Individuals' sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) significantly moderate the relationship between the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction).

The following dummy coding was used:

Ethnicity/race

Blacks (African, Coloured, Indian) = 0

Whites = 1

Job level

Management level (Owner/executive/c-level, Management) = 0

Staff member = 1

*6.4.4.1 Model 1: Examining the effects of occupational passion and job level on career satisfaction*

In this model, occupational passion functioned as the independent variable whilst the construct of career satisfaction functioned as the dependent variable. The sociodemographic variable of job level was used as the moderating variable.

Table 6.25 summarises the results of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis that was conducted to establish the main effect and the interaction effects of occupational passion and job level on career satisfaction.

Table 6.25

*Moderated Regression Analysis Examining the Effects of Occupational Passion and Job Level on Career Satisfaction*

Variables	$\beta$	$t$	$p$	Bootstrap 95% Confidence Limit	
				LLCI	ULCI
Constant	3.91	72.56	.000	3.80	4.02
Job level (A)	-.39	-5.15	.000	-.53	-.24
Occupational passion (B)	.20	3.40	.001	.08	.31
Interaction term: A x B	-.11	-1.42	.16	-.27	.04
Model info					
$F_p$		15.78***			
$\Delta F_p$		2.02			
$R^2$		.08 <sup>+</sup>			
$\Delta R^2$		.003			

Notes: N = 550. \*\*\* $p \leq .001$  \*\* $p \leq .01$  \* $p \leq .05$

Table 6.25 shows that the regression model was significant ( $F_p = 15.78$ ;  $p \leq .001$ ). The results indicate that occupational passion and job level explained a moderate ( $R^2 \geq .08$  [8%]) practical percentage of variance in the career satisfaction construct. In terms of main effects, occupational passion ( $\beta = .20$ ;  $t = 3.40$ ;  $p < .05$ ) was a significant positive predictor of career satisfaction, whilst job level ( $\beta = -.39$ ;  $t = -5.15$ ;  $p < .05$ ) was a significant negative predictor of career satisfaction.

In terms of the interaction effects in model 1, job level did not have a significant moderating effect on the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction ( $\beta = -.11$ ;  $t = 1.42$ ;  $p = .16$ ).

#### 6.4.4.2 Model 2: Examining the effects of psychological career resources, race and job level on career satisfaction

In this regression model, the construct of psychological career resources was applied as the independent variable whilst the construct of career satisfaction performed as the dependent variable. The sociodemographic variables of race and job level were used as moderating variables.

Table 6.26 encapsulates the results of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis that was conducted to establish the main and interaction effects of psychological career resources, race and job level on career satisfaction.

Table 6.26

*Moderated Regression Analysis Examining the Effects of Psychological Career Resources, Race and Job Level on Career Satisfaction*

Variables	$\beta$	$t$	$p$	Bootstrap 95% Confidence Limit	
				LLCI	ULCI
Constant	3.42	34.89	.000	3.23	3.61
Race (A)	.34	3.22	.001	.13	.55
Psychological career resources (B)	.66	4.26	.000	.36	.97
Interaction term: A x B	-.16	-.95	.35	-.50	.17
Model info					
$F_p$	25.35				
$\Delta F_p$	.89				
$R^2$	.35 <sup>+++</sup>				
$\Delta R^2$	.002				
Constant	3.89	74.95	.000	3.79	3.99
Job level (A)	-.34	-4.74	.000	-.48	-.20
Psychological career resources (B)	.53	5.97	.000	.36	.71
Interaction term: A x B	-.13	-1.05	.30	-.38	.11
Model info					
$F_p$	31.10				
$\Delta F_p$	1.10				
$R^2$	.15 <sup>++</sup>				
$\Delta R^2$	.002				

Notes: N = 550. <sup>\*\*\*</sup> $p \leq .001$  <sup>\*\*</sup> $p \leq .01$  <sup>\*</sup> $p \leq .05$

+ $R^2 \leq .12$  (small practical effect size) ++ $R^2 \geq .13 \leq .25$  (moderate practical effect size)

+++  $R^2 \geq .26$  (large practical effect size)

Table 6.26 indicates that the regression model was significant ( $F_p = 25.35$ ;  $p \leq .001$  and  $F_p = 31.10$ ;  $p \leq .001$ ). The results show that psychological career resources ( $\beta = .66$ ;  $t = 4.26$ ;  $p < .05$ ; positive predictor) and race ( $\beta = .34$ ;  $t = 3.22$ ;  $p < .05$ ; positive predictor) explained a large ( $R^2 \geq .35$  [35%]) practical percentage of variance in the career satisfaction construct. The results also show that psychological career resources ( $\beta = .53$ ;  $t = 5.97$ ;  $p < .05$ ; positive predictor) and job level ( $\beta = -.34$ ;  $t = -4.74$ ;  $p < .05$ ; negative predictor) explained a moderate ( $R^2 \geq .31.10$  [31.1%]) practical percentage of variance in the career satisfaction construct.

Based on the interaction effects observed in model 2, race ( $\beta = -.16$ ;  $t = -.95$ ;  $p \leq .05$ ) and job level ( $\beta = -.13$ ;  $t = -1.05$ ;  $p \leq .05$ ) did not have a significant moderating effect on the relationship between psychological career resources and career satisfaction.

#### 6.4.4.3 Model 3: Examining the effects of psychosocial preoccupations and job level on career satisfaction

In this model, the construct of psychosocial career preoccupations was used as the independent variable whilst career satisfaction was used as the dependent variable. The sociodemographic variable of job level was used as the moderating variable.

Table 6.27 gives a summary of the results of the moderated regression analysis that was performed to establish the main and interaction effects of psychosocial career preoccupations and job level on career satisfaction.

Table 6.27

*Moderated Regression Analysis Examining the Effects of Psychosocial Preoccupations and Job Level on Career Satisfaction*

Variables	$\beta$	$t$	$p$	Bootstrap 95% Confidence Limit	
				LLCI	ULCI
Constant	3.89	71.54	.000	3.79	4.00
Job level (A)	-.34	-4.43	.000	-.49	-.19
Psychosocial career preoccupations (B)	-.19	-3.46	.001	-.29	-.08
Interaction term: A x B	-.01	-.11	.91	-.17	.15
Model info					
$F_p$	18.62				
$\Delta F_p$	.01				
$R^2$	.30 <sup>+++</sup>				
$\Delta R^2$	.000				

Notes: N = 550. \*\*\* $p \leq .001$  \*\* $p \leq .01$  \* $p \leq .05$

+ $R^2 \leq .12$  (small practical effect size) ++ $R^2 \geq .13 \leq .25$  (moderate practical effect size)

+++  $R^2 \geq .26$  (large practical effect size)

According to Table 6.27 the regression model was significant ( $F_p = 18.62$ ;  $p \leq .001$ ). The results indicate that psychosocial career preoccupations ( $\beta = -.19$ ;  $t = -3.46$ ;  $p < .001$ ; negative predictor) and job level ( $\beta = -.34$ ;  $t = 4.43$ ;  $p < .001$ ; negative predictor) explained a moderate ( $R^2 \geq .30$  [30%]) practical percentage of variance in the career satisfaction construct.

Based on the interaction effects observed in model 3, job level was found to not have a significant moderating effect on the relationship between psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction ( $\beta = -.01$ ;  $t = -.11$ ;  $p \leq .05$ ).

#### **Preliminary analysis 4: Towards constructing a psychosocial model of career wellbeing**

In summary, the empirical results attained from the moderated regression analysis did not provide supportive evidence for the acceptance of research hypothesis H4:

Individuals' sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) significantly moderate the relationship between the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction).

In summary, owing to the large number of sociodemographic variables, a stepwise multiple regression analysis was implemented as a preliminary step in identifying the most significant predictors of career satisfaction. The hierarchical moderated regression analysis was implemented as a second step to establish whether the significant sociodemographic predictor variables functioned as significant moderators in explaining the variance in career satisfaction.

The hierarchical moderated regression analysis indicated that main effects were evident but no interaction (moderating) effects between the key sociodemographic variables (1) job level (occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and (2) race (psychological career resources) in predicting career satisfaction. In terms of the psychosocial career wellbeing profile, the analysis highlighted the main effects of job level and race in predicting career satisfaction.

The results obtained from the stepwise multiple regression analysis and hierarchical moderated regression analysis assisted in the process of constructing a career wellbeing profile.

#### **6.4.5 Test for significant mean differences**

Stage 4 of the inferential statistical analysis, namely, the test for significant mean differences, addressed research hypothesis H5:

The sociodemographic groups (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) will differ significantly regarding their occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction.

When considering the tests of normality, the Shapiro-Wilk, Kolmogorov-Smirnov, Cramer-von Mises and the Anderson-Darling tests were significant based on the non-normality of the data distribution (the  $p$ -value was greater than the chosen alpha level). This section will only report on the variances between variables that were significant for the following sociodemographic variables:

- Race
- Gender

- Age
- Qualification
- Job level
- Tenure

After the results had revealed a normal distribution of the data, SAS version 9.4 (SAS, 2013) was utilised to conduct parametric statistical analysis. ANOVAs and post hoc tests were used to measure the differences between the sociodemographic variables of race, age, qualification, job level and tenure (as these variables had multiple different groups), whilst *t*-test procedures and Tukey's studentised range test were used to test for significant mean differences between the genders (as this variable had only two groups). Cohen's *d* test was used to assess practical effect size in terms of the differences between the respective groups for each of the variables.

#### 6.4.5.1 Reporting differences in mean scores for race groups (PS, PCRI, PCPS, CSS)

Table 6.28 provides a summary of the ANOVAs and post hoc tests investigating the mean differences between the sociodemographic variable of race with regards to the occupational passion-related variables (PS), psychological career resources-related variables (PCRI), the psychosocial career preoccupations-related variables (PCPS) and career satisfaction (CSS).

Table 6.28

#### Tests for Significant Mean Differences: Race

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean	SD	Anova Sum of squares	Mean square	F	p	Source of significant differences between means	Cohen d
Career establishment preoccupations	Black	42	3.91	.88	11.23	2.81	2.71	.03	Black – White: .48***	.51
	Coloured	17	3.67	1.10						
	Indian	19	3.71	1.01						
	Multiple ethnicity	18	3.31	.72						
	White	454	3.42	1.03						
Career adaptation preoccupations	Black	42	3.30	1.13	20.11	5.03	4.35	.002	Black – White: .65***	.59
	Coloured	17	3.18	1.13						
	Indian	19	2.80	1.02						
	Multiple ethnicity	18	2.74	.90						
	White	454	2.65	1.07						



Table 6.28 cont'd

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean	SD	Anova Sum of squares	Mean square	F	p	Source of significant differences between means	Cohen d
Work-life adjustment preoccupations	Black	42	3.45	.86	15.82	3.96	4.17	.003	Black – White: .53*** Black – Multiple ethnicity: .77***	.57 .94
	Coloured	17	2.88	1.08						
	Indian	19	3.39	1.16						
	Multiple ethnicity	18	2.68	.78						
	White	454	2.92	.98						

Notes: N = 549; 95% Confidence limit; \*\*\* $p \leq .0001$

According to Table 6.28, whites scored significantly lower than blacks on career establishment preoccupations (whites:  $M = 3.42$ ;  $SD = 1.03$ ; blacks:  $M = 3.91$ ;  $SD = .88$ ;  $d = .51$ ; moderate practical effect), career adaptation preoccupations (whites:  $M = 2.65$ ;  $SD = 1.07$ ; blacks:  $M = 3.30$ ;  $SD = 1.13$ ;  $d = .59$ ; moderate practical effect) and work-life adjustment preoccupations (whites:  $M = 2.92$ ;  $SD = .98$ ; blacks:  $M = 3.45$ ;  $SD = .86$ ;  $d = .57$ ; moderate practical effect). Also, the multiple ethnicity group scored significantly lower than the black group for work-life adjustment preoccupations (multiple ethnicity:  $M = 2.68$ ;  $SD = .78$ ; blacks:  $M = 3.45$ ;  $SD = .86$ ;  $d = .94$ ; large practical effect).

#### 6.4.5.2 Reporting differences in mean scores for gender groups (PS, PCRI, PCPS, CSS)

The results of the *t*-test procedure and mean scores investigating mean differences between the sociodemographic variable of gender with regard to the occupational passion-related variables (PS), the psychological career resources-related variables (PCRI), the psychosocial career preoccupations-related variables (PCPS) and career satisfaction (CSS) are reported in Table 6.29.

Table 6.29

Tests for Significant Mean Differences: Gender

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean	SD	t-value	95% confidence CL		Fp	P	Source of significant differences between means	Cohen d
						Minimum	Maximum				
Obsessive passion	Male	255	3.32	1.26	2.83	3.17	3.47	1.06	.66	Male-female: .31***	2.27
	Female	295	1.29	.08		2.86	3.16				
Career preferences	Male	255	4.86	.81	3.21	4.76	4.96	1.36	.01	Male-female: .24***	.28
	Female	295	4.61	.95		4.50	4.72				
Career establishment preoccupations	Male	255	3.35	3.22	-2.66	3.22	3.48	1.21	.12	Female-male: .23***	.10
	Female	295	3.58	.97		3.47	3.69				

Notes: N = 549; 95% Confidence limit; \*\*\* $p \leq .0001$ ; CL: confidence limit

Table 6.29 indicates the results for the *t*-test procedure. Significant mean differences were obtained between males and females for obsessive passion (males:  $M = 3.32$ ;  $SD = 1.26$ ; females:  $M = 1.29$ ;  $SD = .08$ ;  $t = 2.83$ ;  $F_p = 1.06$ ;  $d = 2.21$ ; very large practical effect); career preferences (males:  $M = 4.86$ ;  $SD = .81$ ; females:  $M = 4.61$ ;  $SD = .95$ ;  $t = 3.21$ ;  $F_p = 1.36$ ;  $d = .28$  small practical effect) and career establishment preoccupations (males:  $M = 3.35$ ;  $SD = 3.22$ ; females:  $M = 3.58$ ;  $SD = .97$ ;  $t = -2.66$ ;  $F_p = 1.21$ ;  $d = .10$ ; very small practical effect).

#### 6.4.5.3 Reporting differences in mean scores for age groups (PS, PCRI, PCPS, CSS)

Table 6.30 provides a summary of the ANOVAs and post hoc test results and mean scores investigating the mean differences between the sociodemographic variable of age with regard to the occupational passion-related variables (PS), psychological career resources-related variables (PCRI), the psychosocial career preoccupations-related variables (PCPS) and career satisfaction (CSS).

Table 6.30

#### Tests for Significant Mean Differences: Age

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean	SD	Anova Sum of squares	Mean square	F	p	Source of significant differences between means	Cohen d
Harmonious passion	18–30 years	305	5.23	1.04	20.39	6.80	6.67	.0002		
	31–45 years	122	5.23	1.06						
	46–64 years	107	5.66	.88					46–64 years – 18–30 years: .34 .43***	
	65 ≥ years	16	5.85	.70					46–64 years – 31–45 years: .19 .43***	
Career values	18–30 years	305	5.49	.59	5.07	1.69	4.60	.004	18–30 years – 46–64 years: .38 .25***	
	31–45 years	122	5.43	.62						
	46–64 years	107	5.26	.64						
	65 ≥ years	16	5.29	.48						
Career establishment preoccupations	18–30 years	16	3.73	.93	62.94	20.98	22.38	<.0001	18–30 years – 31–45 years: .32 .31***	
	31–45 years	305	3.42	.98					18–30 years – 46–64 years: .81 .80***	
	46–64 years	122	2.93	1.04					18–30 years – 65 ≥ years: 1.08 1.08***	
	65 ≥ years	107	2.64	1.08					31–45 years – 46–64 years: .48 .49***	
									31–45 years – 65 ≥ years: .76 .77***	



Table 6.30 cont'd

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean	SD	Anova Sum of squares	Mean square	F	P	Source of significant differences between means	Cohen d
Career adaptation preoccupations	18–30 years	16	2.89	1.05	45.53	15.18	13.70	.0001	18–30 years – 46–64 years: .66 .68***	
				18–30 years – 65 ≥ years: .86***						
	31–45 years	305	2.82	1.07					31–45 years – 46–64 years: .58 .60***	
				31–45 years – 65 ≥ years: .69 .78***						
	46–64 years	122	2.21	1.02						
	65 ≥ years	107	2.03	1.22						
Work–life adjustment preoccupations	18–30 years	16	3.17	.91	41.71	13.90	15.45	<.0001	18–30 years – 46–64 years: .70 .67***	
				18–30 years – 65 ≥ years: .76 .83***						
	31–45 years	305	2.96	.94					31–45 years – 46–64 years: .47 .45***	
	46–64 years	122	2.50	1.01						
	65 ≥ years	107	2.34	1.25						
Career satisfaction	18–30 years	16	3.64	.94	11.40	3.80	4.76	.003		
	31–45 years	305	3.66	.86						
	46–64 years	122	3.98	.82					46–64 years – 31–45 years: .38 .33***	
				46–64 years – 18–30 years: .35***						
	65 ≥ years	107	4.01	.67					.39	

Notes: N = 549; 95% Confidence limit; \*\*\* $p \leq .0001$

As indicated in Table 6.30, significant mean differences were obtained between the 46–64 age group and the 18–30 age group (46–64 years:  $M = 5.66$ ;  $SD = .88$ ; 18–30 years:  $M = 5.23$ ;  $SD = 1.04$ ;  $d = .34$ ; small practical effect) for harmonious passion. Significant mean differences were also found between the 46–64 age group and the 31–45 age group (46–64 years:  $M = 5.66$ ;  $SD = .88$ ; 31–45 years:  $M = 5.23$ ;  $SD = 1.06$ ;  $d = .19$ ; very small practical effect) for harmonious passion.

In the case of career values, significant mean differences were obtained between the 18–30 age group and the 46–64 age group (46–64 years:  $M = 5.66$ ;  $SD = .88$ ; 18–30 years:  $M = 5.29$ ;  $SD = .48$ ;  $d = .38$ ; small practical effect).

Significant mean differences were reported between the age groups for career establishment preoccupations. These differences were obtained between the 18–30 age group and the 31–45 age group (18–30 years:  $M = 3.73$ ;  $SD = .93$ ; 31–45 years:  $M = 3.42$ ;  $SD = .98$ ;  $d = .32$ ; small practical effect); between the 18–30 age group and the 46–64 age group (18–30 years:  $M = 3.73$ ;  $SD = .93$ ; 46–64 years:  $M = 2.93$ ;  $SD = 1.04$ ;  $d = .81$ ; large practical effect); between

the 18–30 age group and the 65 years and older group (18–30 years:  $M = 3.73$ ;  $SD = .93$ ; 65 years and older:  $M = 2.62$ ;  $SD = 1.08$ ;  $d = 1.08$ ; large practical effect); between the 31–45 age group and the 46–64 age group (31–45 years:  $M = 3.42$ ;  $SD = .98$ ; 46–64 years:  $M = 2.93$ ;  $SD = 1.04$ ;  $d = .48$ ; small practical effect) and the 31–45 age group and the 65 years and older group (31–45 years:  $M = 3.42$ ;  $SD = .98$ ; 65 years and older:  $M = 2.62$ ;  $SD = 1.08$ ;  $d = .78$ ; moderate practical effect).

The results show significant mean differences between the following groups for career adaptation preoccupations: between the 18–30 age group and the 46–64 age group (18–30 years:  $M = 2.89$ ;  $SD = 1.05$ ; 46–64 years:  $M = 2.21$ ;  $SD = 1.02$ ;  $d = .66$ ; moderate practical effect); between the 18–30 age group and the 65 years and older group (18–30 years:  $M = 2.89$ ;  $SD = 1.05$ ; 65 years and older:  $M = 2.03$ ;  $SD = 1.22$ ;  $d = .76$ ; moderate practical effect); between the 31–45 age group and the 46–64 age group (31–45 years:  $M = 2.82$ ;  $SD = 1.07$ ; 46–64 years:  $M = 2.21$ ;  $SD = 1.02$ ;  $d = .58$ ; moderate practical effect) and between the between the 31–45 age group and the 65 years and older group (31–45 years:  $M = 2.82$ ;  $SD = 1.07$ ; 65 years and older:  $M = 2.03$ ;  $SD = 1.22$ ;  $d = .69$ ; moderate practical effect).

Significant mean differences were obtained between the 18–30 age group and the 46–64 age group (18–30 years:  $M = 3.17$ ;  $SD = .91$ ; 46–64 years:  $M = 2.50$ ;  $SD = 1.01$ ;  $d = .70$ ; moderate practical effect), the 18–30 age group and the 65 years and older group (18–30 years:  $M = 2.34$ ;  $SD = 1.25$ ;  $d = .76$ ; moderate practical effect), and between the 31–45 age group and the 46–64 age group (31–45 years:  $M = 2.96$ ;  $SD = .96$ ; 46–64 years:  $M = 2.50$ ;  $SD = 1.01$ ;  $d = .47$ ; small practical effect) for work–life adjustment preoccupations.

In the case of career satisfaction, significant mean differences were obtained between the 46–64 age group and the 31–45 age group (46–64 years:  $M = 3.98$ ;  $SD = .82$ ; 31–45 years:  $M = 3.66$ ;  $SD = .86$ ;  $d = .38$ ; small practical effect) and between the 46–64 age group and the 18–30 age group (46–64 years:  $M = 3.98$ ;  $SD = .82$ ; 18–30 years:  $M = 3.64$ ;  $SD = .94$ ;  $d = .39$ ; small practical effect).

#### 6.4.5.4 Reporting differences in mean scores for qualification groups (PS, PCRI, PCPS, CSS)

Table 6.31 provides a summary of ANOVAs and post hoc tests investigating the mean differences between the sociodemographic variable of qualification with regard to the occupational passion-related variables (PS), psychological career resources-related variables (PCRI), the psychosocial career preoccupations-related variables (PCPS) and career satisfaction (CSS).

Table 6.31

*Tests for Significant Mean Differences: Qualification*

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean	SD	Anova Sum of squares	Mean square	F	P	Source of significant differences between means	Cohen d
Career values	Grade 12	24	5.25	.72	8.18	2.05	5.64	.0002		
	Certificate	17	5.43	.60						
	Diploma	41	5.02	.77						
	Bachelor degree	118	5.47	.61					Bachelor degree – diploma: .45***	.65
	Postgraduate degree	350	5.45	.57					Postgraduate degree – diploma: .44***	.64

Notes: N = 549; 95% Confidence limit; \*\*\* $p \leq .0001$

Table 6.31 indicates that significant mean differences were obtained for qualification between the following groups: the bachelor degree group and the diploma group (bachelor degree:  $M = 5.47$ ;  $SD = .61$ ; diploma:  $M = 5.02$ ;  $SD = .77$ ;  $d = .65$ ; moderate practical effect) and the postgraduate degree group and the diploma group (postgraduate degree:  $M = 5.45$ ;  $SD = .57$ ; diploma:  $M = 5.02$ ;  $SD = .77$ ;  $d = .64$ ; moderate practical effect).

#### 6.4.5.5 Reporting differences in mean scores for job level groups (PS, PCRI, PCPS, CSS)

The results of the ANOVAs and post hoc tests examining the mean differences between the sociodemographic variable of job level with regard to the occupational passion-related variables (PS), psychological career resources-related variables (PCRI), the psychosocial career preoccupations-related variables (PCPS) and career satisfaction (CSS) are reported in Table 6.32.

Table 6.32

*Tests for Significant Mean Differences: Job Level*

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean	SD	Anova Sum of squares	Mean square	F	p	Source of significant differences between means	Cohen d
Harmonious passion	Staff member	283	5.11	1.03	35.07	17.53	17.71	<.0001		
	Manager	150	5.40	.94					Manager – staff member: .29***	.29
	Owner/executive/c-level	117	5.76	.97					Owner/executive/c-level – manager: .36***	.38
								Owner/executive/c-level – staff member: .64***	.66	
Passion prevalence	Staff member	283	5.30	1.25	33.94	16.97	12.97	<.0001		
	Manager	150	5.58	1.09					Manager – staff member: .27***	.24
	Owner/executive/c-level	117	5.93	.94					Owner/executive/c-level – manager: .35***	.34
								Owner/executive/c-level – staff member: .63***	.57	



Table 6.32 cont'd

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean	SD	Anova Sum of squares	Mean square	F	p	Source of significant differences between means	Cohen d
Career preferences	Staff member	283	4.63	.92	6.04	3.02	3.81	0.0227		
	Manager	150	4.81	.85						
	Owner/executive/c-level	117	4.80	.87					Owner/executive/c-level – staff member: .23***	.19
Career enablers	Staff member	283	4.69	.73	8.75	4.34	9.11	.0001		
	Manager	150	4.94	.62					Manager – staff member: .25***	.37
	Owner/executive/c-level	117	4.95	.69					Owner/executive/c-level – staff member: .26***	.37
Career drivers	Staff member	283	4.47	.80	12.58	6.29	9.43	<.0001		
	Manager	150	4.72	.82					Manager – staff member: .24***	.31
	Owner/executive/c-level	117	4.83	.82					Owner/executive/c-level – staff member: .35***	.44
Career establishment preoccupations	Staff member	283	3.73	.91	62.92	31.46	33.61	<.0001		
	Manager	150	3.48	1.04					Manager – staff member: .25***	.26
	Owner/executive/c-level	117	2.86	1.01					Owner/executive/c-level – manager: .25*** Owner/executive/c-level – staff member: .87***	.60 .91
Career adaptation preoccupations	Staff member	283	2.95	1.05	55.14	27.57	25.34	<.0001		
	Manager	150	2.74	1.01						
	Owner/executive/c-level	117	2.14	1.06					Owner/executive/c-level – manager: .60*** Owner/executive/c-level – staff member: .82***	.58 .77
Work–life adjustment preoccupations	Staff member	283	3.15	.90	29.53	14.76	16.04	<.0001		
	Manager	150	2.96	.97						
	Owner/executive/c-level	117	2.55	1.07					Owner/executive/c-level – manager: .41*** Owner/executive/c-level – staff member: .60***	.40 .61
Career satisfaction	Staff member	283	3.51	.91	25.48	12.74	16.51	<.0001		
	Manager	150	3.92	.84					Manager – staff member: .41***	.47
	Owner/executive/c-level	117	3.97	.84					Owner/executive/c-level – staff member: .46***	.55

Notes: N = 549; 95% Confidence limit; \*\*\* $p \leq .0001$

Table 6.32 indicates that significant mean differences were reported for harmonious passion for the following job level groups: manager level and staff member level (manager level:  $M = 5.40$ ;  $SD = .94$ ; staff member level:  $M = 5.11$ ;  $SD = 1.03$ ;  $d = .29$ ; small practical effect); owner/executive/c-level and the manager level (owner/executive/c-level:  $M = 5.76$ ;  $SD = .97$ ; manager level:  $M = 5.40$ ;  $SD = .94$ ;  $SD = 1.03$ ;  $d = .38$ ; small practical effect) and the

owner/executive/c-level and the staff member level (owner/executive/c-level:  $M = 5.76$ ;  $SD = .97$ ; staff member level:  $M = 5.11$ ;  $SD = 1.03$ ;  $d = .66$ ; moderate practical level).

In terms of passion prevalence, significant mean differences were obtained between the manager group and the staff member level group (manager level:  $M = 5.58$ ;  $SD = 1.09$ ; staff member level:  $M = 5.30$ ;  $SD = 1.25$ ;  $d = .24$ ; small practical effect), between the owner/executive/c-level group and the manager level group (owner/executive/c-level:  $M = 5.93$ ;  $SD = .94$ ; manager level:  $M = 5.58$ ;  $SD = 1.09$ ;  $d = .34$ ; small practical effect) and the owner/executive/c-level group and the staff member level group (owner/executive/c-level:  $M = 5.93$ ;  $SD = .94$ ; staff member level:  $M = 5.30$ ;  $SD = 1.25$ ;  $d = .57$ ; moderate practical effect).

Significant mean differences were obtained between the owner/executive/c-level group and the staff member level group (owner/executive/c-level:  $M = 4.80$ ;  $SD = .87$ ; staff member level:  $M = 4.63$ ;  $SD = .92$ ;  $d = .19$ ; very small practical effect) for career preferences.

The results showed significant mean differences between the manager group and the staff member group (manager level:  $M = 4.94$ ;  $SD = .62$ ; staff member level:  $M = 4.69$ ;  $SD = .73$ ;  $d = .37$ ; small practical effect) and the owner/executive/c-level group and the staff member level group (owner/executive/c-level:  $M = 4.95$ ;  $SD = .69$ ; staff member level:  $M = 4.69$ ;  $SD = .73$ ;  $d = .37$ ; small practical effect) for career enablers.

When it came to career drivers, significant mean differences were established between the manager level group and the staff member level group (manager level:  $M = 4.72$ ;  $SD = .82$ ; staff member level:  $M = 4.47$ ;  $SD = .80$ ;  $d = .31$ ; small practical effect) and the owner/executive/c-level group and the staff member level group (owner/executive/c-level:  $M = 4.83$ ;  $SD = .82$ ; staff member level:  $M = 4.47$ ;  $SD = .80$ ;  $d = .44$ ; small practical effect).

Significant mean differences were reported between the following job level groups for career establishment preoccupations: between the manager group and staff member group (manager level:  $M = 3.48$ ;  $SD = .91$ ; staff member level:  $M = 3.37$ ;  $SD = .91$ ;  $d = .26$ ; small practical effect); between the owner/executive/c-level group and the manager group (owner/executive/c-level:  $M = 2.86$ ;  $SD = 1.01$ ; manager level:  $M = 3.48$ ;  $SD = .91$ ;  $d = .60$ ; moderate practical effect) and the owner/executive/c-level group and the staff member group (owner/executive/c-level:  $M = 2.86$ ;  $SD = 1.01$ ; staff member level:  $M = 3.37$ ;  $SD = .91$ ;  $d = .91$ ; large practical effect).

Significant mean differences were reported between the owner/executive/c-level group and the manager level group (owner/executive/c-level:  $M = 2.14$ ;  $SD = 1.06$ ; manager level:  $M = 2.74$ ;  $SD = 1.01$ ;  $d = .58$ ; moderate practical effect) and the owner/executive/c-level group and

the staff member level group (owner/executive/c-level:  $M = 2.14$ ;  $SD = 1.06$ ; staff member level group:  $M = 2.95$ ;  $SD = 1.05$ ;  $d = .77$ ; moderate practical effect) for career adaptation preoccupations.

The results show significant mean differences between the owner/executive/c-level group and the manager level group (owner/executive/c-level:  $M = 2.55$ ;  $SD = 1.07$ ; manager level:  $M = 2.96$ ;  $SD = .97$ ;  $d = .40$ ; small practical effect) and owner/executive/c-level group and the staff member level group (owner/executive/c-level:  $M = 2.55$ ;  $SD = 1.07$ ; staff member level:  $M = 3.15$ ;  $SD = .90$ ;  $d = .61$ ; moderate practical effect) for work–life adjustment preoccupations.

In terms of career satisfaction, the following significant mean differences were obtained between the job level groups: between the manager level and staff member level (manager level:  $M = 3.92$ ;  $SD = .84$ ; staff member level:  $M = 3.51$ ;  $SD = .91$ ;  $d = .47$ ; small practical effect) and the owner/executive/c-level group and the staff member level group (owner/executive/c-level:  $M = 3.97$ ;  $SD = .84$ ; staff member level:  $M = 3.51$ ;  $SD = .91$ ;  $d = .55$ ; moderate practical effect).

#### 6.4.5.6 Reporting differences in mean scores for tenure groups (PS, PCRI, PCPS, CSS)

Table 6.33 provides a summary of ANOVAs and post hoc tests investigating the mean differences between the sociodemographic variable of tenure with regard to the occupational passion-related variables (PS), psychological career resources-related variables (PCRI), the psychosocial career preoccupations-related variables (PCPS) and career satisfaction (CSS).

Table 6.33

#### Tests for Significant Mean Differences: Tenure

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean	SD	Anova Sum of squares	Mean square	F	p	Source of significant differences between means	Cohen d
Harmonious passion	1–5 years	318	5.23	1.03	14.61	4.87	4.73	.002		
	6–10 years	94	5.25	1.18						
	11–20 years	79	5.53	.86						
	21+ years	59	5.69	.80						
								21 + years – 6–10 years: .44 .45***	.44	
								21 + years – 1–5 years: .46***	.50	
Career values	1–5 years	318	5.47	.60	2.87	.96	2.57	.05		
	6–10 years	94	5.42	.60						
	11–20 years	79	5.36	.60						
	21+ years	59	5.25	.66						
								1–5 years – 21 + years: .22***	.35	



Table 6.33 cont'd

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean	SD	Anova Sum of squares	Mean square	F	P	Source of significant differences between means	Cohen d
Career drivers	1–5 years	318	4.55	.83	7.83	2.61	3.86	.01		
	6–10 years	94	4.57	.85						
	11–20 years	79	4.72	.80						
	21+ years	59	4.92	.77						
Career establishment preoccupations	15 years	318	3.31	.96	50.86	16.95	17.67	<.0001	21 + years – 1–5 years: .37***	.46
									1–5 years – 6–10 years: .38***	.01
									1–5 years – 11–20 years: .48***	.09
									1–5 years – 21 + years: .90***	.51
	6–10 years	94	3.32	1.01				6–10 years – 21 + years: .52***	.51	
	11–20 years	79	3.22	.99						
	21+ years	59	2.80	1.03						
Career adaptation preoccupations	1–5 years	318	2.91	1.04	38.93	12.98	11.59	<.0001	1–5 years – 11–20 years: .41***	.39
									1–5 years – 21 + years: .82***	.76
									6–10 years – 21 + years: .55***	.49
	6–10 years	94	2.64	1.12						
	11–20 years	79	2.51	1.03						
	21+ years	59	2.10	1.09						
Work–life adjustment preoccupations	1–5 years	318	3.14	.94	34.38	11.46	12.55	<.0001	1–5 years – 11–20 years: .40***	.42
									1–5 years – 21 + years: .77***	.76
									6–10 years – 21 + years: .60***	.60
	6–10 years	94	2.97	.89						
	11–20 years	79	2.74	.98						
	21+ years	59	2.37	1.09						

Notes: N = 549; 95% Confidence limit; \*\*\* $p \leq .0001$

Based on the results reported in Table 6.33, significant mean differences were obtained between the following tenure groups for the construct of harmonious passion: 21 years and more tenure group and the 6–10 years tenure group (21 years and more tenure group:  $M = 5.69$ ;  $SD = .80$ ; 6–10 years tenure group:  $M = 5.25$ ;  $SD = 1.18$ ;  $d = .44$ ; small practical effect) and the 21 years and more tenure group and the 1–5 years tenure group (21 years and more tenure group:  $M = 5.69$ ;  $SD = .80$ ; 1–5 years tenure group:  $M = 5.23$ ;  $SD = 1.03$ ;  $d = .50$ ; moderate practical effect).

Significant mean differences were obtained between the 21 years and more tenure group and the 1–5 years tenure group (21 years and more tenure group:  $M = 5.25$ ;  $SD = .66$ ; 1–5 years tenure group:  $M = 5.47$   $SD = .60$ ;  $d = .35$ ; small practical effect) for the construct of career values.

For the career drivers construct, significant mean differences were obtained between the 21 years and more tenure group and the 1–5 years tenure group (21 years and more tenure group:  $M = 4.92$ ;  $SD = .77$ ; 1–5 years tenure group:  $M = 4.55$   $SD = .83$ ;  $d = .46$ ; small practical effect).

When it came to career establishment preoccupations the following significant mean differences were reported between the tenure groups: between the 1–5 years tenure group and the 6–10 years tenure group (1–5 years tenure group:  $M = 3.31$ ;  $SD = .96$ ; 6–10 years tenure group:  $M = 3.32$   $SD = 1.01$ ;  $d = .01$ ; very small practical effect); 1–5 years tenure group and the 11–20 years tenure group (1–5 years tenure group:  $M = 3.31$ ;  $SD = .96$ ; 11–20 years tenure group:  $M = 3.22$   $SD = .99$ ;  $d = .09$ ; very small practical effect); 1–5 years tenure group and the 21 years and more tenure group (1–5 years tenure group:  $M = 3.31$ ;  $SD = .96$ ; 21 years and more tenure group:  $M = 2.80$   $SD = 1.03$ ;  $d = .51$ ; moderate practical effect) and the 6–10 years tenure group and the 21 years and more tenure group (6–10 years tenure group:  $M = 3.32$   $SD = 1.01$ ; 21 years and more tenure group:  $M = 2.80$   $SD = 1.03$ ;  $d = .51$ ; moderate practical effect).

The results show significant mean differences for the construct of career adaptation preoccupations between the following tenure groups: between the 1–5 years tenure group and the 11–20 years tenure group (1–5 years tenure group:  $M = 2.91$ ;  $SD = 1.04$ ; 11–20 years tenure group:  $M = 2.51$   $SD = 1.03$ ;  $d = .39$ ; small practical effect); between the 1–5 years tenure group and the 21 and more years tenure group (1–5 years tenure group:  $M = 2.91$ ;  $SD = 1.04$ ; 21 and more years tenure group:  $M = 2.10$   $SD = 1.09$ ;  $d = .76$ ; moderate practical effect) and between the 6–10 years tenure group and the 21 years and more tenure group (6–10 years tenure group:  $M = 2.64$ ;  $SD = 1.12$ ; 21 years and more tenure group:  $M = 2.10$   $SD = 1.09$ ;  $d = .49$ ; small practical effect).

The following significant mean differences were obtained between the tenure groups for work–life adjustment preoccupations: between the 1–5 years tenure group and the 11–20 years tenure group (1–5 years tenure group:  $M = 3.14$ ;  $SD = .94$ ; 11–20 years tenure group:  $M = 2.74$   $SD = .98$ ;  $d = .42$ ; small practical effect); between the 1–5 years tenure group and the 21 years and more tenure group (1–5 years tenure group:  $M = 3.14$ ;  $SD = .94$ ; 21 years and more tenure group:  $M = 2.37$   $SD = 1.09$ ;  $d = .76$ ; moderate practical effect) and the 6–10 years tenure group and the 21 years and more tenure group (6–10 years tenure group:  $M = 2.97$ ;  $SD = .89$ ; 21 years and more tenure group:  $M = 2.37$   $SD = 1.09$ ;  $d = .60$ ; moderate practical effect).

In summary, significant mean differences were obtained between the sociodemographic variables for a number of the construct variables. Table 6.34 provides an overview of the

significant mean differences between sociodemographic variables that were obtained for the respective variables.

Table 6.34

*Summary of Significant Mean Differences*

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Source of difference</b>	<b>Lowest mean ranking</b>	<b>Highest mean ranking</b>
Career establishment preoccupations	Race	White	Black
Career adaptation preoccupations	Race	White	Black
Work–life adjustment preoccupations	Race	Multiple ethnicity	Black
Obsessive passion	Gender	Female	Male
Career preferences	Gender	Female	Male
Career establishment preoccupations	Gender	Female	Male
Harmonious passion	Age	18–30 years	46–64 years
Career values	Age	18–30 years	46–64 years
Career establishment preoccupations	Age	65 years and older	18–30 years
Career adaptation preoccupations	Age	46–64 years	18–30 years
Work–life adjustment preoccupations	Age	65 years and older	18–30 years
Career values	Qualification	Diploma	Postgraduate degree
Harmonious passion	Job level	Staff member	Owner/executive/c-level
Passion prevalence	Job level	Staff member	Owner/executive/c-level
Career preferences	Job level	Staff member	Owner/executive/c-level
Career enablers	Job level	Staff member	Owner/executive/c-level
Career drivers	Job level	Staff member	Owner/executive/c-level
Career establishment preoccupations	Job level	Owner/executive/c-level	Staff member
Career adaptation preoccupations	Job level	Owner/executive/c-level	Staff member
Work–life adjustment preoccupations	Job level	Owner/executive/c-level	Staff member
Career satisfaction	Job level	Staff member	Owner/executive/c-level
Harmonious passion	Tenure	1–5 years	21 years and more
Career values	Tenure	21 years and more	1–5 years
Career drivers	Tenure	1–5 years	21 years and more
Career establishment preoccupations	Tenure	21 years and more	1–5 years
Career adaptation preoccupations	Tenure	21 years and more	1–5 years
Work–life adjustment preoccupations	Tenure	21 years and more	1–5 years

## **Preliminary analysis 5: Towards constructing a psychosocial model of career wellbeing**

The empirical results obtained from the tests for significant mean differences provided supportive evidence for accepting research hypothesis H5 in terms of race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure:

The sociodemographic groups (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) will differ significantly regarding their occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction.

In conclusion, as indicated in Table 6.35, several sociodemographic differences were obtained in terms of the respective construct variables that made up the career wellbeing profile. In terms of the core empirically manifested career wellbeing profile elements of harmonious passion (age, job level and tenure), career preferences (gender and job level), career drivers (job level and tenure), career harmonisers (no differences), career adaptation preoccupations (race, age, job level and tenure) and career satisfaction (job level) need to be considered in career management practices.

Additional aspects to consider in the career wellbeing profile is that significant differences between job level groups were obtained for five of the six core empirically manifested career wellbeing profile elements and that significant differences between tenure groups were obtained for three of the six core empirically manifested career wellbeing profile elements. This implies that individuals within specific hierarchical positions and with a certain amount of experience within South African organisations should be monitored and supported in terms of developing and managing the core elements of career wellbeing.

Table 6.35 summarised the differences between the career wellbeing variables.

Table 6.35

*Summation of Sociodemographic Differences of Career Wellbeing Profile Variables*

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Source of difference</b>
Harmonious passion	Age Job level Tenure
Obsessive passion	Gender
Passion prevalence	Job level
Career preferences	Gender Job level
Career values	Age Qualification Tenure



Table 6.35 cont'd

Variable	Source of difference
Career enablers	Job level
Career drivers	Job level Tenure
Career harmonisers	None
Career establishment preoccupations	Race Gender Age Job level Tenure
Career adaptation preoccupations	Race Age Job level Tenure
Work–life adjustment preoccupations	Race Age Job level Tenure
Career satisfaction	Tenure Job level

In this section, the results of the statistical analyses were reported and used to test the research hypotheses. Descriptive statistics, correlational statistics and inferential and multivariate statistics were used to test and support the hypotheses. In the following section, these results will be integrated and discussed.

## 6.5 INTEGRATION AND DISCUSSION

This section includes an integration of the results of the study, as well as a discussion of the results of the sociodemographic profile of the participants, the descriptive statistics and the empirical research aims.

### 6.5.1 Socio-demographic profile of the sample and frequencies

As indicated in Chapter 5, the socio-demographic profile revealed that the participants were predominantly white females between the ages of 18 to 30 years. The average age of the sample of participants was 34. Super's (1952, 1990) life-span theory indicates that individuals who are in the age range of 34 would be in the career establishment life stage with core career concerns related to skills development, secure and stable employment and fitting into the employment environment. Evetts (2017) describes the primary career concerns of women as fair and equal employment opportunities, equal salary levels, career advancement opportunities and work-life balance.

Participants from the services industry made up the largest proportion of the sample, followed by the banking sector. The sample also included the following industries: health and welfare,

energy and water, manufacturing, engineering and related services, wholesale and retail, transport, education training and development, and the public service industry. The majority of the sample was on the owner/executive/c-level and most of the participants had been working for one to five years. In addition, the majority of the sample had postgraduate degrees (NQF level 8, 9 or 10).

The wholesale and retail and transport industries were underrepresented in the study, whilst coloureds and Indian/Asians were also not well represented. These aspects pertaining to the socio-demographic profile were taken into consideration when interpreting the results as they had a limiting effect on the generalisability of the results to the wider working adult population of South Africa.

## **6.5.2 Descriptive statistics: Interpretation of the results (mean scores)**

The next section provides an interpretation and discussion of the mean scores of the four measurement instruments, the PS, PCRI, PCPS and CSS, for the career wellbeing profile for diverse South African working adult groups. The results reported in Tables 6.6 to 6.8 are relevant to this section.

### *6.5.2.1 Psychosocial career wellbeing profile of participants: Occupational passion*

The career wellbeing profile revealed that participants experienced high passion prevalence toward certain work-related activities. An individual is perceived as passionate or to have passion for certain work-related activities when they enjoy participating in the activity on a frequent basis, when they invest energy in the activity and when the activity makes up an important part of their identity (Vallerand & Houliort, 2003; Vallerand et al., 2013). Previous studies have found that individuals who are passionate about their work hold several benefits for the organisation and have more positive career-related experiences. Mueller et al. (2017) argue that passionate individuals feel more satisfied about their career progress than their unpassionate colleagues. Passionate individuals are also more creative, interactive, learning orientated and driven to succeed than individuals who do not feel passionate about their work (Vallerand, 2015).

The career wellbeing profile also indicated that more participants experienced harmonious passion toward their work than obsessive passion toward their work. Individuals have harmonious passion toward certain work-related activities when they enjoy participating in the activity on a frequent basis and the activity does not play an overwhelming role in their identities (Vallerand & Houliort, 2003). Contrary to this, an individual is perceived as being obsessively passionate toward their work when a certain work-related activity plays such an important role

in an individual's identity that it consumes their time, energy and thoughts such that it does not leave much room for other activities, people or career endeavours (Vallerand & Houliort, 2003).

As the majority of the participants experienced harmonious passion toward their work it means that most of them have the capacity to invest their time, energy and relationships in the achievement of satisfactorily career outcomes (Vallerand, 2015). Employees who experience harmonious occupational passion are more able to disengage from the activities that they feel passionate about than individuals who have obsessive occupational passion (Vallerand, 2015). As the activities that harmoniously passionate individuals feel passionate about do not take an overwhelming place in their identities these individuals are able to engage in positive career-related behaviour such as goal-setting (Tolentino et al., 2013), creativity (Chen et al. 2015), environmental mastery (Forest et al., 2011), high performance levels (Mageau et al., 2011), autonomy (Houliort et al., 2013), positive work relationships (Vallerand et al., 2007) and adaptability (Burke et al. 2014), which would ultimately lead to greater career satisfaction (Papadimitriou et al. 2017).

The career profile furthermore indicated that participants only somewhat experienced obsessive passion toward their work. This was an interesting finding as previous studies on collectivistic cultures (Burke et al., 2014), such as South Africa, have reported high overall levels of obsessive passion. Obsessive occupational passion entails an obsessive compulsion to engage in certain work-related activities, which holds several negative career outcomes such as poor interpersonal relationships, lack of concentration in activities that the individual does not feel passionate about, low propensity to learn in activities that the individual does not feel passionate about and low wellbeing (Vallerand, 2015). However, a number of positive career-related outcomes have been associated with obsessive passion such as persistence, and drive toward the achievement of outcome resources (Burke et al., 2014).

#### *6.5.2.2 Psychosocial career wellbeing profile of participants: Psychological career resources*

This section is based on Table 6.6. The career wellbeing profile revealed that participants' career values were the most highly developed psychological career resource. Career values play an important role in terms of assisting individuals in setting goals for their careers and how they perceive their careers as being meaningful (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009). As career values function as the criteria against which individuals measure their career goals, individuals with well-developed career values are more able to set career goals and feel satisfied about their career progress (Tladinyane, 2013).

The career wellbeing profile also showed that individuals had high levels of career preferences. Ferreira et al. (2010) argue that individuals with well-developed career preferences are more

able to make career decisions as they understand what they want to achieve in their careers. Furthermore, the career wellbeing profile indicated that the participants had high levels of career enablers. High levels of career enablers assist individuals to transfer skills which enable them to achieve career outcomes such as career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2008; Sternberg, 2003).

In comparison to the other psychological career resources, the participants' results revealed that career drivers were the lowest developed psychological career resource. Career drivers, which entail the investment of motivation, energy and drive, assist individuals to achieve career outcomes (Coetzee, 2013). This implies that the participants in the study may lack some motivation and energy to achieve outcome resources such as career goals (Coetzee, 2008). The career wellbeing profile also indicated that participants had high levels of career harmonisers. As career harmonisers (for example self-esteem, social-connectivity and emotional literacy) help individuals to control their career drivers through psychological resilience and adaptability (Coetzee, 2008), it would seem that this group of participants are able to manage their career drivers in such a way that they do not consume their other psychological career resources and career activities.

#### *6.5.2.3 Psychosocial career wellbeing profile of participants: Psychosocial career preoccupations*

Table 6.6 is applicable to this section. Based on the results, participants indicated that they were mostly concerned with career establishment preoccupations, followed by work–life adjustment preoccupations and then career adaptation preoccupations. Although Coetzee (2014b) indicates that psychosocial career preoccupations are non-age related the results were interesting as most of the participants were either in the career establishment or career maintenance stage (Super, 1957, 1990) and were aged between 18 and 30.

Participants were thus mostly concerned with fitting into their organisations and work groups, their job security and stability, the development of opportunities for self-expression, professional development and advancement within their careers (Coetzee, 2014b). Participants indicated that they were somewhat concerned about work–life adjustment preoccupations which entail disengaging from work, creating greater work–life balance and planning for their retirement (Coetzee, 2014b). Participants specified that they were not specifically concerned with career adaptation preoccupations, which entail preoccupations regarding their employability, their ability to adapt to environmental needs and to be able to develop their skills, which would heighten their chances in the employment market (Coetzee, 2014b).

Overall, the career wellbeing profile thus indicates that individuals were mostly concerned with fitting into the organisation and developing their careers within the organisation (Coetzee, 2014). This could be attributed to the mean age of the participants (age 34), who according to Super (1957, 1990), would typically be concerned with fitting into the career environment or work group, stable and secure employment, upskilling themselves and advancing within their careers. Organisations that offer satisfactory support to their employees to feel part of the organisation, provide stable work environments and provide formal career management programmes reap the benefits of having more satisfied, engaged and loyal employees (Kang, Gatling, & Kim, 2015).

#### *6.5.2.4 Psychosocial career wellbeing profile of participants: Career satisfaction*

Table 6.6 is relevant to this section. The career wellbeing profile indicated that the participants experienced an average level of career satisfaction. Ng et al. (2005) describe career satisfaction as the extent to which individuals feel they are achieving career goals and making career progress. As most of the participants had graduate degrees, the findings correspond with the South African study by Koekemoer (2014), which indicate that individuals with high levels of education tend to experience average to higher levels of subjective career success (career satisfaction). Career satisfaction holds several benefits for the organisation and the individual, such as goal-oriented behaviour, wellbeing, positive professional relationships, learning-orientated behaviour and work engagement (Ng et al., 2005; Ng & Feldman, 2014).

The average level of career satisfaction that was obtained by the participants could be attributed to predominant career preoccupations relating to the retention of their work, learning about their work environments and improving their performance at work (career establishment preoccupations) (Coetzee, 2014b; Sharf, 2010; Super, 1990). The psychological career preoccupations relating to career progression, career stability, being able to adapt to environmental needs and securing long-term employment seemed to be the lowest areas of concern for the participants (Coetzee, 2014b; Sharf, 2010; Super, 1990). This was an interesting finding as, firstly, it supports the research of Coetzee (2014b), which indicates that psychosocial career preoccupations are not age-related. Secondly, it challenges Super's (1957, 1990) theory, which states that individuals in the career maintenance stage are mainly concerned with adapting to environmental needs and securing long-term employment. The implication for career research is that individuals who are developing their careers within the context of the contemporary boundaryless career environment (Arthur, 2014) have higher levels of career establishment preoccupations than other career-related concerns and should be provided with adequate support to manage these concerns.

### **6.5.3 Empirical research aim 1: Interpretation of the correlation results**

**Research aim 1:** To explore the direction and magnitude of the statistical inter-correlations between the sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure), the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction) (this aim relates to H1).

The results obtained provided support for research hypothesis 1.

#### *6.5.3.1 Relationship between the socio-demographic, independent, mediating and dependent construct variables*

The conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002) indicates that an individual's sociodemographic characteristics are related to their ability to develop and manage their psychosocial career resources in the pursuit of obtaining outcome resources. Similarly, self-determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 2000) indicates that individuals' sociodemographic characteristics are related to the development of intrinsic motivators and psychosocial career resources in the process of obtaining outcome resources (Halbesleben et al., 2014).

The results from the career wellbeing profile (see Table 6.6) revealed that race was significantly but negatively related to career adaptation preoccupations. The implication for career practices, in the South African context, is that an individual's racial background could be negatively related to the proactive behaviour they display in terms of satisfying their concerns about adapting to their career environments, as well as their employability-related concerns. It is also important to provide all race groups with more support in terms of understanding their career-related concerns and the development of proactive behaviour related to the satisfaction of career-related concerns.

According to Table 6.6, the results indicated no significant relationships between gender and occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction. This finding was contrary to the findings of Curran et al. (2015), who found that gender was significantly related to obsessive passion and career satisfaction (Clark 1997; Gaziougly & Tansel, 2006; Van Praag et al., 2003). The findings also contradicted those of Coetzee (2008), who found that gender was significantly related to the development of career preferences, career values and career harmonisers. These findings are also in opposition to those of Coetzee and Harry (2015), who found that gender is related to career concern.

The results from the career wellbeing profile showed significant negative relationships between age and the respective psychosocial career preoccupations. This would imply that an individual's age has an effect on the career establishment, career adaptation and work–life adjustment concerns that individuals experience. The implication for career practices in South Africa is that age could be the reason for the lack of proactive behaviour in terms of satisfying individuals' career concerns and, hence, they should be provided with adequate support.

A significant positive relationship was found between age and the overall construct of psychological career resources. This finding was consistent with previous research linking the relationship between psychological career resources and age (Coetzee, 2008). The implication for career wellbeing is that an individual's age could have an impact on their ability to develop the intrinsic motivator and psychosocial career resource of psychological career resources, which could have a negative impact on their ability to obtain outcome resources such as career satisfaction.

Significant positive relationships were found between age and passion prevalence and harmonious passion respectively. This is consistent with previous research which indicates that age is related to the levels of passion and, more specifically, the harmonious passion that is developed toward their work (Vallerand, 2015). The implication for career practices is that when individuals experience lower levels of occupational passion and harmonious passion it could potentially be explained by their age.

As indicated in Table 6.6, no significant relationships between qualification and any of the constructs of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction were established.

The results indicated significant relationships between job level and all three of the psychosocial career preoccupations subscales. This implies that the hierarchical level that an individual is on would be related to the positive proactive behaviour that they display in terms of satisfying their career-related concerns. This finding aligns to previous research which indicates that career preoccupations are greatly influenced by individuals' concern about job security, climbing the organisational ladder and the long-term development of their careers (Sharf, 2010).

The career wellbeing profile identified significant negative relationships between job level and harmonious passion and passion prevalence respectively. This means that the position that an individual is in within the organisation could potentially have a negative relationship with the passion that they feel toward their work and the balanced internalisation of their work-related activities. This finding aligns to previous research which indicates that since job level is seen

as an extrinsic motivator or potentially negative contingency, it will have an important influence on the type and level of passion toward work that is developed by the individual (Astakhova et al., 2010; Burke et al., 2014).

Significant negative relationships between tenure and the career establishment preoccupations subscale, the career adaptation preoccupations subscale and the work–life adjustment preoccupations subscale were found. This indicates that the level of experience of an individual could potentially have a negative impact on the concerns that they have toward their work and the proactive behaviour that they develop in terms of satisfying these concerns. This finding aligns to previous studies which indicated that the amount of career experience that individuals have would have a significant impact on the level of career preoccupations that individuals develop (Coetzee, 2016; João & Coetzee, 2012).

#### *6.5.3.2 Relationship between the independent variables, mediating variable and the dependent construct variable*

COR theory (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002) holds that individuals who already have certain psychosocial career resources are able to accumulate other resources, which leads to the acquisition of outcome resources. Conversely, COR theory states that individuals who do not possess certain psychosocial resources may find it difficult to obtain other psychosocial resources and outcome resources (Hobfoll, 2002). The over-investment of proactive behaviour related to the acquisition of psychosocial career resources may result in the depletion of outcome resources (Strauss et al., 2017). According to research on SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000), individuals can utilise their intrinsic motivators to develop psychosocial resources and obtain outcome resources (Halbesleben et al., 2014).

Table 6.7 is relevant to this section. The career wellbeing profile indicates that the intrinsic motivator and psychosocial career resource of harmonious passion was significantly and positively related to the development and maintenance of the psychological career resources subscales of career preferences, career values, career enablers, career harmonisers and with the overall PCRI scale. As aligned to the findings of Vallerand (2015), the implication for career wellbeing is that when certain work-related activities take up a balanced position in an individual's identity, they are likely to be able to make career decisions, have benchmarks in place against which career progress can be measured, be able to transfer their skills to assist them to progress their careers, invest their energy in career-related activities and maintain a balance between their psychological career resources. The intrinsic motivator and psychosocial career resource of passion prevalence had a significant positive relationship with career values, career enablers, career drivers and career harmonisers and with the overall PCRI scale. As aligned with the findings of Vallerand (2015), this suggests that when

individuals are passionate about their work they are likely to invest their energy in their careers, have goals and outcomes in place against which their careers are measured, are able to transfer their skills to their career activities and can ensure that their career drivers are kept in balance.

The results indicated a significant negative relationship between harmonious passion and career adaptation preoccupations. The implication for career wellbeing is that individuals who have high levels of the intrinsic motivator and psychosocial resource of harmonious passion toward their work may have low levels of concern with being employable, adapting to the career environment and learning new skills in order to ensure long-term employment (Coetzee, 2014b). This finding was counter-intuitive as it was expected that individuals who have high levels of harmonious passion would also have high levels of career adaptation preoccupations. The implication for career wellbeing practices is that individuals who have harmonious passion toward their work may not be aware of the proactive behaviours that they need to show to satisfy their career adaptation preoccupations. This result may be explained by the arguments of Vallerand (2015) that indicate that individuals are concerned about a wide variety of career needs and not just specific career needs (such as career adaptation preoccupations).

Significant positive relationships were found between overall occupational passion, passion prevalence, harmonious passion and career satisfaction respectively. This suggests that individuals who possess the intrinsic motivator of being passionate toward their work and more specifically have harmonious passion toward their work will experience greater levels of the outcome resource of career satisfaction. This finding aligns to the research of Burke et al. (2014) that indicate that individual's harmonious passion are related to their contentment in their jobs and careers.

In terms of the relationship between the psychological career resources subscales and the psychosocial career preoccupations subscales, it was found that a positive relationship existed between career values and career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations. This finding aligns to previous research which indicates that individuals who have clear goals and benchmarks in place with regard to their career outcomes are also likely to experience preoccupations with fitting into their organisations, developing their skills, adapting to their career environments and creating greater balance between work and their personal lives (Coetzee, 2008, 2014b). The implication for career wellbeing theory is that when individuals display proactive behaviour to satisfy their career concerns the behaviour should be supported by well-developed career values in order to buffer against the depletion of other psychosocial resources and outcome resources (Halbesleben et al., 2014).

The results showed that career enablers were significantly positively related to career satisfaction. This means that individuals who are able to transfer their skills to their careers are more satisfied with their careers. The career drivers subscale and the career harmonisers subscale also showed significant positive relationships with career satisfaction. This implies that individuals who are willing to invest their energy in their careers will experience greater career satisfaction. Also, individuals who can keep their career drivers resources in balance with the career harmonisers resources will be able to obtain outcome resources such as career satisfaction. The results show that individuals who have high levels of overall psychological career resources are likely to experience greater satisfaction with their careers. These findings align to previous research which indicates that career satisfaction is aligned to the positive investment of energy and motivation, goal-orientated behaviour, proactive behaviour, skills development and positive self-esteem, behavioural adaptability and emotional literacy (Abele & Spurk, 2009a, 2009b; Ng et al., 2005; Ng & Feldman, 2014). The implication for career wellbeing theory is that individuals should be encouraged to develop well-rounded psychological career wellbeing profiles in order to obtain outcome resources such as career satisfaction and to buffer against the over-investment of their psychosocial resources.

Significant positive relationships between the career establishment preoccupations subscale and the career adaptation preoccupations subscale and career satisfaction were found respectively. This means that individuals who have greater concerns about settling into their jobs, achieving career security, adapting to their career environments and being concerned with the development of skills and knowledge to be more employable are likely to experience greater career satisfaction. This aligns to previous research which indicates that the continuous investment of proactive behaviour related to the satisfaction of career concerns is related to greater career satisfaction (Abele & Spurk, 2009a, 2009b; Ng et al., 2005; Ng & Feldman, 2014). Career practitioners should assist individuals to be aware of their career concern to ensure greater career satisfaction.

#### **6.5.4 Empirical research aim 2: Interpretation of the multilevel mediation analysis**

**Research aim 2:** To determine whether individuals' psychological career resources (career drivers, career harmonisers, career preferences and career values) and psychosocial career preoccupations (career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work-life adjustment preoccupations) significantly mediate the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction (this aim relates to H2).

The results obtained yielded support for research hypothesis 2.

Multilevel mediation analysis indicated model 1 as the best fit model. Model 1 tested (1) the pathway from harmonious passion to career satisfaction, (2) the indirect (mediating) effect of career preferences on the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction, (3) the indirect (mediating) effect of career values on the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction, (4) the indirect (mediating) effect of career enablers on the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction, (5) the indirect (mediating) effect of career drivers on the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction, (6) the indirect (mediating) effect of career harmonisers on the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction, (7) the indirect (mediating) effect of career establishment preoccupations on the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction, (8) the indirect (mediating) effect of career adaptation preoccupations on the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction and (9) the indirect (mediating) effect of work–life adjustment preoccupations on the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction. The findings indicated that career preferences, career drivers, career harmonisers and career adaptation preoccupations mediated the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction.

The multilevel mediation modelling revealed harmonious passion as antecedent of high levels of career satisfaction through unclear career preferences (i.e. implying flexibility in career paths), strong career drivers (i.e. clear career plans and goals and drive/motivation to achieve them), strong career harmonisers (agentive attributes that support wellbeing such as positive self-esteem, behavioural adaptability, emotional literacy, social connectivity) and high career adaptation needs (i.e. need for upskilling/employability concerns).

The results from the multilevel mediation modelling revealed that unclear career preferences (i.e. the ability to adjust one's career choices, preferences and career paths) would strengthen the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction. This finding is supportive of previous research which indicates that adaptability and flexibility in one's career is related to the successful attainment of career outcomes (Chan et al., 2015; Savickas, 2013). Career management practices that focus on career wellbeing should encourage individuals to take a flexible approach in terms of choosing a career and adapting to the complexities of the contemporary career environment to ensure increased harmonious passion and career satisfaction (Savickas, 2013; Vallerand, 2015).

It was established that strong career drivers (clear career plans and drive to explore career development opportunities) would strengthen the link between harmonious passion and career satisfaction. This finding supports previous research which indicates that intrinsic motivational resources can be implemented to strengthen psychosocial resources (Halbesleben et al.,

2014) and enhance subjective career experiences (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009). The implication for career wellbeing theory and practices is that individuals should be supported to invest their energy, motivation, plans and drive toward their career outcomes to ensure the strengthening of the relationship between their harmonious passion and career satisfaction. Employees should furthermore be encouraged to invest their energy, drive and motivation in the activities that they have harmonious passion for as it could subsequently lead to greater levels of career satisfaction (Abele & Spurk, 2009b; Coetzee, 2008; Vallerand, 2015).

The results revealed that career harmonisers (such as emotional literacy, positive self-esteem and social connectivity) strengthen the link between harmonious passion and career satisfaction. This finding is congruent with previous research which indicates that the regulation, management and understanding of one's emotions, building meaningful professional relationships and having positive self-regard will increase one's positive subjective career experiences, harmonious passion and career satisfaction (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2010; Vallerand, 2015). Career management practices that focus on career wellbeing should assist individuals to enhance their career harmonisers in order to recognise their emotions, manage their behaviour, build positive professional relationships and value themselves which would potentially enhance their harmonious passion and career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2008, 2013; Vallerand, 2015; Ng & Feldman, 2014).

The multilevel mediation modelling indicated that career adaptation preoccupations would strengthen the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction. This means that harmonious passion is an antecedent of high levels of career satisfaction through high levels of career concerns related to employability, adapting to the changing career environment and upskilling oneself to be more employable (Coetzee, 2014b). Strauss et al., (2017) caution that the continuous investment of proactive behaviour related to the satisfaction of career concerns may potentially deplete outcome resources in the absence of other positive psychosocial resources. Career wellbeing practices should encourage employees to be positively concerned with their employability, upskilling and being adaptable, develop proactive behaviour to satisfy these concerns and develop other positive psychological career resources to protect them against the loss of outcome resources. This would potentially result in the strengthening of the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction.

The results of the multilevel mediation modelling can be used to expand the theory on career wellbeing in terms of understanding the intrinsic motivators and psychosocial resources that may strengthen or deplete the relationship dynamics between the intrinsic motivator of occupational passion and the outcome resource of career satisfaction. Career theory which studies the relationship between intrinsic motivators, as defined by the SDT (Deci & Ryan,

2000), that can be used to manage, obtain and protect psychosocial career resources and outcome resources, as defined by the COR theory (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002), was extended by providing new insights into the relationship dynamics between the intrinsic motivators, psychosocial resources and outcome resources of harmonious passion, flexible career preferences, strong career drivers, strong career harmonisers, clear career adaptation preoccupations and career satisfaction.

In essence, the utilisation of career drivers as balanced out by career harmonisers results in a strengthened relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction. Career adaptation preoccupations and the positive proactive behaviour related to the satisfaction of these preoccupations results in a strengthened relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction. The career wellbeing profile pointed out that the inflexible behaviour related to having clearly defined career preferences may result in the depletion of the positive relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction in the absence of other positive psychosocial resources. These findings align to previous research which indicate that unclear career preferences and adaptability (Savickas, 2013; Tladinyane, 2013), the investment of motivation and drive (Coetzee, 2013), strong career harmonisers (Coetzee, 2008) and clarity in terms of career needs (Coetzee, 2014b) are related to the acquisition of career outcomes.

### **6.5.5 Empirical research aim 3: Interpretation of the structural equation modelling (SEM) results**

**Research aim 3:** Based on the overall statistical relationships between the dependent and independent variables, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations as mediating variables to explore whether there is a good fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model (this aim relates to H3).

The results obtained provided support for research hypothesis 3.

The results of the SEM revealed that the theoretically conceptualised career wellbeing model had a satisfactory fit with the empirically manifested structural model. Two goodness-of-fit models were tested and the best model fit indicated the validity of considering harmonious passion as an important antecedent of career satisfaction through the psychosocial resources of unclear career preferences (i.e. implying flexibility in career paths), strong career drivers (i.e. clear career plans and goals and the drive and motivation to achieve them), strong career harmonisers (agentic attributes that support wellbeing such as positive self-esteem,

behavioural adaptability, emotional literacy, social connectivity) and high career adaptation preoccupations (i.e. needs for upskilling and employability concerns).

The career wellbeing-related constructs of harmonious passion, career preferences, career drivers, career harmonisers, career adaptation preoccupations and career satisfaction were therefore regarded as the core elements of the empirically manifested psychosocial profile of career wellbeing.

The link between harmonious passion and career satisfaction holds several benefits for career management practices in terms of enhancing the career satisfaction/ career wellbeing of adult workers. The findings from the SEM is in alignment with several studies that pointed out that harmonious passion is aligned to feelings of contentment, satisfaction and wellbeing in one's work, career and life (Vallerand et al., 2010, 2014; Vallerand, 2012). Studies show that the balanced internalisation of work-related activities into an individual's self-concept holds several benefits for individual satisfaction and wellbeing as individuals can engage with several work-related activities and build positive work relationships without constantly obsessing and thinking about the activities that they have passion for (Burke et al., 2014).

Research shows that as harmonious passion results in continuous positive experiences, as well as positive emotions during activity engagement, it leads to increases in contentment with life and work (Vallerand et al., 2010, 2014; Vallerand, 2012). As harmonious passion stimulates the balanced internalisation of work-related activities into an individual's self-concept it results in the development and upskilling of several activities, positive professional relationships and adaptive behaviour which is associated with career satisfaction (Fernet et al., 2014; Ng & Feldman, 2014). As harmonious passion is associated with goal-orientated behaviour in relation to the work activities that individuals enjoy, perceive as meaningful and are free from contingencies (Vallerand, 2015) it may result in greater levels of career satisfaction. Schellenberg and Bailis (2015) indicate that individuals with harmonious passion for two activities report higher levels of subjective wellbeing than individuals with harmonious passion for only one activity.

The finding that obsessive passion was not related to career satisfaction may provide support to previous studies which have indicated that the controlled internalisation of work-related activities into an individual's self-concept results in rigorous activity engagement, obsessive behaviour, poor interpersonal relationships, dissatisfaction and illbeing (Houffort et al., 2014; Rousseau & Vallerand, 2008). The finding that passion prevalence was not related to career satisfaction was a counter-intuitive finding as it was expected that high levels of passion would result in perseverance and the achievement of career outcomes such as career satisfaction

(Vallerand, 2015). This outcome implies that individuals should not merely have passion toward their work to experience career satisfaction, but develop harmonious passion in order to experience greater levels of career satisfaction and subsequently career wellbeing.

In addition, the model revealed that unclear career preferences (implicating adaptability in career choices and paths) would strengthen the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction. The result is contradictory to the findings of Coetzee and Schreuder (2012) which indicate that individuals with well-defined and well-differentiated career preferences tend to have increased levels of subjective career wellbeing. However, the findings from the current research support previous research findings which indicate that variety in career preferences (Tladinyane, 2013), career venturing (taking risks in order to find and explore different career opportunities) (Coetzee, 2013) and career adaptability and flexibility in terms of coping with the changes of the contemporary career environment (Arthur, 2014; Savickas, 2013) result in greater career satisfaction. Furthermore, the finding can also be explained by the research of Vallerand (2015) which states that harmonious passion is developed by the interaction and enjoyment of a wide variety of work activities (i.e. the lack of preferences for specific work activities).

The final hypothesised model revealed that career drivers would strengthen the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction. This finding aligns to previous research which indicates that as career drivers consist of individuals' sense of career directedness, career purpose and career exploration attitudes career drivers provide individuals with the energy, motivation and drive to obtain career outcomes (Coetzee, 2013). Furthermore, as career drivers facilitate the experimenting with new or alternate career and employment options that are grounded on their perspectives of the potential selves they might become or the potential employment positions they might fulfil (Coetzee, 2013), it may result in a stronger relationship between harmonious passion (which is associated with the investment of energy, drive and passion toward a variety of activities [Schellenberg & Bailis, 2015]) and career satisfaction (which is associated career adaptability, energetic proactive behaviour and flexibility [Ng & Feldman, 2014; Savickas, 2013]).

The model indicated that career harmonisers would strengthen the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction. Career harmonisers entail individuals' behavioural adaptability, self-esteem, social connectivity and emotional literacy. As career harmonisers facilitate adaptability and resilience, and function as controls by balancing the career drivers to ensure that individuals do not overly invest their energies (or burn themselves out) in the course of managing and reinventing their careers (Coetzee, 2008) it may result in a stronger relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction. Also, well-

developed career harmonisers, which are intrinsically developed psychological attitudes, will motivate an individual to engage in activities without the need to satisfy intrinsic contingencies such as behavioural adaptability, self-esteem, social connectivity and emotional literacy may result in increased harmonious passion and greater career contentment (Coetzee, 2013; Vallerand, 2015).

The career wellbeing profile indicated that the psychological career resources subvariable of career values did not have a significant effect on the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2008). As career values represent the motivation for specific career preferences, goals and outcomes it was expected that career values would stimulate goal-orientated behaviour that would strengthen the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2008). A possible explanation for this finding is that flexibility in career goals, preferences, motivations and aspirations as opposed to clearly defined career goals and outcomes would facilitate an increase in harmonious passion and career satisfaction (Ng & Feldman, 2014; Vallerand, 2015)

The profile also indicated that career enablers did not have a significant effect on the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction. This was a counter-intuitive finding as it was expected that individuals' transferable skills for example their practical or creative skills, and intrapersonal and interpersonal relationship skills that assist them to have satisfactory careers would strengthen the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction. A possible explanation for this finding could be that individuals place more emphasis on their intrinsically motivated psychological career resources of career drivers, career harmonisers and flexibility in career preferences than the learned behaviour related to career enablers when managing their career wellbeing.

The final hypothesised model indicated that career adaptation preoccupations would strengthen the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction. As career adaptation preoccupations refer to the employability-related needs and concerns regarding the changing contexts that may include career adaptations and adjustments in career interests, aptitudes and competences to ensure better employability it would strengthen the relationship between harmonious passion (which is developed by being passionate about a range of different work activities [Schellenberg & Bailis, 2015]) and career satisfaction (which is characterised by career adaptability and flexibility [Ng & Feldman, 2014]).

The finding that career establishment preoccupations did not affect the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction was a counter-intuitive finding. It was expected that the concerns regarding career and financial security and stability, fitting into an

organisation and group, ensuring possibilities for professional development and self-expression and progressing in one's career within the current organisation (Coetzee, 2014) would strengthen harmonious passion (which is characterised by strong interpersonal relationships, goal orientated behaviour and harmony with the employment environment [Vallerand, 2015] and career satisfaction (which is related to employability, career advancement and goal-orientated behaviour [Ng & Feldman, 2014]).

The finding that work–life adjustment preoccupations, which are related to concerns about retirement, establishing better harmony between work and personal life, reductions in workload and withdrawing from remunerated employment altogether, did not affect the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction was a counter-intuitive finding. As harmonious passion and career satisfaction are both related to greater work-life balance it was expected that the proactive behaviour related to work–life adjustment preoccupations would strengthen the relationship dynamics between the two constructs (Coetzee, 2014b; Ng & Feldman, 2014; Vallerand, 2015). A possible explanation for this finding could be that as the average age of the participants was 34 which meant that they would be in the career establishment life stage which is associated with more concern about fitting into the employment environment, skills development, secure and stable employment than retirement and work-life balance (Super, 1952, 1990).

Career management practices that focus on career wellbeing should thus emphasise the development of harmonious passion as opposed to obsessive passion. Individuals should be encouraged to internalise their work-activities in a balanced manner by focusing on a wide variety of career activities that may facilitate the development of career satisfaction. Also, individuals who display obsessive passion toward certain work activities (i.e. the controlled internalisation of work activities into an individual's self-concept due to the contingencies related to that activity) should be encouraged to engage in a wider variety of career activities (Schellenberg & Bailis, 2015).

Industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners should support individuals to develop various career options and career paths (i.e. flexibility in career preferences) in order to strengthen the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction. Career management practices that focus on career wellbeing should encourage individuals to invest their career drivers (energy, drive and motivation toward achieving career outcomes [Coetzee, 2008]) toward a wide variety of career activities to facilitate the development of harmonious passion and subsequently greater career satisfaction.

Career wellbeing support interventions should emphasise the importance of high levels of behavioural adaptability, self-esteem, social connectivity and emotional literacy as it facilitates the balanced internalisation of work-related activities into the individual's self-concept and contentment with their career progress and outcomes. Career management practices that focus on career wellbeing should base their interventions on the employability-related needs and concerns regarding the changing contexts that may include career adaptations and adjustments in career interests, aptitudes and competences to ensure better employability of individuals as it supports the development of harmonious passion and career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2014b, 2015).

The final hypothesised model advanced career theory by providing supportive evidence for the findings of Halbesleben et al. (2014) who established that intrinsic motivators (as defined by the SDT [Deci & Ryan, 2000]) would contribute significantly to the acquisition, management and protection of psychosocial resources and outcome resources (as outlined by the COR theory [Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002; Hobfoll et al., 2015]).

Next, the integration of the results for the stepwise regression analysis and the hierarchical moderated regression is provided.

#### **6.5.6 Empirical research aim 4: Interpretation of the stepwise regression modelling and the hierarchical moderated regression results**

**Research aim 4:** To determine whether individuals' sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) significantly moderate the relationship between the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction) (this aim relates to H4).

The results obtained did not provide support for research hypothesis 4.

As a result of the number of sociodemographic variables, stepwise regression analysis was conducted to determine the best sociodemographic predictors that could be used in the moderated regression analysis. The first stepwise regression model revealed that job level and occupational passion are significant predictors of career satisfaction. The second regression model indicated that race, job level and psychological career resources are significant predictors of career satisfaction. Finally, the third stepwise regression model indicated that psychosocial career preoccupations and job level are significant predictors of career satisfaction. The results of the stepwise regression modelling were used in the hierarchical moderated regression analysis to determine the significant predictors of career satisfaction.

The outcomes of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis indicated that main effects were evident but no interaction (moderating) effects were observed between the key sociodemographic variables (1) job level (occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and (2) race (psychological career resources) in predicting career satisfaction.

The dominant role that job level (occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) played in terms of predicting career satisfaction can be explained by the sponsored mobility model of career success (Ng et al. 2005) which indicates that the job level that an individual is in would impact the amount of resources that the organisation bestows onto them which is aligned to the satisfaction that they have with their careers. Fernet et al. (2014) indicate that the position that an individual is in within an organisation influences their autonomy which is related to the development of passion toward their work and finally the satisfaction that they have with their careers. Coetzee and Bergh (2009) found that job level was associated with the psychological career resources that were observed (for example managerial career preferences) and the subjective career experiences of individuals.

Whilst considering career construction theory (Savickas, 2005, 2011, 2013), Sharf (2010) argues that individuals' career life stories will indicate their foremost preoccupations associated to the development tasks of adaptability based on the knowledge that they have of their current/previous or future position or job level. For example, (1) career exploration concerns and needs may be related to stories related to what they had learnt in entry-level positions and part time positions; (2) life stories reflecting career establishment preoccupations may be related to concerns about climbing the organisational ladder and knowing the basic requirements of the position that they are in; (3) management preoccupations are reflected in stories about concerns of moving into roles of more responsibility and (4) stories reflecting disengagement preoccupations are related with concerns about losing a certain position or job level within an organisation (Sharf 2010).

The dominant role that race (psychological career resources) played in terms of predicting career satisfaction can be explained by employment legislation such as the Employment Equity Act (Republic of South Africa, 1998) which impacts the employment opportunities that certain race groups have. Coetzee (2008) found that race played a significant role in terms of the types of psychological career resources that individuals developed and subsequently their ability to achieve certain career outcomes.

To summarise, the stepwise regression analysis and the hierarchical moderated regression analysis contributed to the construction of the career wellbeing profile by establishing the main effects that job level and race play in terms of predicting career satisfaction. South African organisations that implement career management practices that focus on career wellbeing should be aware that job level and race influence the level of career satisfaction that individuals have. Career wellbeing interventions should thus be customised in line with the individuals' racial background and job level.

Next, the interpretation of the results for the tests for significant mean differences is provided.

#### **6.5.7 Empirical research aim 5: Interpretation of the tests for significant mean differences results**

**Research aim 5:** To determine whether individuals from diverse sociodemographic groups differ significantly regarding their occupational passion, type of passion, career satisfaction and application of psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations (this aim relates to H5).

Tables 6.28 to 6.33 are relevant to this section.

Race (career preferences, career drivers and career harmonisers) and job level (harmonious passion, career preferences, career drivers, career harmonisers and career adaptation preoccupations) were identified as being significant predictors of career satisfaction by means of the stepwise regression analysis and the hierarchical moderated regression analysis. This section provides insight into the mean differences for job level and race in terms of the core empirically manifested career wellbeing constructs (harmonious passion, career preferences, career drivers, career harmonisers, career adaptation preoccupations and career satisfaction). Additional sociodemographic variables are also discussed that may be significant in terms of the core constructs of the career wellbeing profile.

The results of the test for significant mean differences between the respective racial groups revealed that white individuals obtained significantly lower mean scores than black individuals for the construct of career adaptation preoccupations. The results were consistent with the findings of João and Coetzee (2012), who found that black individuals have greater concern with their careers than the other race groups. The findings in the current research could be explained by the findings of Coetzee and Stoltz (2015), who indicate that other race group have less concern with their careers in comparison to black individuals, because black individuals are provided with more opportunities to advance their careers. Legislation such as Black Economic Empowerment and Employment Equity (Republic of South Africa, 1998) have resulted in most career opportunities being reserved for individuals from previously

disadvantaged groups. The lower levels of concern displayed by the white group regarding their employment and upskilling could potentially result in a lack of proactive behaviour which could impede their ability to obtain career outcome resources such as career satisfaction. Career management interventions that focus on career wellbeing should support individuals from the white ethnicity group regarding the management and understanding of their career concerns and needs related to their upskilling, employment and remaining relevant in the job market.

When it came to job level several significant mean differences were observed for the core career wellbeing profile constructs. The results of the test for significant mean differences show that individuals who are working on a staff member level experience lower levels of harmonious passion than individuals who are in management as well as owner/executive/c-level roles. This finding is consistent with Burke et al.'s (2014) results, which suggest that individuals who are in lower job levels would work longer hours, invest more energy, and obsess over certain tasks to be promoted which in turn would drive obsessive passion rather than harmonious passion. These results could also be explained by the findings of Vallerand (2015), which state that passion drives perseverance and could assist individuals to climb the organisational ladder quicker. The implication for career wellbeing is that individuals at the lower levels of the organisational hierarchy should be supported to invest their energy and drive in activities that they enjoy and that would assist them to achieve their career outcomes. As individuals at the lower levels of the organisation may be at risk of not being passionate about their work, career management practices should focus on assisting individuals in these positions to clearly define the activities that they enjoy and are passionate about, which would contribute to the acquisition of career-related psychosocial resources and outcome resources.

The results show that individuals on the owner/executive/c-level obtained significantly higher results for the career preferences construct than individuals in lower job levels. This result was consistent with previous research which found that individuals who are in senior management positions have clearly defined career preferences and significantly higher levels of career purpose than individuals on the more junior levels (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009; Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010). Individuals on the lower levels of the organisation who aspire to move into positions of more responsibility should be supported to define their career preferences and outcomes, which would potentially have a positive impact on their ability to climb the organisational ladder.

The results of the test for mean differences show that individuals on a staff member level have higher levels of career adaptation preoccupations than individuals in managerial roles. This is an interesting finding as previous research shows that individuals on managerial levels would

typically have a higher level of concern with holding onto their position in the organisation than individuals in non-managerial positions (Sharf, 2010). This result could be because individuals in lower levels of the organisation may have less power over organisational resources, earn lower salaries and have less influence over their own employment than individuals in senior positions, which would make them feel more out of control in terms of satisfying their career adaptation preoccupations (Connelly, Haynes, Tihanyi, Gamache, & Devers, 2016). Eisenberger, Malone, and Presson (2016) argue that organisations should support their employees in managing their concerns about their employability and upskilling needs as it will have positive results for the organisation such as improved performance and staff engagement. Career wellbeing and career management practices should focus on equipping employees to develop and utilise proactive behaviour related to the satisfaction of their concerns related to being employable and upskilling themselves.

Individuals in managerial positions obtained significantly higher mean scores for career satisfaction than individuals in non-managerial positions. This means that individuals who are higher up in the organisational hierarchy are more satisfied with the progress that they have made in their careers than individuals in non-managerial positions. This supports previous research which states that there is a link between subjective career success (career satisfaction) and objective career success (e.g. job level) (Abele & Spurk, 2009b). The results can also be explained by the contest mobility model of career success, which indicates that individuals who are at the higher levels of the organisation will have more power over organisational resources which in turn will lead to more satisfaction with in their careers (Ng et al.2005). The implication that this holds for career wellbeing theory is that individuals at the lower levels of the organisation should be made aware of the psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators such as occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations that they must develop in order to obtain outcome resources such as promotions and career satisfaction.

The test for significant mean differences revealed a number of differences in other sociodemographic variables related to the core constructs of the career wellbeing profile.

In terms of gender, the results show that males scored significantly higher than females on the career preferences construct. This indicates that males have more clarity on the specific career paths that they would want to follow when compared to females. This finding is consistent with the research of Coetzee (2008), which established that males scored significantly higher than their female counterparts for the career preferences construct. Consequently, males should be assisted to consider a wide variety of career options, as the rigid persistence in following a

specific career path may result in obsessive behaviour, inflexibility and the depletion of career satisfaction.

The results showed significant mean differences between the respective age groups for the construct of harmonious passion. The 46–64 age group obtained significantly higher scores for harmonious passion in comparison to the 18–30 age group and the 31–45 age group. This finding is consistent with other studies which have found that middle-aged and older adults experience greater levels of harmonious passion toward their work than their younger counterparts (Vallerand, 2015). This finding could be explained by Super's (1952, 1990) career life stage theory, which holds that the environment in which younger individuals find themselves presents many challenges such as adjusting to new roles involving work, family and social life which could potentially result in obsessive rather than harmonious passion. As harmoniously passionate individuals are more able to obtain outcome resources such as career satisfaction (Vallerand et al., 2010), younger employees should be encouraged to focus their energy and passions on a wide variety of different career-related activities to ensure that the intrinsic motivator and psychosocial resource of harmonious passion is developed and protected.

The results of the test for significant mean differences show that the 18–30 age group obtained significantly higher mean scores for career adaptation preoccupations. This means that this age group has significantly higher concerns about being employed, adapting to their environment and upskilling themselves within the work environment than the other age groups. The 31–45 age group also obtained significantly higher scores than the 46–64 age group and the 65 years and older group, which means that individuals who fall into this age group also experience greater levels of concern relating to their ability to adapt to the work environment than their older counterparts. Younger individuals should thus be assisted to develop proactive behaviours and psychosocial resources that would equip them to satisfy these career-related concerns (Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee et al., 2014).

The results indicate that the 65 years and older age group experience the greatest levels of career satisfaction. In turn, the 46–64 age group obtained significantly higher scores for career satisfaction than the 18–30 age group and the 31–45 age group. This implies that older individuals are more satisfied with their careers than their younger counterparts. This was an interesting finding as it contradicts the research of Jung and Takeuchi (2014) who found that younger individuals are more able to invest energy and implement career self-management practices which would lead to greater career satisfaction. The results of the current research could potentially be explained by the fact that older individuals have achieved their career outcomes and have had more time to assess their career progress objectively. The implication

for career wellbeing practices is that younger individuals should be supported to develop psychosocial resources such as occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations, which would facilitate the achievement of outcome resources such as career satisfaction.

Moe (2016) found that harmonious passion would increase the longer an individual was employed by an organisation. The results of the current research replicated Moe's (2016) findings by indicating that individuals with 21 years and more years of tenure achieved significantly higher levels of harmonious passion than individuals with one to five years' tenure and six to ten years' tenure. This result could be explained by the fact that when individuals have more experience they may understand the value of balancing work-related activities to achieve both career goals and outcome resources. Individuals with low tenure should be encouraged to focus their energy and passion on a wide variety of activities that would assist them to positively internalise their work and achieve career outcome resources such as career satisfaction.

The results show that individuals who have been employed for 21 years or longer achieved significantly higher scores for career drivers than individuals in the one to five years' tenure group. This implies that individuals with more experience have a greater propensity to invest their time and energy in achieving their career goals. Career wellbeing and career management practices should focus on supporting individuals with less experience to utilise their energy and motivation in alignment with work-related goals, outcomes and the acquisition of psychosocial career resources (Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee et al., 2014).

The results also showed that individuals in the one to five years' tenure group obtained significantly lower mean scores than the 11 to 20 years tenure group and the 21 years or more tenure group for career adaptation preoccupations. Individuals in the six to ten years' tenure group also obtained significantly lower scores for career adaptation preoccupations than individuals in the 21 years or more group. This implies that the participants with less experience had greater levels of concern regarding their ability to adapt and upskill themselves within the modern work environment. The results could be explained by the findings of Coetzee (2015), who found a negative relationship between career adaptation preoccupations and a propensity to commit to a single employer (i.e. low tenure). Individuals with short tenure should be assisted to develop the skills and proactive behaviour that would make them more employable and adaptable within the unpredictable contemporary work environment which would potentially have a positive impact on the levels of career concerns that they have.

Based on the above discussion, it can be deduced that sociodemographic differences should be taken into consideration when developing a career wellbeing profile. The sociodemographic variables of race, gender, age, job level and tenure showed differences with the core career wellbeing constructs, and are thus of great importance when developing a career wellbeing profile.

#### **6.5.8 Synthesis: Constructing a psychosocial career wellbeing profile for South African working adults**

The central hypothesis of this study was that the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion) would have both a positive and negative indirect relationship with the outcome variable (career satisfaction) through psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations (as mediating variables). The hypothesis also assumed that the link between occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction is moderated by individuals' sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure). The assumption was made that the relationship would be either more negative or more positive for some sociodemographic groups than others. Finally, a psychosocial model for career wellbeing within the South African context can potentially be developed, based on the empirically manifested relationship dynamics between the variables.

With exception of the moderating effects of the sociodemographic variables, the results from the empirical study provided support for the central hypothesis. The empirical results revealed harmonious passion as an important antecedent of career satisfaction through the psychosocial resources of unclear career preferences (i.e. implying flexibility in career paths), strong career drivers (i.e. clear career plans and goals and the drive and motivation to achieve them), strong career harmonisers (agentic attributes that support wellbeing such as positive self-esteem, behavioural adaptability, emotional literacy, social connectivity) and high career adaptation preoccupations (i.e. needs for upskilling and employability concerns). The results also revealed race and job level as important sociodemographic variables to consider in terms of predicting career satisfaction and that the differences between the respective race, gender, age, job level and tenure groups should be considered when providing career wellbeing interventions.

The strong link between harmonious passion and career satisfaction implies that individuals who internalise their career-related tasks into their self-concepts in an autonomous manner will experience greater contentment with their career outcomes and progress. As content and satisfied employees hold several benefits for individuals and organisations such as organisational commitment (Sukriket, 2015; Tschopp, Grote, & Gerber, 2014), effective

transitions between organisations (Supeli & Creed, 2016), better fit with their work environments (Supeli & Creed, 2016), improved job performance (Trivellas, Kakkos, Blanas, & Santouridis, 2015) and greater wellbeing (Blaauw & Pretorius, 2013), career management interventions which focus on career wellbeing should assist individuals to develop harmonious passion.

The results revealed that older individuals, individuals in owner/management positions and individuals with longer tenure tend to have higher levels of harmonious passion than younger individuals, individuals in non-managerial positions and those with short tenure. Career wellbeing interventions should thus focus on assisting younger, non-managerial and less-tenured individuals to focus on a wide array of work and career-related activities to internalise them into their self-concepts, which would subsequently lead to a balanced approach to career management and subsequently higher levels of career satisfaction. Individuals should be assisted to develop their psychosocial career resources in order to develop, maintain and buffer against the loss of the psychosocial resource and intrinsic motivator of harmonious passion.

The results showed that individuals who are flexible in their career choices and predilections toward their career outcomes (career preferences) (Coetzee, 2008) would experience increases in the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction. This means that individuals who have harmonious passion, but are rigorous in the pursuit of clearly defined career choices and paths, will experience lower levels of career satisfaction even though harmonious passion leads to positive experiences (Vallerand & Rapaport, 2017).

The results revealed that males and owner/managers have higher levels of career preferences than females and individuals in non-managerial positions, putting them at risk of potentially experiencing lower levels of harmonious passion and career satisfaction. Industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners should assist employees, and more specifically males and individuals in senior organisational positions, to develop an interest in a wide variety of activities that they could potentially become passionate about. Furthermore, individuals should be assisted to consider the various activities that they should develop and enhance, as aligned to their passions, in order to attain career outcomes such as career satisfaction. Individuals should be encouraged to consider numerous career options and develop diverse skills that would ensure their continuous employability in several career options (Van der Heijden et al., 2009).

The results revealed that career drivers strengthen the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction. This implies that individuals who invest energy, drive and

motivation in their work will experience more benefits in terms of the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction. The results identified the fact that staff members and less-tenured employees had lower levels of career drivers than their senior and more tenured colleagues. Individuals, more specifically junior and less tenured employees, should be supported to understand whether they are investing their career drivers in the activities that are aligned to their passions, as this should ultimately lead to career satisfaction. As in the case of the current study, where the participants had relatively lower levels of career drivers and career satisfaction, individuals should be supported to understand the intrinsic and extrinsic factors influencing their motivation and should then be supported to develop harmonious passion that would encourage the strengthening of their motivation for their career management (Burke et al., 2014). However, Coetzee (2008) points out that individuals with highly developed career drivers should also develop and implement their career harmonisers to buffer against the loss of outcome resources owing to the continuous investment of proactive behaviour related to career drivers.

It was established that career harmonisers strengthen the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction. Individuals with harmonious passion should thus be supported to develop positive self-esteem, the ability to adapt to the turbulent work environment, the ability to understand and interpret their own and others' emotions and to be connected to others in the organisation (Tladinyane, 2013) to experience greater career satisfaction. Individuals should also be advised that career harmonisers can protect individuals against the loss of resources such as harmonious passion and career satisfaction as a result of the investment of proactive behaviour related to the investment of their career drivers (Strauss et al., 2017).

Employee assistance programmes must assist individuals with lower levels of career harmonisers as it has been found that individuals with low self-esteem, and who lack social connectivity and emotional literacy, are prone to develop obsessive passion which is negatively related to career satisfaction (Vallerand, 2015). Individuals with harmonious passion should enjoy a wide variety of work activities as engagement in these activities if free from contingencies such as boosting their self-esteems (Johri & Misra, 2014). However, individuals who engage in activities merely to shore up their self-esteem, for example, may experience lower levels of harmonious passion and career satisfaction (Vallerand, 2015). Thus, these individuals should be supported to develop other psychosocial resources to strengthen their career harmonisers.

The results revealed that career adaptation preoccupations would strengthen the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction. This means that individuals who internalise their work-related activities in an autonomous manner will experience greater career

satisfaction if they are also concerned with their employability and their ability to adapt to the career environment (Coetzee, 2014b). The results also showed that individuals who are white, young, and in non-managerial positions and who are less tenured are at risk of being less preoccupied with their employability, long-term employment and their ability to fit into the career environment. This puts them at risk of potentially experiencing lower levels of harmonious passion and career satisfaction and should be provided with adequate support.

An overview of the empirically manifested career wellbeing profile is provided in Figure 6.2. This profile may be adopted when devising career management practices for enhancing the career wellbeing of working adults.

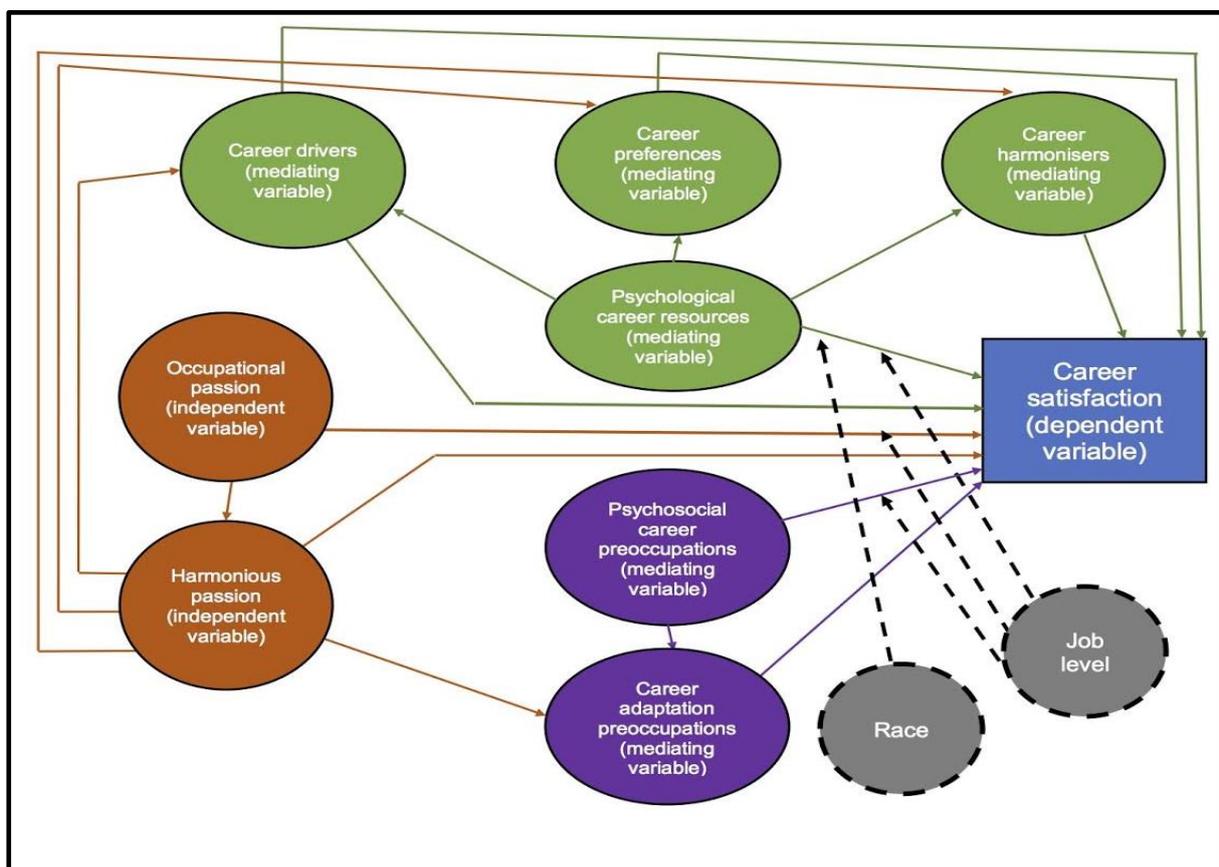


Figure 6.2: Empirically manifested career wellbeing profile

Career theory was enhanced by providing supportive evidence for the links between the core elements of the COR theory (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002) and SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000) which were considered as theoretical lenses through which the results in relation to the research hypotheses were interpreted. The link between the harmonious passion and career satisfaction provides support for Halbesleben et al.'s (2014) findings which indicate that intrinsic motivators can be utilised to obtain outcome resources. The finding that unclear career preferences, strong career drivers, strong career harmonisers and high career adaptation

preoccupations strengthen the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction provides support for one of the main outcomes of the COR theory (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002) which indicates that individuals who possess psychosocial resources have the ability to obtain and strengthen other psychosocial resources. The finding that clearly defined career preferences and the proactive behaviour related to obtaining specific career preferences would deplete the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction provided support for the findings of Schutte et al., (2017).

### 6.5.9 Decisions concerning the research hypotheses

Table 6.36 below provides a summary of the key conclusions regarding the research hypotheses.

Table 6.36

*Summary of the Main Findings Relating to the Research Hypotheses*

Research aim	Research hypothesis	Statistical procedures	Supportive evidence provided
<b>Research aim 1:</b> To explore the direction and magnitude of the statistical inter-correlations between the sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure), the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction).	<b>H1:</b> There are statistically significant inter-relationships between the sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure), the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction).	Correlation analysis	Yes
<b>Research aim 2:</b> To determine whether individuals' psychological career resources (career drivers, career harmonisers, career preferences and career values) and psychosocial career preoccupations (establishment, career adaptation and work–life adjustment) significantly mediate the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction	<b>H2:</b> Individuals' psychological career resources (career drivers, career harmonisers, career preferences and career values) and psychosocial career preoccupations (career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations) significantly mediate the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction.	Multilevel mediation modelling	Yes



Table 6.36 cont'd

Research aim	Research hypothesis	Statistical procedures	Supportive evidence provided
<b>Research aim 3:</b> Based on the overall statistical relationships between the dependent and independent variables, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations as mediating variables to explore whether there is a good fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model.	<b>H3:</b> Based on the overall statistical relationships between the independent variable (occupational passion) and dependent variable (career satisfaction), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) that there is a good fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model.	Structural equation modelling	Yes
<b>Research aim 4:</b> To determine whether individuals' sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) significantly moderate the relationship between the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction)	<b>H4:</b> Individuals' sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) significantly moderate the relationship between the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction).	Stepwise multiple regression  Hierarchical moderated regression	No
<b>Research aim 5:</b> To determine whether individuals from diverse sociodemographic groups differ significantly regarding their occupational passion, type of passion, career satisfaction and application of psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations	<b>H5:</b> The sociodemographic groups (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) will differ significantly regarding their occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction.	Tests for significant mean differences	Yes

## 6.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter provided the results of the preliminary statistical analysis, descriptive statistics, correlational statistics and inferential statistics to determine the nature of the empirical relationships between the occupational passion-related variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the psychological career resources variables (career preferences, career values, career enablers, career drivers and career harmonisers), the psychosocial career preoccupations variables (career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations), the

sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) and career satisfaction. The key conclusions from the literature in combination with the empirical research were interpreted and provided support for the research hypotheses.

The following research aims were achieved:

**Research aim 1:** To explore the direction and magnitude of the statistical inter-correlations between the sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure), the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction) (this research aim relates to research hypothesis H1).

**Research aim 2:** To determine whether individuals' psychological career resources (career drivers, career harmonisers, career preferences and career values) and psychosocial career preoccupations (career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations) significantly mediate the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction (this research aim relates to research hypothesis H2).

**Research aim 3:** Based on the overall statistical relationships between the dependent and independent variables, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations as mediating variables to explore whether there is a good fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model (this research aim relates to research hypothesis H3).

**Research aim 4:** To determine whether individuals' sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) significantly moderate the relationship between the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction) (this research aim relates to research hypothesis H4).

**Research aim 5:** To determine whether individuals from diverse sociodemographic groups differ significantly regarding their occupational passion, career satisfaction and application of psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations (this research aim relates to research hypothesis H5).

Chapter 7 addresses research aim 6, namely, to draw conclusions and recommendations for industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners for career management practices and determine proposals for future research in this field of industrial psychology and career wellbeing supportive management practices.

## CHAPTER 7

### CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter addresses research aim 6, namely, to draw conclusions and make recommendations for industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners regarding career management practices. The chapter also makes a number of proposals for future research in the field of industrial psychology, as well as for management practices that support career wellbeing.

#### 7.1 CONCLUSIONS

This section discusses the conclusions of this research, which are based on both the literature review and the empirical study, in accordance with the research aims outlined in Chapter 1.

##### 7.1.1 Conclusions relating to the literature review

The general aim of the research study was to explore the elements and nature of the psychosocial model of career wellbeing. This was done by exploring the relationship dynamics between various sociodemographic groups (race, gender, age, gender, qualification, job level and tenure) in terms of the variables occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and the outcome of career satisfaction, as well as how significantly individuals from the respective sociodemographic groups differ regarding these variables.

The conclusions relating to the relationship dynamics between the variables will be discussed by referring to each of the specific literature research aims for this study.

###### 7.1.1.1 Literature research aim 1

- To determine how the literature defines career wellbeing and career satisfaction within the contemporary world of work context

This first aim was achieved in Chapter 2.

The contemporary South African career environment is characterised by a number of changes that have taken place over the past few decades and include the challenges and ambiguity resulting from globalisation, as well as technological developments, greater levels of employee diversity and a greater need for skilled workers (Savickas, 2013; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016; Sullivan, 2013). Individuals who are constructing their careers in the midst of the modern career environment are finding it more challenging to manage their careers, to have meaningful career experiences and to be content with their career progress and achievement of career outcomes

(Arthur, 2014; Savickas, 2005, 2013). Furthermore, the dynamic and unpredictable work environment has meant that the responsibility for career management has shifted from the organisation to the individual (Merino-Tejedor et al., 2016).

The challenges and changes that have taken place in the contemporary work environment have resulted in career theorists defining new ways to conceptualise the modern career. The new ways have been termed the boundaryless, the protean, the global and the kaleidoscope career outlook, as well as the entrepreneurial approach to careers. These terms conceptualise the career movements that individuals make across boundaries in the endeavour to remain employable, adapt, be proactive and cope with the pressures of the modern workplace (Arthur, 2008; Fayolle & Liñán, 2014; Hall, 2004; Inkson et al., 2012; Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005; Savickas, 2005, 2013). Modern career theories agree that the challenging career environment has resulted in individuals being preoccupied with career-related concerns thus necessitating their engagement in proactive and adaptive behaviour to satisfy these concerns and achieve their career outcomes (Coetzee, 2014b). The extent to which individuals are satisfied with their career progress, outcomes and achievements is conceptualised as career satisfaction (Ng & Feldman, 2014), while consistent satisfaction with one's career over time is conceptualised as career wellbeing (Kidd, 2008).

The following conclusions, based on the literature review, can be made about career wellbeing in the complex and ever-changing contemporary workplace:

**(a) Career wellbeing (as measured in terms of career satisfaction) in the complex and ever-changing contemporary workplace**

- As the management and development of individuals' careers takes up a large part of their time, whether they experience career wellbeing or not has a major impact on their general wellbeing (Diener, 2013).
- Career wellbeing is described on a scale from flourishing (highly satisfied with career progress and outcomes over time) to languishing (highly dissatisfied with career progress and outcomes over time) (Rautenbach, 2015; Rothmann, 2014).
- Kidd (2008) suggests that career wellbeing consists of six components, namely, purpose and meaning, positive relationships with others, autonomy, employment, environmental mastery and professional growth.
- In line with the conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002), career wellbeing is perceived as an outcome resource that individuals aspire to attain.

- Career wellbeing holds several benefits for both the individual and the organisation, including career satisfaction (Alarcon & Lyons, 2011; Wright & Cropanzano, 2000); work engagement (Bakker & Oerlemans, 2011); creativity (Humes, 2011); higher levels of productivity (Patterson et al., 2004); positive interpersonal relationships (Gilson, 2006); organisational commitment behaviour (Makrides et al., 2007); corporate citizenship (González & Garazo, 2006), reduced organisational turnover (Mosadeghrad, 2014) and reduced absenteeism (Ho, 1997).
- Individuals are finding it challenging to manage their career wellbeing within the contemporary work environment due to the multitude of complexities and changes related to this environment and the need to develop psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators to ensure that they can attain and protect this wellbeing (Anderzén et al., 2015, Diener, 2013; Hobfoll et al., 2015; Kidd, 2008; Ryff & Singer, 2013).
- Race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure have been identified as sociodemographic variables that have an influence on individuals' career wellbeing (Colff & Rothmann, 2014; García-Bernal et al., 2005; Kidd, 2008; Rautenbach, 2015; Witter et al., 1984; Wu et al., 2015).

**(b) Career satisfaction in the complex and ever-changing contemporary workplace**

- Career satisfaction is seen as a subjective form of career success and is the estimation that individuals make regarding the achievement of their career outcomes (Ng & Feldman, 2014).
- Amid the changes and challenges in the modern world of work, individuals have to take responsibility for achieving their own career outcomes as organisations are no longer doing this for them (Greenhaus & Callanan, 2013; Merino-Tejedor et al., 2016).
- Amid the pressures and challenges of the contemporary career environment, proactive, flexible and autonomous behaviour in individuals positively affects their ability to navigate their careers and, ultimately, their perceptions of their own career success (Abele & Spurk, 2009b; Arthur, 2008, 2014; Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Greenhaus et al., 1990; Inkson et al., 2008; Ng et al., 2005; Ng & Feldman, 2010, 2014; Tams & Arthur, 2010).
- In line with COR theory and self-determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 2000), individuals' intrinsic motivators and their psychosocial resources can be utilised to develop proactive, flexible and autonomous behaviour which will have a positive impact on their ability to obtain outcome resources such as career satisfaction (Halbesleben et al., 2014).
- It was established that the relationship between career satisfaction and subjective wellbeing is reciprocal, meaning that when an individual experiences career satisfaction

they will also experience subjective wellbeing and vice versa (Abele-Brehm, 2014; Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Bowling et al., 2010; Hirschi, 2012; Lounsbury et al., 2004; Maggiori et al., 2013). Career satisfaction thus serves as an indicator of career wellbeing within the current research.

- Career satisfaction has been associated with greater levels of job commitment (Ballout, 2009; Barnett & Bradley, 2007, Wallace, 2001), increased objective career success such as salary and promotions (Seibert et al., 1999), mentorship behaviour (Allen et al., 2004), work morale (Anastasiadou, 2007; Kokou & Lerodiakonou, 2007; Martin & Roodt, 2008) and goal-orientated behaviour (Reitman & Schneer, 2003).
- The sociodemographic variables of race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure have been identified as having an influence on individuals' career satisfaction (Clark, 1997; Coetzee & Stoltz, 2015; Evers & Sieverding, 2014; Dolan et al., 2011; Gaziougly & Tansel, 2006; Kirchmeyer, 2005; Ng et al., 2005; Ng & Feldman, 2014; Shields & Cassada, 2016; Stoermer et al., 2017; Van Praag et al., 2003; Zacher, 2014).

Based on the findings of the literature review it was evident that the development of both career satisfaction and career wellbeing and the effect that these resources have on overall wellbeing, individual career outcomes and organisational outcomes, may offer a framework for supporting individuals to manage their careers effectively. If the elements that lead to career satisfaction and career wellbeing, namely, psychosocial resources, intrinsic motivators and sociodemographic variables, were fully understood, industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners would be better equipped to implement policies, strategies and interventions that meet the needs of the contemporary working adult.

#### *7.1.1.2 Literature research aim 2*

- To determine how the literature conceptualises occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations

The second aim was achieved in Chapter 3.

The following conclusions were drawn:

#### **(a) Occupational passion as an intrinsic motivator and psychosocial resource**

- Occupational passion was conceptualised as the work-related activities that engage, satisfy and energise individuals over time and which are internalised in an individual's self-concept (Vallerand et al., 2003).

- Passion is prevalent in an individual when they have a strong inclination to carry out a certain activity, they enjoy the activity and they take part in the activity on a frequent basis and the activity forms an important part of their identity (Vallerand, 2015).
- In line with COR theory (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002) and SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000), occupational passion is perceived as an intrinsic motivator and a psychosocial resource that can be utilised to obtain outcome resources such as career satisfaction and career wellbeing, as well as to attain and maintain other psychosocial resources (Hobfoll et al., 2015).
- The dualistic model of passion (Vallerand & Houliort, 2003) was influenced by SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000), which states that occupational passion can be internalised in a person's self-concept in either an autonomous (harmonious passion) manner or a controlled (obsessive passion) manner.
- As harmoniously passionate individuals are not constrained by obligatory work-related activities but rather decide freely to take part in them, there are several individual and organisational benefits related to harmonious passion (Vallerand, 2015). Some of these career benefits include improved professional and personal relationships (Lafrenière et al., 2011; Philippe et al., 2010); improved cognitive functioning (Mageau et al., 2005); the experience of flow and wellbeing (Philippe et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2008) and the presence of positive feelings (Mageau & Vallerand, 2007; Vallerand et al., 2006; Vallerand et al., 2008).
- Obsessive passion has been found to be related to negative behaviour such as the aggression, obsession, rigorous persistence, psychological addiction and defensive behaviour (Cardon et al., 2009; Vallerand, 2008, 2010; Vallerand & Houliort, 2003) that results in the depletion of other psychosocial resources and outcome resources such as career wellbeing and career satisfaction (Forest et al., 2011; Rousseau & Vallerand, 2008).
- The sociodemographic variables of race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure have been identified as having an influence on occupational passion in individuals (Astakhova et al., 2010; Burke et al., 2014; Carbonneau et al., 2008; Curren et al., 2015; Duncan et al., 2010; Ho et al., 2011; Nordström et al., 2016; Qadeer et al., 2016; Vallerand et al., 2007; Vallerand et al., 2010; Verner-Fillion et al., 2012).

The findings from the literature review made it clear that if occupational passion as an intrinsic motivator and psychosocial resource is developed successfully, it may assist individuals to obtain outcome resources such as career satisfaction. If the antecedents of occupational passion were understood within the South African career context it would provide industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners with a supportive framework for assisting

individuals to focus their passion on the career activities that hold the most intrinsic value and that would lead to the acquisition of career outcome resources.

**(b) Psychological career resources as an intrinsic motivator and psychosocial resource**

- Psychological career resources are meta-capacities which are reinforced by behaviours and aptitudes such as behavioural adaptability, career consciousness, self-insight and ability. They are utilised by individuals to obtain career outcomes and cope with the pressures of the ever-changing work environment (Coetzee, 2008, Ferreira et al., 2010; Hall & Chandler, 2005).
- Coetzee (2008) states that psychological career resources refer to an individual's career consciousness, which is defined as career preferences, career values, career enablers, career drivers and career harmonisers.
- Career preferences assist individuals to make career decisions as they align an individual to the career paths and choices that they would perceive as important and meaningful (Coetzee & Bergh, 2009).
- Career values serve as benchmarks against which individuals estimate the extent to which they are achieving their career outcomes; this influences the meaning that individuals attach to work and career (Sortheix et al., 2013).
- Career enablers are the transferable practical/creative skills and self/other skills that individuals implement to achieve their career outcomes (Coetzee, 2008).
- The career activities that motivate, drive and energise individuals to reach certain career-related goals are labelled as career drivers (Coetzee, 2008).
- Career harmonisers (such as self-esteem, behavioural adaptability, emotional literacy and social connectivity) are used to keep the career drivers intact by facilitating psychological resilience and adaptability; this results in an individual attaining career wellbeing (Coetzee, 2008).
- As informed by COR theory (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002) and SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000), psychological career resources are seen as intrinsic motivators and psychosocial resources that individuals implement to attain outcome resources such as career satisfaction and career wellbeing; however, they can also be used to attain and maintain other psychosocial resources (Hobfoll et al., 2015). Furthermore, psychological career resources can be utilised to protect against the loss or depletion of other positive psychosocial resources (Strauss et al., 2017).
- Race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure have been identified as sociodemographic variables that have an impact on the development of a well-rounded

psychological career resources profile (Coetzee, 2008, 2014a; Coetzee & Bergh, 2009; Coetzee & Esterhuizen, 2010; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2008; Ferreira et al., 2012; Kim et al., 2015; Symington, 2012; Venter, 2012).

The conclusions drawn from the literature review made it clear that the effective development of psychological career resources would assist individuals to have greater consciousness about their career development, management and wellbeing. It also became clear that psychological career resources could be implemented to assist individuals to cope with the demands of the ever-changing work environment, as well as to assist individuals to obtain other psychosocial resources such as occupational passion and outcome resources such as career satisfaction and career wellbeing. A better understanding of the role that psychological resources play in the acquisition of career outcomes would assist both industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners to develop interventions for addressing a lack or absence of certain psychological resources.

**(c) Psychosocial career preoccupations as an intrinsic motivator and psychosocial resource**

- Traditional career concepts do not factor in the career-related preoccupations that individuals have, owing to the rapid changes that have taken place and the challenges that are present in the contemporary work environment (Baruch et al., 2015; Maree, 2016b; Savickas, 2013).
- Coetzee (2014b) proposed a new framework related to the psychosocial career preoccupations that individuals may experience as part of their career life stories.
- Coetzee (2014b) states that psychosocial career preoccupations are not age-related and may manifest at any juncture in an individual's career.
- Psychosocial career preoccupations manifest as proactive and adaptive behaviour based on individuals' determination to satisfy their career-related concerns and establish improved alignment with their career environments (Coetzee, 2015).
- Career establishment preoccupations entail an individual's concerns about fitting into the group or organisation, experiencing job and career security and stability, as well as concerns about development and self-expression and growing in their careers (Coetzee, 2014b, 2015, 2016a, 2016b).
- Career adaptation preoccupations involve individuals' concerns related to their employability (Coetzee, 2016b). These concerns involve an individual's ability to adapt to the complex work environment, acquire knowledge and expertise and remain relevant within their field (Coetzee, 2014b).

- Psychosocial career preoccupations are intrinsic motivators and psychosocial resources that individuals can utilise to gain outcome resources such as career satisfaction, to gain other psychosocial resources and to develop proactive and adaptive behaviour that would protect against the loss of resources (Hobfoll et al., 2015; Strauss et al., 2017).
- Several sociodemographic variables such as race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure have been identified as having an influence on psychosocial career preoccupations (Beck & Wilson, 2000; Coetzee, 2015, 2016; Coetzee & Stoltz, 2015; João & Coetzee, 2012; Ferreira, 2012; Havenga, 2011; Perera & McIlveen, 2014; Sharf, 2010).

The inferences made from the literature review showed that industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners need a clear framework to understand the career concerns of employees, as this could have an impact on the acquisition of outcome resources such as career satisfaction. Furthermore, it became imperative to provide a framework to support industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners in assisting individuals to develop proactive and adaptive behaviour that would satisfy their career concerns.

#### *7.1.1.3 Literature research aim 3*

- To determine the theoretical elements of the psychosocial career wellbeing model that emerged from the relationship dynamics between the career constructs of occupational passion, career satisfaction, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations.

The third aim was achieved in Chapter 4.

The literature review revealed theoretical relationships between the career constructs of occupational passion, career satisfaction, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations.

#### **(a) Conclusions relating to the theoretical relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction**

Occupational passion may motivate individuals to achieve outcomes such as career satisfaction. The level and the manner (either autonomous or controlled) in which individuals internalise certain work-related activities will affect their level of career satisfaction. Harmoniously passionate individuals may experience greater career satisfaction than individuals who have obsessive passion toward their work.

**(b) Conclusions relating to the theoretical relationship between psychological career resources and career satisfaction**

Individuals with well-developed psychological career resources profiles may have more clarity on the goals, skills, aptitudes and intrinsic motivators that they need to utilise to obtain career outcome resources such as career satisfaction. Individuals with clearly defined career preferences may experience depleted levels of career satisfaction due to the inflexibility related to their career choices and options that they set for themselves. Individuals with clearly defined career values may experience greater career satisfaction as they would know against which outcomes to benchmark their level of career satisfaction. Individuals who utilise their career enablers would be able to apply their transferable skills and knowledge to obtain career satisfaction; individuals who utilise their career drivers would be more motivated and driven to achieve career satisfaction, whilst individuals with well-developed career harmonisers may be able to balance their career drivers and achieve greater levels of career satisfaction.

**(c) Conclusions relating to the theoretical relationship between psychological career resources and occupational passion**

As COR theory (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002) and SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000) specify, intrinsic motivators and psychological resources can be implemented to both acquire new resources and protect against the loss of resources. Moreover, individuals with well-developed psychological career resources may develop and maintain their occupational passion, while individuals with well-developed career values, career enablers and career harmonisers may experience increased levels of harmonious passion. Conversely, individuals with clearly defined career preferences, over-utilised career drivers in combination with the absence of career harmonisers may experience obsessive passion.

**(d) Conclusions relating to the theoretical relationship between psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction**

The psychosocial career preoccupations that individuals have may spur proactive and adaptive behaviour that would lead to the acquisition of the outcome resource of career satisfaction. However, individuals who continuously implement proactive behaviour to satisfy their concerns may experience less career satisfaction in the absence of other positive psychosocial resources (Halbesleben et al., 2014). On the other hand, individuals with career establishment preoccupations may be able to engage in proactive behaviour to satisfy their concerns related to employment security, fitting into the organisation and team and developing their skills, which may lead to career satisfaction. In addition, individuals with career adaptation preoccupations may develop proactive behaviour related to addressing their concerns related to their

employability and ability to adapt within the modern work environment, which may result in career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2014b). Individuals with work/life adjustment preoccupations, however, may be able to develop proactive behaviour to ensure that their concerns related to their retirement and work–life balance are satisfied, which may lead to greater career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2014b).

**(e) Conclusions relating to the theoretical relationship between psychosocial career preoccupations and occupational passion**

When individuals have concerns about career-related activities and outcomes it may lead to proactive and adaptive behaviour aimed at satisfying these concerns, which in turn may lead to harmonious passion. In line with previous research (Schutte et al., 2017), individuals may harness their passion toward their work to develop proactive behaviour and satisfy their career concerns. When individuals fixate on just a few specific career preoccupations, however, it may result in inflexibility, obsessive thoughts and the inability to disengage from certain activities which may in turn result in obsessive passion and the depletion of harmonious passion (Vallerand, 2015).

**(f) Conclusions relating to the theoretical relationship between psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations**

In line with COR theory (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002) and SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000), which states that intrinsic motivators and psychosocial resources can be utilised to obtain other resources and protect against the loss of resources, individuals with well-developed psychological career resources may be able to protect themselves against the loss of other resources through the use of proactive behaviour related to the satisfaction of their psychosocial career preoccupations.

**(g) Conclusions relating to the theoretical mediating role played by psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations in the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction**

The psychological career resources variables of unclear career preferences, strong career drivers and strong career harmonisers and the psychosocial career preoccupations variable of career adaptation preoccupations may strengthen the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction.

**(h) Conclusions relating to the theoretical moderating role played by the sociodemographic variables in the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction**

Race (psychological career resources) and job level (occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) may be key sociodemographic variables in predicting career satisfaction.

**(i) Conclusions relating to the theoretical differences between the sociodemographic variables for the research variables**

Individuals from different sociodemographic backgrounds (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) may differ significantly in terms of their ability to develop the career wellbeing-related psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction. Furthermore, these differences may affect the individual's ability to sustain their psychosocial resources and obtain outcome resources such as career satisfaction.

*7.1.1.4 Literature research aim 4*

- To determine the implications of the theoretically suggested psychosocial model of career wellbeing for career management practices.

The fourth research aim, namely, to determine the implications of the theoretically suggested psychosocial model of career wellbeing for career management practices, was achieved in Chapter 4.

It was clear from the literature review that the contemporary work environment has changed drastically over the past few decades. Socioeconomic influences such as globalisation, advances in technology, changes in workforce demographics, a greater need for skilled workers and less career support from organisations have had a significant impact on the evolution of careers (Savickas, 2013; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2016; Sullivan, 2013). Careers are becoming more boundaryless, protean, global and entrepreneurial, and as ever-changing and dynamic as a kaleidoscope (Arthur, 2008; Fayolle & Liñán, 2014; Hall, 2004; Inkson et al., 2012; Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005; Savickas, 2005, 2013). These changes have necessitated that individuals engage in proactive and adaptive behaviour in order to obtain their career outcomes and have satisfactory careers (Abele & Spurk, 2009b; Ng & Feldman, 2010, 2014; Ng et al., 2005). The extent to which individuals are satisfied with their careers on a consistent basis is labelled as career wellbeing (Creed & Blume, 2013; Kidd, 2008). However, within the complex and ambiguous modern work environment individuals are finding in increasingly

challenging to ensure their career wellbeing. Individuals thus need to develop intrinsic motivators and psychosocial resources in order to obtain the outcome resource of career satisfaction (which serves as an indicator of career wellbeing).

Within the current research study, a theoretical psychosocial career wellbeing model was developed, based on the information gleaned from the literature review. The model outlines the career wellbeing-related intrinsic motivators and psychosocial resources of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction in order to inform career wellbeing and career management practices. The literature indicates that industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners would be better equipped to implement policies, processes and strategies to meet the requirements of the modern workforce if they fully comprehended the intrinsic motivators and psychosocial resources that are associated with career wellbeing.

As this literature has shown, occupational passion is an intrinsic motivator and a psychosocial resource that individuals can implement to persevere in the challenging modern work environment and obtain the outcome resource of career satisfaction (Vallerand, 2015). However, there seems to be paucity of information in the South African research context regarding the construct of occupational passion and how it can be implemented as a motivational driver to obtain career resources. This research study attempts to fill this research gap by determining the type and level of passion that individuals need to develop toward their work in order to attain career outcomes such as career satisfaction and career wellbeing.

A psychosocial career wellbeing framework could be a powerful tool for guiding individuals toward developing occupational passion, leveraging their harmonious passion and protecting them against obsessive passion. Career wellbeing practices should focus on the activities that individuals develop occupational passion for and the manner (either autonomous or controlled) in which their work activities are internalised in their self-concepts, as this may affect their career satisfaction. Such a framework could also contribute to the development of specific career management strategies that would enhance employees' career wellbeing.

Psychological career resources are meta-capacities that individuals implement to obtain career outcomes (Coetzee, 2008). These career resources, such as career preferences, career enablers, career drivers and career harmonisers, are psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators that can be implemented to obtain outcome resources such as career satisfaction (Coetzee, 2008). At the time of the current research study there seemed to be a gap in the literature in terms of understanding the relationship between psychological career resources and the acquisition, management and protection of other career wellbeing-related

psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators such as occupational passion, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction.

This research study attempts to fill this research gap by determining which psychological career resources (career preferences, career values, career enablers, career drivers and career harmonisers) would contribute most to the career wellbeing of South African working adults. Career wellbeing practices should assist individuals to develop well-rounded psychological career resources and, thus, overcome the changes and challenges within the modern work context and achieve career outcomes such as career satisfaction. This could inform career management practices and inform the development of career wellbeing strategies that would assist individuals to obtain their career outcomes.

Psychosocial career preoccupations relate to the non-age-related concerns that individuals have regarding their careers (Coetzee, 2014b). These preoccupations, including career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations, are related to the levels of career satisfaction that employees may experience.

There would seem to be scant literature on the impact that proactive behaviour related to the satisfaction of career concerns has on the development, management and retention of career wellbeing-related psychosocial resources. Career wellbeing practices should focus on supporting individuals to develop proactive and adaptive behaviour that would assist them to satisfy their psychosocial career preoccupations and experience greater career satisfaction. Industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners can use their knowledge of employees' concerns about or interest in their career management to develop career wellbeing strategies that are specific to their career preoccupations.

### **7.1.2 Conclusions relating to the empirical study**

The empirical aim of this study was to address the following six specific aims:

- To explore the direction and magnitude of the statistical inter-correlations between the sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure), the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction) (H1).
- To determine whether individuals' psychological career resources (career drivers, career harmonisers, career preferences and career values) and psychosocial career preoccupations (career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation

preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations) significantly mediate the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction (H2).

- To explore whether there is a good fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model (H3) based on the overall statistical relationships between the dependent and independent variables, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations, as mediating variables,
- To determine whether individuals' sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) significantly moderate the relationship between the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction) (H4).
- To determine whether individuals from diverse sociodemographic groups differ significantly regarding their occupational passion, type of passion, career satisfaction and application of psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations (H5).
- To draw conclusions and make recommendations for industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners concerning career management practices, as well as to make suggestions for future research in the field of industrial psychology and career wellbeing supportive management practices.

#### *7.1.2.1 Empirical research aim 1*

- To explore the direction and magnitude of the statistical inter-correlations between the sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure), the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction)

The first aim was achieved in Chapter 6, which provided supportive evidence for research hypothesis H1.

Based on the empirical results, the following core conclusion can be drawn:

Individuals' occupational passion (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), psychological career resources (career preferences, career values, career enablers, career drivers and career harmonisers), psychosocial career preoccupations (career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations) and career satisfaction are significantly related.

#### 7.1.2.2 *Empirical research aim 2*

- To determine whether individuals' psychological career resources (career drivers, career harmonisers, career preferences and career values) and psychosocial career preoccupations (career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations) significantly mediate the relationship between occupational passion and career satisfaction.

The second aim was achieved in Chapter 6, which provided supportive evidence for research hypothesis H2.

Based on the empirical results, the following core conclusion can be drawn:

Harmonious passion, as an intrinsic motivational antecedent, predicts higher levels of career satisfaction through unclear career preferences (i.e. flexibility in terms of career paths), strong career drivers (i.e. clear career plans and goals and drive to achieve them), strong career harmonisers (i.e. self-esteem, behavioural adaptability and social literacy) and high concerns about career adaptation needs (upskilling and employability).

#### 7.1.2.3 *Empirical research aim 3*

- Based on the overall statistical relationships between the dependent and independent variables, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations as mediating variables, to explore whether there is a good fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model.

The third aim, was achieved in Chapter 6, which provided supportive evidence for research hypothesis H3.

Based on the empirical results, the following conclusion was drawn:

The empirical results confirmed the validity of the empirically manifested profile obtained in testing research hypothesis 2.

#### 7.1.2.4 *Empirical research aim 4*

- To determine whether individuals' sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) significantly moderate the relationship between the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), the mediating variables (psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations) and the dependent variable (career satisfaction)

The fourth aim, was achieved in Chapter 6, with no evidence being provided in support of research hypothesis H4.

Based on the empirical results, the following conclusions were drawn:

- Job level and occupational passion, psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations are significant predictors in explaining individuals' levels of career satisfaction. Job level does not act as a significant moderator.
- Race and psychological career resources are significant predictors in explaining individuals' levels of career satisfaction. Race does not act as a significant moderator.

#### *7.1.2.5 Empirical research aim 5*

- To determine whether individuals from diverse sociodemographic groups differ significantly regarding their occupational passion, career satisfaction and application of psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations

The fifth research aim was achieved in Chapter 6, which provided supportive evidence for research hypothesis H5.

Based on the empirical results, the following conclusions were drawn in terms of the differences between the respective race and job level groups for the core career wellbeing constructs:

- White participants showed that they had lower levels of career adaptation preoccupations than the other groups. This implies that individuals from the white ethnicity group require more support in terms of becoming aware of their employability and upskilling needs to ensure greater career wellbeing.
- Participants in staff member roles reported lower levels of harmonious passion than individuals in senior roles. Individuals in more junior positions should thus be supported to internalise their work-related activities in an autonomous manner in order to ensure greater career wellbeing.
- Individuals in senior roles reported higher levels of career preferences than individuals in junior roles. As the empirical research results pointed out that unclear career preferences are related to greater career wellbeing, individuals in senior roles should be encouraged to be flexible in terms of their career choices, paths and outcomes in order to experience greater career wellbeing.
- Individuals on the staff member level reported higher levels of career adaptation preoccupations than individuals in senior positions. This means that individuals in senior

positions should be supported to become more aware of their employability and upskilling needs to ensure their career wellbeing.

- Participants in managerial positions reported higher levels of career satisfaction than individuals in non-managerial positions. This implies that individuals in non-managerial positions should be supported to understand and develop the key intrinsic motivators and psychosocial resources (such as harmonious passion, unclear career preferences, strong career drivers, strong career harmonisers and clear career adaptation preoccupations) in order to become more content with their careers.

The following additional sociodemographic differences were obtained for the core career wellbeing constructs and should be considered when implementing career management practices that focus on career wellbeing:

- Male participants appeared to be more inclined toward clearly defined career preferences than female participants. As the empirical research results showed, unclear career preferences can be associated with greater career satisfaction; hence, males should be supported to be adaptable in terms of their career preferences, paths and goals to ensure greater career wellbeing.
- Older individuals appear to have higher levels of harmonious passion than younger individuals. Younger individuals should thus be supported to internalise their work-related activities in their self-concepts in a more balanced and autonomous manner to ensure greater career wellbeing.
- Younger participants (18 to 30 years age group and the 31 to 45 years age group) appear to have higher levels of career adaptation preoccupations than their older colleagues. Therefore, career management practices that focus on career wellbeing should support older individuals in adapting better to their work environments, being concerned with their upskilling and understanding their employability-related career needs.
- Older participants (65 years and older age group and the 46 to 64 years age group) appear to have higher levels of career satisfaction than the younger participants (18 years to 30 years age group and the 31 to 45 years age group). Younger individuals should thus be supported to become more content through career management practices that focus on career wellbeing. Younger individuals should be assisted to develop and enhance high levels of harmonious passion, flexibility in terms of their career preferences, strong career drivers, strong career harmonisers and clear career adaptation preoccupations to enhance their career satisfaction.

### **7.1.3 Conclusions relating to the central hypothesis**

The central hypothesis, formulated in Chapter 1, stated that the independent variables (passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion) will have both a positive and negative indirect relationship with the outcome variable (career satisfaction) through psychological career resources and psychosocial career preoccupations (as mediating variables). The hypothesis also assumed that the link between occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction would be moderated by individuals' sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure). The assumption was also made that the relationship would be either more negative or more positive for some sociodemographic groups than others. The study furthermore hypothesised that, based on the empirically derived relationship dynamics among the variables, an overall model of psychosocial career wellbeing could be developed for the South African working adult that would inform career management practices for enhancing their career wellbeing.

Except for the lack of significant moderating effects, both the literature review and the empirical study provided evidence in support of the central hypothesis.

### **7.1.4 Conclusions relating to the field of industrial psychology**

The conclusions made from the literature review, in combination with the results of the empirical study, should contribute to the field of industrial psychology and to career wellbeing and career management practices.

The literature review provided new insights into the way an individual's psychosocial career-related intrinsic motivators and resources and sociodemographic characteristics are related to their career wellbeing within the contemporary work environment. Furthermore, the literature review provided new insights into various concepts and theoretical models that foster occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction.

The literature review offered substantiating evidence for the construction of a career wellbeing profile, indicating the intrinsic motivators and psychosocial resources that should be considered during the development of career management practices for enhancing career wellbeing. In line with the conclusions drawn from the literature review, it is evident that organisations, industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners should focus on the concepts and theoretical models that influence the variables of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction, as these constructs contribute to individual wellbeing.

The results of the empirical study add value to the field of industrial and organisational psychology by providing unique insights into the link between the core elements of SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000) and COR theory (Hobfoll, 1988, 1998, 2002). It was established that the intrinsic motivator and psychosocial resource of harmonious passion, through the intrinsic motivators and psychosocial career resources of unclear career preferences, strong career drivers, strong career harmonisers and clear career adaptation preoccupations, would result in the acquisition of the outcome resource of career satisfaction. Career theory was thus advanced by establishing that intrinsic motivators and psychosocial resources can be utilised to obtain, manage and protect other intrinsic motivators and psychosocial resources as well as to enhance individuals' career wellbeing.

The results of the empirical study revealed that it is imperative that industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners consider the psychometric properties of the particular measuring instruments (Passion Scale, Psychological Career Resources Inventory, Psychosocial Career Preoccupations Scale and the Career Satisfaction Scale) used to measure career wellbeing before applying them in career wellbeing and career management initiatives. Organisations should ensure that trained and qualified individuals are consulted during the administration and interpretation of the results obtained from these instruments to ensure fairness and equality. Moreover, individuals who have completed the instruments should receive feedback that is clear and open and which is given in a supportive environment. As has been highlighted in the findings of this study, individuals' sociodemographic characteristics such as race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure should always be considered when developing employee's career wellbeing and career management strategies.

## **7.2 LIMITATIONS**

The limitations of the literature review and the empirical study are discussed below.

### **7.2.1 Limitations of the literature review**

The exploratory research into the career wellbeing-related psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction in the South African context was limited by the following aspects:

- There are various career wellbeing-related psychosocial career resources and intrinsic motivator variables; however, only five variables (occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction) were explored in this study. For this reason, the current research study was unable to provide a holistic indication of the psychosocial career resources and intrinsic motivating factors

that may potentially have an impact on career wellbeing strategies in all South African organisations.

- Even though a wide variety of research studies has been conducted on career wellbeing-related variables, little research has been conducted in the South African or international contexts on the relationship between career wellbeing-related variables and sociodemographic variables. In addition, there is a paucity of research highlighting the relationship dynamics between the career wellbeing-related variables of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction that can be used to inform career wellbeing and career management practices.
- Career wellbeing encompasses a variety of meanings but, in this study, it was limited to the notion of career satisfaction. Further, various constructs are related to the notion of career wellbeing, but in this study only occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction were considered in constructing a psychosocial model for career wellbeing.

### **7.2.2 Limitations of the empirical study**

The generalisability of the findings on the size and characteristics of the research sample and the psychometric properties of the PS, PCRI, PCPS and CSS could be restricted for the following reasons:

- Although the sample involved 550 participants, a larger sample would be needed to establish a definite relationship between the career wellbeing-related psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators (occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction) and the sociodemographic variables in this study.
- The sample comprised mainly white female participants between the ages of 18 and 30 years, which limited the generalisability of the results to the larger South African population.
- The measuring instruments (PS, PCRI, PCPS and CSS) are self-report questionnaires, which meant that the results that were obtained were based on the views, insights and experiences of the participants, which may have prejudiced the validity of the research results.
- The career preferences subscale of the PCRI indicated low reliability and was, thus, a limitation on the interpretation of the research outcomes.
- Several career wellbeing-related variables were omitted from this study; had these variables been included, the research outcomes might have differed

- The sociodemographic variables were limited to race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure. Different sociodemographic variables might have had a different impact on the research outcomes.
- Owing to the cross-sectional nature of the research design, controlling the research variables was challenging, resulting in a certain difficulty in determining causality in the significant relationships.
- The inclusion/exclusion criteria for the purposeful sampling method (individuals needed to be South African, individuals needed to be working adults and individuals needed to be 'connected' to the researcher on LinkedIn) was perceived as a limitation as it impeded the generalisability of the results to the broader South African working adult population.

Despite these limitations, the study nevertheless showed the ability to investigate the variables that influence occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction. The outcomes of this study may thus be viewed as an initial step in progressing research on career wellbeing practices and motivating further research on the topic in the South African context.

### **7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS**

In light of the research findings, conclusions and limitations, a number of recommendations pertaining to the field of industrial psychology and for additional research in this field are discussed below.

#### **7.3.1 Recommendations for the field of industrial psychology**

The research outcomes and the significant relationship dynamics that emerged from the research study may contribute to the development of the following individual and organisational interventions with regard to the career management practices for enhancing individuals' career wellbeing.

##### **Individual-level interventions:**

- Organisations should initiate conversations with individual employees to establish the work-related activities that they are passionate about, how these activities play a role in their self-concepts and how their passion toward these activities contributes to their career satisfaction. Individuals should be encouraged to be passionate about a wide variety of different career activities and not obsess unduly over specific activities to ensure their career satisfaction. Organisations should understand that individuals' job levels may influence their levels of harmonious passion and career satisfaction.

- Career counselling should consider the link between intrinsic motivators (as indicated by SDT [Deci & Ryan, 2000]) and the management, acquisition and protection of psychosocial resources and outcome resources (as indicated by COR theory [Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002]).
- The relatively higher means that were obtained for harmonious passion indicate that career management practices that support career wellbeing should focus on supporting individuals to internalise their work-related activities in their self-concepts in an autonomous and balanced manner so as to ensure the acquisition of career outcomes such as career satisfaction and the strengthening of their career wellbeing profiles.
- The relatively higher means that were obtained for flexible career preferences and career paths indicate that individuals should be encouraged to be adaptable in terms of their career outcomes to ensure that the relationship between their harmonious passion and career satisfaction and their overall career wellbeing profiles is strengthened.
- The relatively lower means that were obtained for career drivers indicate that individuals should be encouraged to invest more energy, drive and motivation to ensure the strengthening of the relationship between their harmonious passion and career satisfaction and their overall career wellbeing profiles.
- The relatively lower means that were obtained for career adaptation preoccupations indicate that individuals should be supported to become more aware of their career needs related to their employability and upskilling to ensure the strengthening of the relationship between their harmonious passion and career satisfaction and their overall career wellbeing profiles.
- The relatively average means that were obtained for career satisfaction indicate that individuals should be supported to enhance their harmonious passion which serves as intrinsic motivational antecedent in predicting higher levels of career satisfaction through unclear career preferences (i.e. flexibility in terms of career paths), strong career drivers (i.e. clear career plans and goals and drive to achieve them), strong career harmonisers (i.e. self-esteem, behavioural adaptability and social literacy) and high concerns about career adaptation needs (upskilling and employability).
- Organisations should have regular conversations with individual employees about the development and maintenance of their career preferences. Individuals should be encouraged to explore a wide variety of activities related to their career management and be flexible in their career goals, outcomes and preferences to ensure greater harmonious passion and subsequently career satisfaction. Industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners should consider individuals' racial background and job level when introducing career wellbeing interventions that focus on career preferences.

- Career management practices that focus on career wellbeing should support individuals in terms of implementing their career drivers (motivation, drive and energy in relation to achieving their career outcomes) in a wide variety of career activities that they are passionate about and enjoy in order to strengthen their harmonious passion and facilitate greater career satisfaction. Furthermore, individuals who display high levels of career drivers should be supported to develop career harmonisers to ensure that they do not become dissatisfied with their careers. Industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners should consider the racial background and job level of individuals when supporting them in terms of managing and developing their career drivers.
- Organisations should support individuals to develop strong career harmonisers (such as emotional literacy, social connectivity and behavioural adaptability) to ensure greater levels of these harmonisers and career satisfaction. Individuals' race and job level should be considered when assisting them to manage and develop their career harmonisers in order to facilitate greater levels of career wellbeing.
- Regular conversations between organisations and individual employees should take place to establish individuals' concerns about their career adaptability, fitting into the career environment, upskilling themselves within the organisation and remaining employable. By addressing such concerns, the individual's perceptions of these concerns are likely to become more positive. This in turn will result in employees who have more harmonious passion and who are more content with their careers. Individuals' job level should be considered when career wellbeing interventions are introduced that relate to individuals' career adaptation preoccupations.
- Organisations should allow individual employees to evaluate their career wellbeing on a regular basis to establish exactly which career wellbeing-related psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators they are lacking (e.g. harmonious passion, flexible career preferences, strong career drivers, strong career harmonisers and career adaptation preoccupations). In so doing, individuals will be made aware of the support that they need to find to ensure ongoing career wellbeing.
- Individuals in their early career life stage should be supported to understand their career needs and concerns in terms of their upskilling, their employability, fitting into the organisational context, adapting to the challenges of the career environment and ensuring their job security and stability.

**Organisational-level interventions:**

- Organisational structures, processes and procedures should be conducive to the development of individual career wellbeing.

- Career management practices for enhancing individual career wellbeing should focus on diversity support practices in terms of the race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure of individuals.
- Organisations should also consider the development and training opportunities and strategies that are available to individuals and then align these to the specific activities that employees are harmoniously passionate about. This would stimulate the development of a well-rounded psychological career resources profile (more specifically flexible career preferences, strong career drivers and strong career harmonisers), satisfy employees' career adaptation preoccupations and contribute to greater career satisfaction.
- Organisations should initiate support structures such as employee assistance programmes, counselling, coaching and mentoring programmes that would help individuals to manage their careers and ensure their career wellbeing.
- Organisations could use the Passion Scale (PS), the Psychological Career Resources Inventory (PCRI), the Psychosocial Career Preoccupations Scale (PCPS) and the Career Satisfaction Scale (CSS) to establish specific career-wellbeing psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators and to develop career wellbeing and career management strategies that are aligned with the career wellbeing of individual employees.
- Organisations could also use the PCPS to determine specific career preoccupations within the organisation and then tailor career management practices for enhancing the career wellbeing to the needs of specific individual employees.
- Organisations should appoint managers who are aware of the importance of career wellbeing and the career wellbeing-related psychosocial career resources and intrinsic motivators. Such managers should be equipped to support their subordinates in the management of their career outcomes and career wellbeing-related needs.
- Organisations should be clear on the career opportunities and career management support structures that are available, and that focus on career wellbeing, to ensure that individuals are satisfied with the support that they are getting in terms of career management.

### **7.3.2 Recommendations for future research**

The sample was made up largely of young white females in their early career stage with a mean age of 34. To increase the generalisability of the findings future research studies should make use of larger heterogenous samples that are more representative of various sociodemographic and occupational groups within the South African context. It is

recommended that future longitudinal research studies be implemented to explore the way the career wellbeing profile evolves over the working adult's life span.

Future research should also focus in more detail on exploring the relationship dynamics between the career wellbeing-related psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators (occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction) and the sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure). The outcomes of this study permitted only a limited understanding of these career wellbeing-related psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators and sociodemographic variables. Future research studies would be important for industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners in terms of refining career wellbeing and career management strategies at both an organisational and an individual level.

Furthermore, it is recommended that future research should implement longitudinal research designs that would allow the assessment of cause-and-effect relationships between the variables. This would support industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners use the findings that arise from such studies to develop frameworks that would assist organisations in ensuring the career wellbeing of their employees.

## **7.4 EVALUATION OF THE STUDY**

This study investigated the likelihood of an existing relationship between a number of career wellbeing-related psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators (occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction) and certain sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure). The findings provided evidence of significant links between these variables and their potential contribution to knowledge on career wellbeing within the contemporary workplace.

### **7.4.1 Value added on a theoretical level**

The literature review contributed by revealing that globalisation, the greater dependence on technology, changes in workforce demographics and the need for skilled employees have greatly affected individuals' career wellbeing. It was established that it is important for individuals to develop certain career wellbeing-related psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators to ensure that they have meaningful and satisfactory careers despite the challenges of the contemporary work environment. The literature review revealed that a relationship exists between the career wellbeing-related psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction, which would imply that individuals could develop and implement these resources and intrinsic motivators to experience greater career wellbeing. It was also noted

that the sociodemographic variables of race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure should be considered when developing career wellbeing strategies.

On a theoretical level, the literature review made an important contribution by identifying the relationship that exists between career wellbeing-related psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators of occupational passion (consisting of passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), psychological career resources (consisting of career preferences, career values, career enablers, career drivers and career harmonisers), psychosocial career preoccupations (consisting of career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations), career satisfaction and the sociodemographic variables (consisting of race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) included in this study. The literature review supported the researcher in developing a theoretical psychosocial career wellbeing profile for the South African working adult. The review also indicated that the sociodemographic variables (consisting of race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) could act as predictors of individuals' occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction.

#### **7.4.2 Value added on an empirical level**

On an empirical level, this study contributed by developing an empirically tested psychosocial career wellbeing profile for the South African working adult. The empirically manifested relationship dynamics of the career wellbeing profile advanced career theory by indicating the manner in which intrinsic motivators (as described by the SDT [Deci & Ryan, 2000]) contribute to the development, protection and management of psychosocial resources and outcome resources (as outlined by the COR theory [Hobfoll, 1988, 1989, 1998, 2002]).

The research study could possibly be breaking new ground in its combination of various career wellbeing-related constructs and the use of numerous statistical procedures that revealed essential variables in explaining a career wellbeing profile for the South African career context. Furthermore, there has been no previous research in the context of career wellbeing in South Africa on the specific relationship dynamics between career wellbeing-related psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators of occupational passion (consisting of passion prevalence, harmonious passion and obsessive passion), psychological career resources (consisting of career preferences, career values, career enablers, career drivers and career harmonisers), psychosocial career preoccupations (consisting of career establishment preoccupations, career adaptation preoccupations and work–life adjustment preoccupations), career satisfaction and the sociodemographic variables (consisting of race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure) included in this study.

The resources related to flexible career preferences, strong career plans and actions to achieve career goals, career harmonisers (i.e. self-esteem, behavioural adaptability and emotional literacy) and a strong need to be upskilled and employable (career adaptation needs) were manifested as the core elements of the psychosocial career wellbeing profile. Job level and race were further indicated as important sociodemographic variables in explaining levels of career satisfaction. Differences between race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure groups for the constructs of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction also need to be considered in the career wellbeing profile. Theoretically, the results advanced career theory by empirically validating the core elements of the career wellbeing profile which inform career management practices for enhancing the career wellbeing of working adults.

Based on the conclusions drawn from the empirical study, it can be said that this research study is original in terms of its findings on the inter- and overall relationship dynamics between the specific constructs. The empirically tested psychosocial career wellbeing profile could be beneficial in enhancing the career wellbeing and career management of individuals within the South African context.

#### **7.4.3 Value added on a practical level**

On a practical level, this study contributed to career wellbeing and career management practices by establishing the existence of significant relationships between the career wellbeing-related psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators (occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction) and the sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure).

The results revealed that harmonious passion as an intrinsic motivational antecedent predicts higher levels of career satisfaction through unclear career preferences (i.e. flexibility in terms of career paths), strong career drivers (i.e. clear career plans and goals and drive to achieve them), strong career harmonisers (i.e. self-esteem, behavioural adaptability and social literacy) and high concerns about career adaptation needs (upskilling and employability). It was also found that race and job level are important sociodemographic variables in terms of predicting career satisfaction.

The results reveal that flexible career preferences would strengthen the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction, which means that to increase their career wellbeing, individuals should be supported to be adaptable in terms of their choices and career paths. Individuals' motivation, energy and drive (career drivers) toward their career outcomes were found to strengthen the relationship between harmonious passion and career

satisfaction. Thus, organisations should support individuals to advance their career drivers by engaging in a variety of activities that they are passionate about to ensure increases in their harmonious passion and career satisfaction.

Career harmonisers (individuals' self-esteem, social connectivity and emotional literacy) strengthen the relationship between harmonious passion and career satisfaction. Therefore, individuals should be supported to strengthen their career harmonisers (individuals' self-esteem, social connectivity and emotional literacy) to ensure a stronger relationship between their harmonious passion and career satisfaction.

It was established that individuals' upskilling and employability career-related needs (career adaptation preoccupations) strengthen the relationship between harmonious passion. Individuals should be supported in terms of the awareness and management of their career adaptation preoccupations to ensure that they can develop proactive behaviour and strengthen their harmonious passion and career satisfaction.

Based on the relationship dynamics between the constructs, industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners could gain a better understanding of career wellbeing-related psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators and sociodemographic variables that would advance career wellbeing and career management in South African working adults. Future research findings could advance and expand the understanding that individual employees have unique career wellbeing-related psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators. Knowledge of the differences between individuals would assist with the career wellbeing and career management of diverse employees.

The key focus of this study was to determine how the psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction, and the sociodemographic variables (race, gender, age, qualification, job level and tenure), would contribute to individual career wellbeing. The research outcomes have provided direction for future research into the career wellbeing and career management of diverse employees. Subsequently, the research findings have made an important contribution to the existing body of knowledge on the psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators that influence the career wellbeing of employees in the South African career context.

In summary, the researcher is convinced that the outcomes of this study will offer a better understanding of how the inter- and overall relationships between the career wellbeing-related psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators and sociodemographic variables can inform the construction of an empirically tested psychosocial career wellbeing profile. It is expected

that industrial psychologists, human resource practitioners and working adults will be able to apply this new knowledge in improving their career wellbeing and career management strategies. It is hoped that the research findings, conclusions and recommendations for future research will be seen as a constructive contribution to the field of industrial and organisational psychology in the South African context.

#### **7.4.4 Critical evaluation of doctorateness**

Throughout the course of the research study, the researcher personally developed deeper knowledge of the career wellbeing-related constructs of occupational passion, psychological career resources, psychosocial career preoccupations and career satisfaction. The research study provided the researcher with the opportunity to conceptualise these career wellbeing-related constructs, establish specific variables that are related to these constructs and offer a synthesis of these constructs in terms of applicable literature on career wellbeing. Furthermore, the researcher gained valuable knowledge and insights in terms of data analysis, statistical analysis and reporting. From the statistical analyses and reporting, the researcher learnt to consider the holistic view in terms of career wellbeing and the impact that the concept may have on the contemporary South African working adult.

As an industrial psychologist and human resource practitioner the researcher was challenged to consider his own career wellbeing and the career wellbeing of the clients that he interacts with on a daily basis. The research study exposed the researcher to a wide variety of interventions that he could apply as an industrial psychologist and human resource practitioner to maximise the career wellbeing of his clients. By engaging in this study, the researcher learnt valuable skills in terms of data analysis, planning and organising, perseverance, writing and reporting, patience, adapting to changes and relationship building.

#### **7.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

Finally, this chapter discussed the conclusions of the research study with regard to the theoretical and empirical aims. Furthermore, the possible limitations of both the theoretical and empirical studies were provided. The chapter also discussed recommendations for future research. The research findings were discussed in an integrated manner emphasising the extent to which the research outcomes provided support for the career wellbeing-related psychosocial resources and intrinsic motivators and sociodemographic variables and how this contributed to the development of a psychosocial career wellbeing profile for the South African working adult.

This chapter achieved the following research aim:

Research aim 6: To draw conclusions and recommendations for industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners for career management practices and to determine proposals for future research in the field of industrial psychology and career wellbeing supportive management practices.

## References

- Abele, A. E., & Spurk, D. (2009a). The longitudinal impact of self-efficacy and career goals on objective and subjective career success. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 74*, 53–62. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2013.06.013
- Abele, A. E., & Spurk, D. (2009b). How do objective and subjective career success interrelate over time? *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 82*, 803–824. doi:10.1348/096317909X470924
- Abele, A. E., Spurk, D., & Volmer, J. (2011). The construct of career success: Measurement issues and an empirical example. *Journal for Labour Market Research, 43*, 196–306. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s12651-010-0034-6
- Abele-Brehm, A. E. (2014). The influence of career success on subjective well-being. In A. C. Keller, R. Samuel, M. M. Bergman, & N. K. Semmer (Eds.), *Psychological, educational, and sociological perspectives on success and well-being in career development* (pp. 7–18). Netherlands: Springer. doi:10.1007/978-94-017-8911-0\_2
- Adler, F. (1956). The value concept in sociology. *American Journal of Sociology, 62*(3), 272-279.
- Afiouni, F., & Karam, C. M. (2014). Structure, agency and notions of career success: A process-oriented, subjectively malleable and localized approach. *Career Development International, 19*(5), 548–571. ISSN: 1362-0436
- Agrawal, S., & Harter, J. K. (2009). *The relationship between wellbeing and change in disease burden: A longitudinal analysis*. Omaha, NE: Gallup.
- Aguinis, H., Edwards, J. R., & Bradley, K. J. (2016). Improving our understanding of moderation and mediation in strategic management research. *Organizational Research Methods, 1-21* doi:10.1177/1094428115627498
- Aiken, L.S. & West, S.G. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Sage: Newbury Park.
- Akintola, O., Hlengwa, W. M., & Dageid, W. (2013). Perceived stress and burnout among volunteer caregivers working in AIDS care in South Africa. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 69*(12), 2738–2749. doi:10.1111/jan.12166

- Aknin, L. B., Barrington-Leigh, C. P., Dunn, E. W., Helliwell, J. F., Burns, J., Biswas-Diener, R., & Norton, M. I. (2013). Prosocial spending and well-being: Cross-cultural evidence for a psychological universal. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 104*(4), 635.
- Alarcon, G. M., & Lyons, J. B. (2011). The relationship of engagement and job satisfaction in working samples. *The Journal of Psychology, 145*(5), 463–480.
- Al Ariss, A., Cascio, W. F., & Paauwe, J. (2014). Talent management: Current theories and future research directions. *Journal of World Business, 49*(2), 173–179.
- Alessandri, G., Caprara, G. V., & Tisak, J. (2012). Further explorations on the unique contribution of positive orientation to optimal functioning. *European Psychologist, 17*, 44–54. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1027/1016-9040/a000070>.
- Allen, T. D., Eby, L. T., Poteet, M., Lentz, L., & Lima, L. (2004). Career benefits associated with mentoring for protégés: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology 89*(1), 127–36. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.89.1.127
- Amiot, C. E., Vallerand, R. J., & Blanchard, C. (2006). Passion and psychological adjustment: A test of the person–environment fit hypothesis. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 32*(2), 220–229. doi:10.1177/0146167205280250
- Anastasiadou, S. D. (2007). Job commitment is highly influenced by job motives and job satisfaction: The case of Greek teachers in higher education. *The International Journal of Knowledge, Culture and Change Management, 7*(7), 69–79.
- Anderzén, I., Lindberg, P., Karlsson, T., Strömberg, A., & Gustafsson, S. (2015). Predictors of wellbeing at work. *The European Journal of Public Health, 25*(3), 168–041.
- Andrés, A. R., Asongu, S. A., & Amavilah, V. (2015). The impact of formal institutions on knowledge economy. *Journal of the Knowledge Economy, 6*(4), 1034–1062. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1093/eurpub/ckv168.041>
- Aristotle. (1925). *The Nicomachean Ethics* (Trans. by D. Ross). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Arthur, M. B. (1994). The boundaryless career: A new perspective for organizational inquiry. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 15*, 295–306.
- Arthur, M. B. (2008). Examining contemporary careers: A call for interdisciplinary inquiry. *Journal of Human Relations, 61*(2), 163–186. doi:10.1177/0018726707087783

- Arthur, M. B. (2014). The boundaryless career at 20: Where do we stand and where can we go? *Career Development International*, 19, 627–640. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/CDI-05-2014-0068>
- Arthur, M. B., Inkson, K., & Pringle, J. K. (1999). *The new careers: Individual action and economic change*. London: Sage Publications.
- Arthur, M. B., Khapova, S. N., & Wilderom, C. P. M. (2005). Career success in a boundaryless career world. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26, 177–202. doi:10.1002/job.290
- Arthur, M. B., & Rousseau, D. M. (Eds.). (1996). *The boundaryless career: A new employment principle for a new organizational era*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Arya, N., & Manikandan, K. (2013). Meaning in life: Organisational commitment and work engagement of employees. *Business Sciences – International Research Journal*, 1(2), 338–346.
- Astakhova, M., DuBois, C. L. Z., & Hogue, M. (2010). A typology of middle managers in modern Russia: An intracultural puzzle. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 34, 527–539. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2010.01.001>
- Attridge, M. (2009). Measuring and managing employee work engagement: A review of the research and business literature. *Journal of Workplace Behavioral Health*, 24, 383–398. doi:10.1080/1555240903188398
- Babbie, E., & Mouton, J. (2013). *The practice of social research* (13th ed.). Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- Bae, T. J., Qian, S., Miao, C., & Fiet, J. O. (2014). The relationship between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial intentions: A meta-analytic review. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 38(2), 217–254. doi:10.1111/etap.12095
- Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2008). Towards a model of work engagement. *Career Development International*, 13(3), 209–223. doi:10.1108/13620430810870476
- Bakker, A. B., & Oerlemans, W. (2011). Subjective well-being in organizations. In K. Cameron & G. Spreitzer (Eds.), *Handbook of Positive Organizational Scholarship*. (pp. 178-189). Oxford University Press.
- Ballout, H. I. (2009). Career commitment and career success: moderating role of self-efficacy. *Career Development International*. doi:10.1108/13620430911005708

- Baltes, R.B. (1997). On the incomplete architecture of human ontogeny: Selection, optimization, and compensation as foundation of development theory. *American Psychologist*, *52*, 366-380.
- Barkhuizen, N., Rothmann, S., & Van de Vijver, F. J. R. (2013). Burnout and work engagement of academics in higher education institutions: Effects of dispositional optimism. *Stress and Health*, *29*(3). doi:10.1002/smi.2520
- Barnett, B. R., & Bradley, L. (2007). The impact of organizational support for career development on career satisfaction. *Career Development International*, *12*(7), 617–636. doi:https://doi.org/10.1108/13620430710834396
- Baruch, Y. (2004). Transforming careers: From linear to multidirectional career paths: Organisational and individual perspectives. *Career Development International*, *9*(1), 58–73. doi:10.1108/13620430410518147
- Baruch, Y. (2006). Career development in organizations and beyond: Balancing traditional and contemporary viewpoints. *Human Resource Management Review*, *16*(2), 125–138. doi:10.1016/j.hrmr.2006.03.002
- Baruch, Y., & Bozionelos, N. (2011). Career issues. In S. Zedeck (Ed.), *APA Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 67–113). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/12170-003
- Baruch, Y., Dickmann, M., Altman, Y., & Bournois, F. (2013). Exploring international work: Types and dimensions of global careers. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *24*, 2369–2393. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2013.781435
- Baruch, Y., & Reis, C. (2016). How global are boundaryless careers and how boundaryless are global careers? Challenges and a theoretical perspective. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, *58*(1), 13–27. doi:10.1002/tie.21712
- Baruch, Y., Szűcs, N., & Gunz, H. (2015). Career studies in search of theory: The rise and rise of concepts. *Career Development International*, *20*, 3–20.
- Baum, J. R., & Locke, E. A. (2004). The relationship of entrepreneurial traits, skill, and motivation to subsequent venture growth. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *89*, 587–598.
- Becchetti, L., Trovato, G., & Bedoya, D. L. (2011). Income, relational goods and happiness. *Applied Economics*, *43*(3), 273–290.

- Beck, K., & Wilson, C. (2000). Development of affective organizational commitment: A cross-sequential examination of change with tenure. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 56(1), 114–136. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.1999.1712>
- Becker, G. S. (1964). *Human capital: A theoretical and empirical analysis with special reference to education*. New York, NY: Columbia University Press.
- Becker, G. S. (1975). *Human capital*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Beeson, M. (2014). *Regionalism and globalization in East Asia: Politics, security and economic development*. Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Benson, V., Morgan, S., & Filippaios, F. (2014). Social career management: Social media and employability skills gap. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 30, 519–525. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2013.06.015>
- Bentler, P. M., & Bonett, D. G. (1980). Significance tests and goodness of fit in the analysis of covariance structures. *Psychological Bulletin*, 88(3), 588.
- Berg, B. L. (2007). *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences*. Boston, MA: Pearson/Allyn & Bacon.
- Bergh, Z. C. (2009). Fields of study and practice areas in industrial and organisational psychology. In Z. C. Bergh & A. L. Theron (Eds.), *Psychology in the work context* (pp. 16–29). Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- Bernard, H. R., Wutich, A., & Ryan, G. W. (2016). *Analyzing qualitative data: Systematic approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Bernstein, C., & Osman, R. (2016). Positives and negatives: Reconceptualising gender attributes within the context of the sex role identity and well-being literature – An examination within the South African context. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 42(1), 1–12. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v42i1.1309>
- Berry, A. J., & Otley, D. T. (2004). Case-based research in accounting. In C. Humphrey, & B. Lee (Eds.), *The real life guide to accounting research: A behind-the-scenes view of using qualitative research methods*. Oxford: Elsevier.
- Bibi, F., Chaudhry, A. G., & Awan, E. A. (2015). Impact of gender, age, and culture on life satisfaction. *Science International*, 27(2), 1649–1652.

- Biemann, T., Fasang, A. E., & Grunow, D. (2011). Do economic globalization and industry growth destabilize careers? An analysis of career complexity and career patterns over time. *Organization Studies*, 31(12), 1639–1663.
- Biesanz, J. C., Falk, C. F., & Savalei, V. (2010). Assessing mediational models: Testing and interval estimation for indirect effects. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 45, 661–701. doi:10.1080/00273171.2010.498292
- Birkeland, I. K., & Buch, R. (2015). The dualistic model of passion for work: Discriminate and predictive validity with work engagement and workaholism. *Motivation and Emotion*, 39(3), 392–408. doi:10.1007/s11031-014-9462-x
- Biswas-Diener, R., Vitterso, J., & Diener, E. (2005). Most people are pretty happy, but there is cultural variation: The Inughuit, the Amish, and the Maasai. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 6, 205–226. doi:10.1007/s10902-005-5683-8
- Blaauw, D., & Pretorius, A. (2013). The determinants of subjective well-being in South Africa: An exploratory enquiry. *Journal of Economic and Financial Sciences*, 6(1), 179–194.
- Blacklock, C., Ward, A. M., Heneghan, C., & Thompson, M. (2014). Exploring the migration decisions of health workers and trainees from Africa: A meta-ethnographic synthesis. *Social Science & Medicine*, 100, 99–106. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2013.10.032
- Bland, A. M., & Roberts-Pittman, B. J. (2014). Existential and chaos theory: “Calling” for adaptability and responsibility in career decision-making. *Journal of Career Development*, 41(5), 382–401. doi:10.1177/0894845313498303
- Bless, C., Higson-Smit, G., & Kagee, A. (2006). *Fundamentals of social research methods* (4th ed.). Cape Town: Juta and Company.
- Blustein, D. (2013). *The psychology of working: A new perspective for career development, counselling, and public policy*. Routledge. doi:10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199758791.013.0001
- Boehm, J., & Lyubomirsky, S. (2008). Does happiness promote career success? *Journal of Career Assessment*, 16(1), 101–116. doi:10.1177/1069072707308140
- Bollen, K. A., & Pearl, J. (2013). Eight myths about causality and structural equation models. In S. L. Morgan (Ed.), *Handbook of causal analysis for social research* (pp. 301–328). Dordrecht: Springer.

- Bonett, D. G., & Wright, T. A. (2000). Sample size requirements for Pearson, Kendall, and Spearman correlations. *Psychometrika*, *65*, 23–28.
- Booyesen, L. (2013). Societal power shifts and changing social identities in South Africa: Workplace implications. *South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences*, *10*(1), 1–20.
- Boswell, W. R., Shipp, A. J., Payne, S. C., & Culbertson, S. S. (2009). Changes in newcomer job satisfaction over time: examining the pattern of honeymoons and hangovers. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *94*(4), 844. doi:10.1037/a0014975
- Botha, F., & Booyesen, F. (2014). Family functioning and life satisfaction and happiness in South African households. *Social Indicators Research*, *119*(1), 163–182.
- Bowling, N. A., Eschleman, K. J., & Wang, Q. (2010). A meta-analytic examination of the relationship between job satisfaction and subjective well-being. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *83*, 915–934. doi:10.1348/096317909X478557
- Bozionelos, N., Kostopoulos, K., Van der Heijden, B., Rousseau, D. M., Bozionelos, G., Hoyland, T., & Mikkelsen, A. (2016). Employability and job performance as links in the relationship between mentoring receipt and career success: A study in SMEs. *Group & Organization Management*, *41*(2), 135–171. doi:10.1177/1059601115617086
- Bradburn, N. M., & Caplovitz, D. (1965). *Reports of happiness*. Chicago, IL: Aldine.
- Bradley, L., Brown, K., & Dower, J. (2009). Career progression in the public sector: Gender differences in career success. *International Journal of Employment Studies*, *17*(2), 102–134.
- Brewster, C., Bonache, J., Cerdi, J., & Suutari, V. (2014). New analyses of expatriation: Exploring expatriate outcomes. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *25*, 1921–1937. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2013.870284
- Brickman, P., & Campbell, D. T. (1971). Hedonic relativism and planning the good society. In M. H. Appley (Ed.), *Adaptation level theory: A symposium* (pp. 287–302). New York, NY: Academic Press.
- Brickman, P., Coates, D., & Janoff Bulman, R. (1978). Lottery winners and accident victims: Is happiness relative? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *36*, 917–927.

- Briscoe, J. P., Hall, D. T., & DeMuth, R. L. F. (2006). Protean and boundaryless careers: An empirical exploration. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 69(1), 30–47. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2005.09.003
- Briscoe, J. P., Henagan, S. C., Burton, J. P., & Murphy, W. M. (2012). Coping with an insecure employment environment: The differing roles of protean and boundaryless career orientations. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 80(2), 308–316.
- Brown, P., & Hesketh, A. (2004). *The mismanagement of talent: Employability and jobs in the knowledge economy*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Brown, S. D., & Lent, R. W. (2016). Vocational psychology: Agency, equity, and well-being. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 67, 541–565. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-122414-033237.
- Brown, T. A. (2014). *Confirmatory factor analysis for applied research*. New York, NY: Guilford Publications.
- Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2015). *Business research methods*. USA: Oxford University Press.
- Buckley, L. B., & Petrunik, M. G. (1995). Socio-demographic factors: Reference groups and the career orientations, career aspirations and career satisfaction of Canadian police officers. *American Journal of Police*, 14(2), 107–148.
- Burke, R. J., Astakhova, M. N., & Hang, H. (2014). Work passion through the lens of culture: Harmonious work passion, obsessive work passion, and work outcomes in Russia and China. New York, NY: Springer Science and Business Media. doi:10.1007/s10869-014-9375-4
- Burke, R. J., & Fiskerbaum, L. (2009). Work motivations, work outcomes and health: Passion versus addiction. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 84, 257–263.
- Burman, E. (2009). Beyond emotional literacy in feminist and educational research. *British Educational Research Journal*, 35(1), 137–155.
- Busis, N. A., Shanafelt, T. D., Keran, C. M., Levin, K. H., Schwarz, H. B., Molano, J. R., ... & Cascino, T. L. (2017). Burnout, career satisfaction, and well-being among US neurologists in 2016. *Neurology*, 88(8), 797-808.
- Buzas, J. S., Stefanski, L. A., & Tosteson, T. D. (2014). Measurement error. *Handbook of epidemiology*, 1241-1282.

- Cantril, H. (1965). *The pattern of human concerns*. New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University Press.
- Cao, L., Hirschi, A., & Deller, J. (2013). The positive effects of a protean career attitude for self-initiated expatriates: Cultural adjustment as a mediator. *Career Development International*, *18*(1), 56–77. doi:10.1108/13620431311305953
- Cappelli, P. (2010). The rise and decline of managerial development. *Industrial and Corporate Change*, *19*(2), 509–548. doi:10.1093/icc/dtq006
- Cappelli, P., & Keller, J. R. (2013). Classifying work in the new economy. *Academy of Management Review*, *38*(4), 575–596. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/amr.2011.0302
- Cappelli, P., & Keller, J. R. (2014). Talent management: Conceptual approaches and practical challenges. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, *1*, 305–331. doi:https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-031413-091314
- Carbonneau, N., Vallerand, R. J., Fernet, C., & Guay, F. (2008). The role of passion for teaching in intrapersonal and interpersonal outcomes. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *100*(4), 977–987. doi:10.1037/a0012545
- Cardon, M. S. (2008). Is passion contagious? The transference of entrepreneurial passion to employees. *Human Resource Management Review*, *18*, 77–86. doi:10.1016/j.hrmr.2008.04.001
- Cardon, M. S., Wincent, J., Singh, J., & Drnovsek, M. (2009). The nature and experience of entrepreneurial passion. *Academy of Management Review*, *34*, 511–532.
- Carpentier, J., Mageau, G. A., & Vallerand, R. J. (2012). Ruminations and flow: Why do people with a more harmonious passion experience higher well-being? *Journal of Happiness studies*, *13*(3), 501-518. doi:10.1007/s10902-011-9276-4
- Cassar, V., & Buttigieg, S. C. (2015). Psychological contract breach, organizational justice and emotional well-being. *Personnel Review*, *44*(2), 217–235. doi:https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-04-2013-0061
- Chai, T., & Draxler, R. R. (2014). Root mean square error (RMSE) or mean absolute error (MAE)? Arguments against avoiding RMSE in the literature. *Geoscientific Model Development*, *7*(3), 1247–1250. doi:10.5194/gmd-7-1247-2014

- Chan, S. H. J., & Mai, X. (2015). The relation of career adaptability to satisfaction and turnover intentions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 89, 130-139. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2015.05.005>
- Chatterjee, S., & Hadi, A. S. (2015). *Regression analysis by example*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Chen, C. P., & Haller, S. (2015). The role of career counselling in supporting career well-being of nurses. *Australian Journal of Career Development*, 24(1), 15–26. doi:10.1177/1038416214555772
- Chen, S., Westman, M., & Hobfoll, S. E. (2015). The commerce and crossover of resources: Resource conservation in the service of resilience. *Stress and Health*, 31(2), 95-105. doi:10.1002/smi.2574
- Chinyamurindi, W. T. (2016). A narrative investigation into the meaning and experience of career success: Perspectives from women participants: original research. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14(1), 1–11. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v14i1.659>
- Chmiel, M., Brunner, M., Martin, R., & Schalke, D. (2012). Revisiting the structure of subjective wellbeing in middle-aged adults. *Social Indicators Research*, 106, 109–116. doi:10.1007/s11205-011-9796-7
- Cho, E. & Kim, S. (2015). Cronbach's coefficient alpha: Well known but poorly understood. *Organizational Research Methods*, 18(2), 207–230. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428114555994>
- Chow, A., Krahn, H. J., & Galambos, N. L. (2014). Developmental trajectories of work values and job entitlement beliefs in the transition to adulthood. *Developmental Psychology*, 50(4), 1102–1115. doi:10.1037/a0035185
- Chudzikowski, K. (2012). Career transitions and career success in the 'new' career era. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 81, 298–306. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2011.10.005>
- Clark, A. (2010). Work, jobs, and wellbeing across the millennium. In E. Diener, J. Helliwell, & D. Kahneman (Eds.), *International differences in wellbeing* (pp. 436–464). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

- Clark, A. E. (1997). Job satisfaction and gender: Why are women so happy at work? *Labour Economics*, 4, 341–372.
- Clark, A. E. (2016). Adaptation and the Easterlin Paradox. In T. Tachibanaki (Ed.), *Advances in happiness research* (pp. 75–94). Japan: Springer.
- Clarke, M. (2008). Understanding and managing employability in changing career contexts. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 32(4), 258–284. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1108/03090590810871379>
- Coaley, K. (2014). *An introduction to psychological assessment and psychometrics*. London: Sage Publications.
- Coetzee, M. (2007a). *Exploratory factor analyses of the Psychological Career Resources Inventory* (Unpublished research report). Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, University of South Africa, Pretoria.
- Coetzee, M. (2007b). Career planning in the 21<sup>st</sup> century: Strategies for inventing a career in a dejobbed world of work. Cape Town: Juta.
- Coetzee, M. (2008). Psychological career resources of working adults: A South African survey. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 34(2), 10–20.
- Coetzee, M. (2013). A psychological career resources framework for contemporary career development. In M. Coetzee (Ed.), *Psychosocial career meta-capacities: Dynamics of contemporary career development*. Dordrecht, Netherlands: Springer.
- Coetzee, M. (2014a). A psychological career resources framework for contemporary career development. In M. Coetzee (Ed.), *Psychosocial career meta-capacities: dynamics of contemporary career development* (pp. 87–122). Dordrecht: Springer International. ISBN: 978-3-319-00644-4/e-pub: 978-3-319-00645-1
- Coetzee, M. (2014b). *Preliminary exploration of the psychosocial career preoccupations scale* (Unpublished research report). University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa.
- Coetzee, M. (2015). Employees' psychosocial career preoccupations in relation to their work-related commitment. *Southern African Business Review*, 19(3), 30-47.

- Coetzee, M. (2016a). Adaptive behaviour in the workplace: Psychosocial career preoccupations and openness to technological change. In T.V. Martin (Ed.), *Career development: Theories, practices and challenges* (pp. 63–78). NY: Nova Science Publishers, Inc.
- Coetzee, M. (2016b). Graduates' psychosocial career preoccupations and employability capacities in the work context. In M. Tomlinson, & L. Holmes (Eds.), *Graduate employability in context* (pp. 295–315). UK: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Coetzee, M. (2017). Psychosocial career preoccupations and employability capacities in the work context. In M. Tomlinson & L. Holmes (Eds.), *Graduate employability in context: research, theory and debate* (pp. 295–316). London: Palgrave MacMillan.
- Coetzee, M., & Bergh, Z. C. (2009). Psychological career resources and subjective work experiences of working adults: An exploratory study. *Southern African Business Review*, 13(2), 1-31.
- Coetzee, M., Bergh, Z. C., & Schreuder, A. M. G. (2010). *Career orientations and psychological career resources as predictors of subjective work experiences* (Unpublished research report). Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa.
- Coetzee, M., & Esterhuizen, K. (2010). Psychological career resources and coping resources of the young unemployed African graduate: An exploratory study. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 36(1), 1–31. doi:10.4102/sajip.v36i1.868
- Coetzee, M., Ferreira, N., & Potgieter, I. L. (2015). Assessing employability capacities and career adaptability in a sample of human resource professionals: Original research. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 13(1), 1–9. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v13i1.682
- Coetzee, M., Ferreira, N., & Shunmugum, C. (2017). Psychological career resources, career adaptability and work engagement of generational cohorts in the media industry. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 15.
- Coetzee, M., & Harry, N. (2014). Emotional intelligence as a predictor of employees' career adaptability. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 84(1), 90–97.

- Coetzee, M., & Harry, N. (2015). Gender and hardiness as predictors of career adaptability: an exploratory study among Black call centre agents. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 45(1), 81–92. doi:10.1177/0081246314546346
- Coetzee, M., & Roythorne-Jacobs, H. (2012). *Career counselling and guidance in the workplace: A manual for career practitioners* (2nd ed.). Cape Town: Juta.
- Coetzee, M., & Schreuder, A. M. G. (2008). A multi-cultural investigation of students' career anchors at a South African higher education institution. *SA Journal of Labour Relations*, 32(2), 1–21.
- Coetzee, M., & Schreuder, A. M. G. (2009). Psychological career resources as predictors of working adults' career anchors: An exploratory study. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 35(1), 1–11. doi:10.4102/sajip.v35i1.833
- Coetzee, M., & Schreuder, A. M. G. (2010). *Personnel psychology: An applied perspective*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- Coetzee, M., & Schreuder, A. M. G. (2012). Subjective work experiences, career orientations, and psychological career resources of working adults. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 26(2), 813–828.
- Coetzee, M., & Schreuder, A. M. G. (2014). Career anchors as a meta-capacity in organizational career development. In M. Coetzee (Ed.), *Psychosocial career meta-capacities* (pp. 139–154). Switzerland: Springer International.
- Coetzee, M., Schreuder, D., & Kotze, C. (2014). Exploring personality preferences in relation to psychological career resources among managerial staff in the Western Cape fast food industry. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, 24(4), 308–314.
- Coetzee, M., & Stoltz, E. (2015). Employees' satisfaction with retention factors: Exploring the role of career adaptability. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 89, 83–91. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2015.04.012
- Cohen, A. (2014). *Kant's lectures on anthropology*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S. G., & Aiken, L. S. (2013). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences*. New York, NY: Routledge.

- Cole, D. A., & Preacher, K. J. (2014). Manifest variable path analysis: Potentially serious and misleading consequences due to uncorrected measurement error. *Psychological Methods*, *19*(2), 300. doi:10.1037/a0033805
- Coleman, L. J., & Guo, A. (2013). Exploring Children's Passion for Learning in Six Domains. *Journal for the Education of the Gifted*, *36*(2), 155-175.
- Colff, J. J., & Rothmann, S. (2014). Burnout of registered nurses in South Africa. *Journal of Nursing Management*, *22*(5), 630–642. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2834.2012.01467.x
- Connelly, B. L., Haynes, K. T., Tihanyi, L., Gamache, D. L., & Devers, C. E. (2016). Minding the gap: antecedents and consequences of top management-to-worker pay dispersion. *Journal of Management*, *42*(4), 862-885.
- Cordeiro, P. M., Paixão, M. P., Lens, W., Lacante, M., & Luyckx, K. (2015). Cognitive–motivational antecedents of career decision-making processes in Portuguese high school students: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *90*, 145-153. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2015.10.002
- Corder, G. W., & Foreman, D. I. (2014). *Nonparametric statistics: A step-by-step approach*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons. doi:978-1118840313
- Creed, P. A., & Blume, K. (2013). Compromise, wellbeing, and action behaviors in young adults in career transition. *Journal of Career Assessment*, *21*, 3–19. doi:10.1177/1069072712453830
- Creed, P. A., Fallon, T., & Hood, M. (2009). The relationship between career adaptability, person and situation variables, and career concerns in young adults. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *74*(2), 219–229. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2008.12.004
- Creed, P.A., Hood, M., & Hu, S. (2017). Personal orientation as an antecedent to career stress and employability confidence: The intervening roles of career goal-performance discrepancy and career goal importance. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *99*, 79-92. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2016.12.007
- Creed, P. A., Hood, M., Praskova, A., & Makransky, G. (2016). The career distress scale: Using Rasch measurement theory to evaluate a brief measure of career distress. *Journal of Career Assessment*, *24*(4), 732-746.

- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed method approaches* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Cullen, K. L., Edwards, B. D., Casper, W. C., & Gue, K. R. (2014). Employees' adaptability and perceptions of change-related uncertainty: implications for perceived organizational support, job satisfaction and performance. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 29*, 269–280. doi:10.1007/s10869-013-9312-y
- Curran, T., Hill, A. P., Appleton, P. R., Vallerand, R. J., & Standage, M. (2015). The psychology of passion: A meta-analytical review of a decade of research on intrapersonal outcomes. *Motivation and Emotion, 39*(5), 631–655. doi:http://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s11031-015-9503-0
- Custodio, L.P. (2004). Career anchors of Filipino Academic Executives. School of Commerce Research Paper Series: 00-13, *College of Business and Accountancy, Virac*.
- Dagenais-Desmarais, V., Forest, J., Girouard, S., & Crevier-Braud, L. (2014). The Importance of Need-Supportive Relationships for Motivation and Psychological Health at Work. In Human Motivation and Interpersonal Relationships (pp. 263-297). Springer Netherlands.
- Daukantaitė, D., Hefferon, K., & Sikström, S. (2015). The harmony in life scale complements the satisfaction with life scale: Expanding the conceptualization of the cognitive component of subjective well-being. *Social Indicators Research, 126*(2), 893–919.
- David, S.A., Boniwell, I., & Conley, A. (2013) *The Oxford handbook of happiness*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Dawis, R. V. (1992). The individual difference tradition in counseling psychology. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 39*, 7–19.
- Dawis, R. V. (2002). Person-environment-correspondence theory. In D. Brown & Associate (Eds.), *Career choice and development* (4th ed., pp. 427–464). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Dawis, R. V. (2005). The Minnesota theory of work adjustment. In S. D. Brown & R. T. Lent (Eds.), *Career development and counseling: Putting theory and research to work* (pp. 3–23). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

- Dawis, R. V., & Lofquist, L. H. (1984). *A psychological theory of work adjustment*. Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota Press.
- Dawson, C., Veliziotis, M., & Hopkins, B. (2014). Temporary employment, job satisfaction and subjective well-being. *Economic and Industrial Democracy* 38(1), 69–98. doi:10.1177/0143831X14559781
- Dawson, J. F. (2013). Moderation in management research: What, why, when and how. *Journal of Business and Psychology*. doi:10.1007/s10869-013-9308-7
- Deaton, A. (2008). Income, health and well-being around the world: Evidence from the Gallup World Poll. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 22, 53–72. doi:10.1257/jep.22.2.53
- De Carvalho, J., & Chima, F. O. (2014). Applications of structural equation modeling in social sciences research. *American International Journal of Contemporary*, 4(1), 6–11.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). The general causality orientations scale: Self-determination in personality. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 19(2), 109–134.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The “what” and “why” of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11, 227–268. doi:10.1207/S15327965 PLI1104\_01
- DeFillippi, R. J., & Arthur, M. B. (1994). The boundaryless career: A competency-based perspective. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 15(4), 307–324. doi:http://www.jstor.org/stable/2488429
- Del Corso, J. L. (2013). The theory of career adaptability. In A. Di Fabio & J. G. Maree (Eds.), *The psychology of career counseling: New challenges for a new era* (pp. 117–130). New York: Nova Science.
- Della Porta, D., & Keating, M. (2008). *Approaches and methodologies in the social sciences*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Demetriou, C., Ozer, B. U., & Essau, C. A. (2015). Self-report questionnaires. In *The encyclopedia of clinical psychology* (pp. 1–6). Wiley Online Library. doi:10.1002/9781118625392.wbecp507
- Demo, G., & Paschoal, T. (2013). Wellbeing at Work Scale: Exploratory and confirmatory validation in the United States comprising affective and cognitive components. *Rio de Janeiro Research Journal*, 11(7), 1–16. doi:10.5539/ibr.v6n11p29

- Department of Statistics (2016). *Quarterly Labour Force Survey, Quarter 1: 2016*. Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.
- Derr, C. (1986). Five definitions of career success: Implications for relationships. *Applied Psychology, 35*(3), 415–435.
- Descartes, R. (1961). *Passions of the soul: Essential works of Descartes* (L. Blair, Trans.). New York: Bantam Books.
- De Vaus, D. A. (2001). *Research design in social research*. London: Sage Publications.
- De Vaus, D. (2006). *Research design*. London: Sage Publications.
- De Vos, A., & Soens, N. (2008). Protean attitude and career success: The mediating role of self-management. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 73*(3), 449–456. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2008.08.007
- De Vos, A. S., Strydom, H., Fouche, C. B., & Delpont, C. S. L. (2011). *Research at grass roots* (4th ed.). Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- DHET. (2014). *Government Gazette Notice 380: National Scarce Skills List, Version 20 May 2014*. Pretoria: Government Printer.
- Diedericks, E., & Rothmann, S. (2013). Flourishing of information technology professionals: The role of work engagement and job satisfaction. *Journal of Psychology in Africa, 23*(2), 225–233.
- Diener, E. (2013). The remarkable changes in the science of subjective wellbeing. *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 8*(6), 663–666. doi:10.1177/1745691613507583
- Diener, E., & Biswas Diener, R. (2008). *Happiness: Unlocking the mysteries of psychological wealth*. Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Diener, E., & Diener, C. (1996). Most people are happy. *Psychological Science, 7*, 181–185.
- Diener, E., & Diener, M. (1995). Cross cultural correlates of life satisfaction and self-esteem. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 68*, 653–663.
- Diener, E., Emmons, R. A., Larsen, R. J., & Griffin, S. (1985). The Satisfaction with Life Scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 49*, 71–75.

- Diener, E., Larsen, R. J., Levine, S., & Emmons, R. A. (1985). Intensity and frequency: dimensions underlying positive and negative affect. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 48(5), 1253.
- Diener, E., Oishi, S., & Lucas, R. E. (2015). National accounts of subjective well-being. *American Psychologist*, 70(3), 234. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0038899
- Diener, E., & Ryan, K. (2009). Subjective well-being: A general overview. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 39(4), 391–406.
- Diener, E., & Suh, E. M. (Eds). (2000). *Culture and subjective wellbeing*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Diener, E., Suh, E. M., Lucas, R. E., & Smith, H. L. (1999). Subjective wellbeing: Three decades of progress. *Psychological Bulletin*, 125, 276–302.
- Diener, E., Tay, L., & Oishi, S. (2013). Rising income and the subjective wellbeing of nations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 104, 267–276. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0030487
- Diener, E., Wirtz, D., Tov, W., Kim-Prieto, C., Choi, D., Oishi, S., & Biswas-Diener, R. (2010). New wellbeing measures: Short scales to assess flourishing and positive and negative feelings. *Social Indicators Research*, 97, 143–156. doi:10.1007/s11205-009-9493-y
- Dik, B. J., Byrne, Z. S., & Steger, M. F. (Eds.). (2013). *Purpose and meaning in the workplace*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- DiRenzo, M. S., & Greenhaus, J. H. (2011). Job search and voluntary turnover in a boundaryless world: a control theory perspective. *Journal of Academic Management*, 36, 567–89. doi:http://hdl.handle.net/10945/44976
- Dolan, S. L., Bejarano, A., & Tzafirir, S. (2011). Exploring the moderating effect of gender in the relationship between individuals' aspirations and career success among engineers in Peru. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, (22), 3146–3167. doi:org/10.1080/09585192.2011.560883
- Dolezalek, H. (2007). Got high potentials? (leadership development). *Development and Learning in Organizations: An International Journal*, 21(4), 18-22. doi:10.1108/dlo.2007.08121dad

- Donald, W., Baruch, Y., & Ashleigh, M. (2017). Boundaryless and Protean Career Orientation: A Multitude of Pathways to Graduate Employability. In *Graduate Employability in Context* (pp. 129-150). Palgrave Macmillan UK.
- Doubell, M., & Struwig, M. (2014). Perceptions of factors influencing the career success of professional and business women in South Africa. *South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences*, *17*(5), 531–543.
- Douglass, R. P., & Duffy, R. D. (2015). Calling and career adaptability among undergraduate students. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *86*, 58–65. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2014.11.003>
- Draper, N. R., & Smith, H. (2014). *Applied regression analysis*. Canada: John Wiley & Sons.
- Dries, N., Pepermans, R., Hofmans, J., & Rypens, L. (2009). Development and validation of an objective intra-organizational career success measure for managers. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *30*, 543–560.
- Duckworth, A. L., Peterson, C., Matthews, M. D., & Kelly, D. R. (2007). Grit: perseverance and passion for long-term goals. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *92*(6), 1087–1101. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.92.6.1087
- Duffy, R. D., & Dik, B. J. (2013). Research on calling: What have we learned and where are we going? *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *83*, 428–436. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2013.06.006>
- Duffy, R. D., & Sedlacek, W. E. (2010). The salience of a career calling among college students: Exploring group differences and links to religiousness, life meaning, and life satisfaction. *The Career Development Quarterly*, *59*, 27–41. doi:<http://search.proquest.com>
- Dunn, T. J., Baguley, T. & Brunnsden, V. (2013). From alpha to omega: A practical solution to the pervasive problem of internal consistency estimation. *British Journal of Psychology*, *105*, 399–412.
- Dunning, J. H. (2014). *The globalization of business (Routledge Revivals): The challenge of the 1990s*. London: Routledge.
- Du Toit, D., & Coetzee, M. (2012). Exploring the perceived career success of staff in a South African science and engineering company. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, *22*(1), 96–105.

- Dyer, J. H., Rodgers, Z. J., & Baer, M. (2016). Going against the grain but rising to the top: Career returns to engaging creative behaviors at work. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, 1, 14715. doi:10.5465/AMBPP.2016.14715abstract
- Easterlin, R. (1974). Does economic growth improve the human lot? Some empirical evidence. In P. David & W. Melvin (Eds.), *Nations and households in economic growth* (pp. 98–125). Palo Alto, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Easterlin, R. A. (2015). Happiness and economic growth: The evidence. In W. Glatzer et al. (Eds.), *Global handbook of quality of life* (pp. 283–299). Netherlands: Springer.
- Eaton, L., & Louw, J. (2000). Culture and self in South Africa: Individualism-collectivism predictions. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 140(2), 210–217. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00224540009600461
- Eby, L. T., Butts, M., & Lockwood, A. (2003). Predictors of success in the era of the boundaryless career. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24(6), 689-708. doi:10.1002/job.214
- Eddleston, K. A., Baldrige, D. C., & Veiga, J. F. (2004). Toward modelling the predictors of managerial career success: Does gender matter? *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 19(4), 360–385. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/02683940410537936
- Edwards, R., Raggatt, P., & Small, N. (Eds.). (2013). *The learning society: challenges and trends*. London: Routledge.
- Eid, M., & Diener, E. (2001). Norms for experiencing emotions in different cultures: Inter and intranational differences. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 81, 869–885. doi:10.1037//0022-3514.81.5.869
- Eisenberger, R., Malone, G. P., & Presson, W. D. (2016). Optimizing perceived organizational support to enhance employee engagement. *Society for Human Resource Management and Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology*.
- Eisinger, R., Te Grotenhuis, M., & Pelzer, B. (2013). The reliability of a two-item scale: Pearson, Cronbach or Spearman-Brown. *International Journal of Public Health*, 58(4), 637–642. doi:http://hdl.handle.net/2066/116735
- Emmel, N. (2013). *Sampling and choosing cases in qualitative research: A realist approach*. London: Sage Publications.

- Erikson, E. H. (1963). *Identity: Youth and crisis*. London: Faber & Faber.
- Erikson, E. H., (1966). The concept of identity in race relations: Notes and queries. *Daedalus*, 96, 145–171.
- Evers, A., & Sieverding, M. (2014). Why do highly qualified women (still) earn less? Gender differences in long-term predictors of career success. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 38(1), 93–106. doi:10.1177/0361684313498071
- Evetts, J. (2017). *Women in Primary Teaching: career contexts and strategies*. Routledge.
- Favero, N., & Bullock, J. B. (2014). How (not) to solve the problem: An evaluation of scholarly responses to common source bias. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 25(1), 285–308. doi:10.1093/jopart/muu020
- Fayolle, A., & Liñán, F. (2014). The future of research on entrepreneurial intentions. *Journal of Business Research*, 67(5), 663–666. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2013.11.024
- Fayolle, A., Liñán, F., & Moriano, J. A. (2014). Beyond entrepreneurial intentions: Values and motivations in entrepreneurship. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 10(4), 679–689.
- Feij, J. A., Van der Velde, M. E. G., Taris, R., & Taris, T. W. (1999). The development of person–vocation fit: A longitudinal study among youth employees. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 7, 12–25.
- Feldman, D. C. (2002). *Work careers: A developmental perspective*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Feldman, D.C., & Bolino, M.C. (1996). Careers within careers: Reconceptualising the nature of career anchors and their consequences. *Human Resource Management Review*, 6(2), 89-112.
- Fernet, C., Lavigne, G. L., Vallerand, R. J., & Austin, S. (2014). Fired up with passion: Investigating how job autonomy and passion predict burnout at career start in teachers. *Work & Stress*, 28(3), 270-288. doi:10.1080/02678373.2014.935524
- Ferreira, N. (2012). *Constructing a psychological profile for staff retention* (Unpublished doctoral thesis). University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa.

- Ferreira, N., Basson, J., & Coetzee, M. (2010). Psychological career resources in relation to commitment: An exploratory study. *South African Journal of Human Resource Management*, 8(1), 1–10. doi:10.4102/sajhrm.v8i1.284
- Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using SPSS (and sex, drugs and rock-and-roll)* (4th ed.). Los Angeles: Sage Publications.
- Fleisher, C., Khapova, S.N., & Jansen, P.G.W. (2014). Effects of employees' career competencies development on their organizations. *Career Development International*, 19(6), 700-717. doi:10.1108/CDI-12-2013-0150
- Flett, G. L., & Hewitt, P. L. (2005). The perils of perfectionism in sports and exercise. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 14(1), 14–18.
- Flores, L. Y. (2008). Career development research and practice with diverse cultural and gender groups. *Journal of Career Development*, 34(3), 215–217. doi:10.1177/0894845308314568
- Forest, J., Mageau, G. A., Crevier-Braud, L., Bergeron, É., Dubreuil, P., & Lavigne, G. L. (2012). Harmonious passion as an explanation of the relation between signature strengths' use and well-being at work: Test of an intervention program. *Human Relations*, 65(9), 1233-1252. doi:10.1177/00187267111433134
- Forest, J., Mageau, G. A., Sarrazin, C., & Morin, E. M. (2011). Work is my passion: The different affective, behavioural, and cognitive consequences of harmonious and obsessive passion toward work. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences/Revue Canadienne des Sciences de l'Administration*, 28, 27–40. doi:10.1002/CJAS.170
- Foxcroft, C., & Roodt, G. (2007). *An introduction to psychological assessment in the South African context* (2nd ed.). Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- Fredrickson, B. L. (1998). What good are positive emotions? *Review of General Psychology*, 2, 300–319. doi:10.1037/1089-2680.2.3.300
- Frese, M., & Zapf, D. (1994). Action as the core of work psychology: A German approach. In H. C. Triandis, M. D. Dunnette, & L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook on industrial and organizational psychology Vol. 4*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Frijda, N. H. (2010). Not passion's slave. *Emotion Review*, 2(1), 68–75. doi:https://doi.org/10.1177/1754073909345543

- Fritz, M. S., Taylor, A. B., & MacKinnon, D. P. (2012). Explanation of two anomalous results in statistical mediation analysis. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, *47*, 61–87. doi:10.1080/00273171.2012.640596
- Fujita, F., Diener, E., & Sandvik, E. (1991). Gender differences in negative affect and well-being: the case for emotional intensity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *61*(3), 427–434. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.61.3.427
- Fuller, C. M., Simmering, M. J., Atinc, G., Atinc, Y., & Babin, B. J. (2015). Common methods variance detection in business research. *Journal of Business Research*, *69*(8), 3192–3198. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2015.12.008
- Fuster, H., Chamarro, A., Carbonell, X., & Vallerand, R. J. (2014). Relationship between passion and motivation for gaming in players of massively multiplayer online role-playing games. *Cyberpsychology, Behavior, and Social Networking*, *17*(5), 292–297. doi:10.1089/cyber.2013.0349
- Gagné, M., & Deci, E. L. (2014). The history of self-determination theory in psychology. In M. Gagné (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of work engagement, motivation, and self-determination theory*. USA: Oxford University Press.
- Galinsky, E., Aumann, K., & Bond, J. T. (2013). Times are changing: Gender and generation at work and at home in the USA. In S. Poelmans et al. (Eds.), *Expanding the boundaries of work-family research* (pp. 279–296). United Kingdom: Palgrave Macmillan.
- García-Bernal, J., Gargallo-Castel, A., Marzo-Navarro, M., & Rivera-Torres, P. (2005). Job satisfaction: empirical evidence of gender differences. *Women in Management Review*, *20*(4), 279–288. doi:10.1108/09649420510599098
- Gatignon, H. (2014). Confirmatory factor analysis. In H. Gatignon (Ed.), *Statistical analysis of management data* (pp. 77–154). Springer.
- Gaziougly, S., & Tansel, A., (2006), Job satisfaction in Britain: Individual and job-related factors. *Applied Economics*, *38*, 1163–1171. doi:10.1080/00036840500392987
- Geldhof, G. J., Preacher, K. J., & Zyphur, M. J. (2014). Reliability estimation in a multilevel confirmatory factor analysis framework. *Psychological Methods*, *19*(1), 72. doi:10.1037/a0032138

- George, G., Atujuna, M., & Gow, J. (2013). Migration of South African health workers: The extent to which financial considerations influence internal flows and external movements. *BMC Health Services Research*, *13*(1), 1–8. doi:10.1186/1472-6963-13-297
- Gillet, N., Fouquereau, E., Forest, J., Brunault, P., & Colombat, P. (2012). The impact of organizational factors on psychological needs and their relations with well-being. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *27*(4), 437–450. doi:10.1007/s10869-011-9253-2
- Gilson, L. (2006). Trust in health care: Theoretical perspectives and research needs. *Journal of Health Organization and Management*, *20*(5), 359–375. doi:https://doi.org/10.1108/14777260610701768
- González, J. V., & Garazo, T. G. (2006). Structural relationships between organizational service orientation, contact employee job satisfaction and citizenship behaviour. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, *17*(1), 23–50. doi:https://doi.org/10.1108/09564230610651561
- Goodwin, C. J., & Goodwin, K. A. (2016). *Research in psychology methods and design*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Gorard, S. (2013). *Research design: Creating robust approaches for the social sciences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Govindji, R., & Linley, P. A. (2007). Strengths use, self-concordance and well-being: Implications for strengths coaching and coaching psychologists. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, *2*(2), 143–153.
- Greenhaus, J. H., & Callanan, G. A. (2013). Career dynamics. In N. Schmitt & S. Highhouse (Eds.), *Handbook of psychology, Vol. 12* (pp. 593–614). New York, NY: Wiley. doi:10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-031413-091324
- Greenhaus, J. H., Callanan, G. A., & Godschalk, V. M. (2000). *Career management* (3rd ed.). Fort Worth, TX: Dryden Press.
- Greenhaus, J. H., Parasuraman, S., & Wormley, W. M. (1990). Effects of race on organizational experiences, job performance evaluations, and career outcomes. *Academy of Management Journal*, *33*, 64–86.
- Gregory, R. J. (2000). *Psychological testing: History, principles and applications* (3rd ed.). Massachusetts: Allyn & Bacon.

- Griffin, B., & Hesketh, B. (2003). Adaptable behaviours for successful work and career adjustment. *Australian Journal of Psychology, 55*, 65–73.
- Guay, F., Ratelle, C. F., Senécal, C., Larose, S., & Deschênes, A. (2006). Distinguishing developmental from chronic career indecision: Self-efficacy, autonomy, and social support. *Journal of Career Assessment, 14*(2), 235–251. doi:10.1177/1069072705283975
- Guinot, J., Chiva, R., & Roca-Puig, V. (2014). Interpersonal trust, stress and satisfaction at work: an empirical study. *Personnel Review, 43*(1), 96–115. doi:http://hdl.handle.net/10234/125024
- Gurin, G., Veroff, J., & Feld, S. (1960). *Americans view their mental health*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan, Survey Research Center.
- Haar, J. M., & Brougham, D. M. (2013). An indigenous model of career satisfaction: Exploring the role of workplace cultural wellbeing. *Social Indicators Research, 110*(3), 873–890.
- Hair, J. F. Jr., Babin, B., Money, A. H., & Samouel, P. (2003). *Essential of business research methods*. United States of America: John Wiley & Sons.
- Hair, J. F., Jr., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis* (7th ed.). London, UK: Pearson Prentice-Hall.
- Halbesleben, J. R., Neveu, J. P., Paustian-Underdahl, S. C., & Westman, M. (2014). Getting to the “COR” understanding the role of resources in conservation of resources theory. *Journal of Management, 40*(5), 1334–1364. doi:https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206314527130
- Hall, C. (2002). Passions and constraint: The marginalization of passion in liberal political theory. *Philosophy & Social Criticism, 28*(6), 727–748.
- Hall, D. T. (1976). *Careers in organizations*. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman.
- Hall, D. T. (1996). Protean careers of the 21st century. *Academy of Management Executive, 10*(4), 8–16.
- Hall, D. T. (2002). *Protean careers in and out of organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Hall, D. T. (2004). The protean career: A quarter-century journey. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 65*(1), 1-13. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2003.10.006

- Hall, D. T. (2013). Protean careers in the 21st century. In K. Inkson, & M. L. Savickas (Eds.), *Career studies, Vol 1. Foundations for career studies* (pp. 245–554). London: Sage Publications.
- Hall, D. T., & Chandler, D. E. (2005). Psychological success: When the career is a calling. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 26*, 155–176. doi:10.1002/job.301
- Hall, D. T., Lee M. D., Kossek, E. E., & Las Heras, M. (2012). Pursuing career success while sustaining personal and family wellbeing: a study of reduced-load professionals over time. *Journal of Social Issues, 68*, 741–765.
- Hall, D. T., & Mirvis, P. H. (1996). The new protean career: Psychological success and the path with a heart. In D. T. Hall (Ed.), *The career is dead – long live the career*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Hall, D. T., & Mirvis, P. H. (2013). Redefining work, work identity, and career success. In D. L. Blustein (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of the psychology of working* (pp. 203–217). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Hamtiaux, A., Houssemand, C., & Vrignaud, P. (2013). Individual and career adaptability: comparing models and measures. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 83*, 130–141.
- Handley, K., & Den Outer, B. (2016). Work and careers: Narratives from knowledge workers aged 48–58. In S., Manfredi, & L. Vickers, *Challenges of active ageing* (pp. 209–230). UK: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Harrell, F. (2015). *Regression modelling strategies: With applications to linear models, logistic and ordinal regression, and survival analysis*. Springer.
- Harry, N., & Coetzee, M. (2013). Sense of coherence, career adaptability and burnout of early-career black staff in the call centre environment. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 39*(2), 1–10.
- Hart, C. (1998). *Doing a literature review: Releasing the social science research imagination*. London: Sage Publications.
- Harter, J., & Arora, R. (2010). The impact of time spent working and job fit on wellbeing around the world. In E. Diener, J. Helliwell, & D. Kahneman (Eds.), *International differences in wellbeing* (pp. 398–435). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

- Hartung, P. J., & Taber, B. J. (2008). Career construction and subjective wellbeing. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 16, 75–85. doi:10.1177/1069072707305772
- Havenga, M. (2011). *The relationship between career adaptability and academic achievement in the course of life design counselling* (Unpublished master's thesis). University of Pretoria, Pretoria, South Africa.
- Hayes, A. F. (2013). *An introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Headey, B. (2010). The set point theory of well-being has serious flaws: On the eve of a scientific revolution? *Social Indicators Research*, 97, 7–21. doi:10.1007/s11205-009-9559-x
- Heckhausen, J., Wrosch, C., & Schulz, R. A. (2010). Motivational theory of life-span development. *Psychological Review*, 117, 32–60. doi:10.1037/a0017668
- Hefferon, K., & Boniwell, I. (2011). *Positive psychology: Theory, research and applications*. New York, NY: Open University Press.
- Helyer, R., & Lee, D. (2014). The role of work experience in the future employability of higher education graduates. *Higher Education Quarterly*, 68(3), 348–372.
- Heng, C. Y., & Yazdanifard, R. (2013). Generation gap: Is there any solid solution? From a human relation point of view. *International Journal of Economy, Management and Social Sciences*, 2(10), 837–840.
- Hennink, M., Hutter, I., & Bailey, A. (2011). *Qualitative research methods*. London: Sage Publications.
- Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2015). A new criterion for assessing discriminant validity in variance-based structural equation modeling. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 43(1), 115–135. doi:10.1007/s11747-014-0403-8
- Herbst, J., & Mills, G. (2015). *How South Africa works: And must do better*. South Africa: Pan Macmillan.
- Heslin, P.A. & Turban, D.B. (2016). Enabling career success as an emergent process. *Organizational Dynamics*, 45, 155-164. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2016.07.001>

- Hewitt, J. P. (2009). *Oxford handbook of positive psychology* (pp. 217–224). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Highhouse, S., Doverspike, D., & Guion, R. M. (2015). *Essentials of personnel assessment and selection*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Hirsch, B.J., & Rapkin, B.D. (1986). Social networks and adult social identities: Profiles and correlates of support and rejection. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 14*, 395–412. doi:10.1007/BF00922626
- Hirschi, A. (2012). Callings and work engagement: Moderated mediation model of work meaningfulness, occupational identity, and occupational self-efficacy. *Journal of Counselling Psychology, 59*(3), 479. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0028949
- Hjørland, B. (2005). Library and information science and the philosophy of science. *Journal of Documentation, 61*(1), 5–10. doi:10.1108/00220410510578050
- Ho, A. D., & Yu, C. C. (2015). Descriptive statistics for modern test score distributions: Skewness, kurtosis, discreteness, and ceiling effects. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 75*(3), 365–388.
- Ho, J. T. S. (1997). Corporate wellness programmes in Singapore: Effect on stress, satisfaction and absenteeism. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 12*(3), 177–189. doi:https://doi.org/10.1108/02683949710174801
- Ho, V., Wong, S., & Lee, C. (2011). A tale of passion: Linking job passion and cognitive engagement to employee work performance. *Journal of Management Studies, 48*(1), 26–41.
- Hobfoll, S. E. (1988). *The ecology of stress*. New York: Hemisphere Publishing Corporation.
- Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist, 44*, 513–524.
- Hobfoll, S. E. (1998). *Stress, culture, and community: The psychology and philosophy of stress*. New York: Plenum.
- Hobfoll, S. E. (2001). The Influence of Culture, Community, and the Nested-Self in the Stress Process: Advancing Conservation of Resources Theory. *Stress: The International Journal on the Biology of Stress, 50*(3), 337-369.

- Hobfoll, S. E. (2002). Social and psychological resources and adaptation. *Review of General Psychology, 6*(4), 307–324. doi:10.1037//1089-2680.6.4.307
- Hobfoll, S. E., Canetti-Nisim D., & Johnson, R. J. (2006). Exposure to terrorism, stress-related mental health symptoms, and defensive coping among Jews and Arabs in Israel. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 74*, 207–218. doi:10.1037/0022-006X.74.2.207
- Hobfoll, S. E., & Schumm, J. A. (2009). Conservation of resources theory. Application to public health promotion. In R. J. DiClemente, R. A. Crosby, & M. C. Kegler (Eds.), *Emerging theories in health promotion: Practice and research* (2nd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Hobfoll, S. E., & Shirom A. (2001). Conservation of resources theory: Applications to stress and management in the workplace. In R. T. Golembiewski (Ed.), *Handbook of organizational behavior* (2nd. ed.; pp. 57–80). Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press.
- Hobfoll, S. E., Stevens, N. R., & Zalta, A. K. (2015). Expanding the science of resilience: Conserving resources in the aid of adaptation. *Psychological Inquiry, 26*(2), 174–180. doi:10.1080/1047840X.2015.1002377
- Hodgins, H., & Knee, R. (2002). The integrating self and conscious experience. In E. Deci & R. Ryan (Eds.), *Handbook of self-determination research* (pp. 87–100). Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press.
- Hofmann, W., Luhmann, M., Fisher, R. R., Vohs, K. D., & Baumeister, R. F. (2014). Yes, but are they happy? Effects of trait self-control on affective well-being and life satisfaction. *Journal of Personality, 82*(4), 265–277. doi:10.1111/jopy.12050
- Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions, and organizations across nations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Hofstetter, H., & Rosenblatt, Z. (2016). Predicting protean and physical boundaryless career attitudes by work importance and work alternatives: Regulatory focus mediation effects. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 1*–23. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2015.1128465
- Hogan, R., Chamorro-Premuzic, T., & Kaiser, R. B. (2013). Employability and career success: Bridging the gap between theory and reality. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 6*(1), 3–16. doi:10.1111/iops.12001

- Holland, J. L. (1997). *Making vocational choices: A theory of vocational personalities and work environments* (3rd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Holman, D. (2013). Job types and job quality in Europe. *Human Relations*, 66(4), 475–502. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726712456407>
- Holmgren, L., Tirone, V., Gerhart, J., & Hobfoll, S. E. (2017). Conservation of Resources Theory. In C.L. Cooper, J. C. Quick (Eds), *The Handbook of Stress and Health: A Guide to Research and Practice*, 443–457.
- Holt, L., & Brockett, R. G. (2012). Self-direction and factors influencing technology use: Examining the relationships for the 21st century workplace. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 28, 2075–2082. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2012.06.011>
- Houliort, N., Fernet, C., Vallerand, R. J., Laframboise, A., Guay, F., & Koestner, R. (2015). The role of passion for work and need satisfaction in psychological adjustment to retirement. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 88, 84–94. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2015.02.005>
- Houliort, N., Philippe, F. L., Vallerand, R. J., & Ménard, J. (2013). On passion and heavy work investment: Personal and organizational outcomes. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 29, 25–45. doi:10.1108/JMP-06-2013-0155
- Howard, J., Gagné, M., Morin, A. J., & Van den Broeck, A. (2016). Motivation profiles at work: A self-determination theory approach. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 95, 74–89. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2016.07.004>
- Howell, D. C. (2009). *Statistical methods for psychology* (7th ed.). Belmont, CA: Cengage Learning.
- Hu, L., & Bentler, P. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 6(1), 1–55. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10705519909540118>
- Humes, W. (2011). Creativity and wellbeing in education: Possibilities, tensions and personal journeys. *Teen Journal*, 2(1). doi:<http://bit.ly/tmkJYf>
- Huta, V., & Waterman, A. S. (2014). Eudaimonia and its distinction from hedonia: Developing a classification and terminology for understanding conceptual and operational definitions. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 15(6), 1425–1456. doi:10.1007/s10902-013-9485-0

- Iellatchitch, A., Mayrhofer, W., & Meyer, M. (2003). Career fields: A small step towards a grand career theory? *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14(5), 728–750. doi:10.1080/0958519032000080776
- Inkson, K. (2008). The boundary-less career. In S. Cartwright & C. L. Cooper (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of personnel psychology* (pp. 545–564). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Inkson, K., Dries, N., & Arnold, J. (2014). *Understanding careers: Metaphors of working lives*. Sage.
- Inkson, K., Gunz, H. P., Ganesh, S., & Roper, J. (2012). Boundaryless careers: Bringing back boundaries. *Organization Studies*, 33(3), 323–340. doi:https://doi.org/10.1177/0170840611435600
- Inkson, K., McNulty, Y., & Thorn, K. (2013). The global careers of Australians and New Zealanders. In C. Reis & Y. Baruch (Eds.), *Careers without borders: Critical perspectives* (pp. 135–160). New York, NY: Routledge. doi:http://hdl.handle.net/2292/30995
- Ismail, M., Rasdi, R. M., & Wahat, N. W. A. (2004). High-flyer women academicians: Factors contributing to success. *Women in Management Review*, 20, 117–132. doi:https://doi.org/10.1108/09649420510584454
- Izzo, M. V., & Lamb, P. (2003). Developing self-determination through career development activities: Implications for vocational rehabilitation counselors. *Journal of Vocational Rehabilitation*, 19(2), 71–78.
- Jakobsen, M., & Jensen, R. (2015). Common method bias in public management studies. *International Public Management Journal*, 18(1), 3–30.
- Jarvis, P. (2007). *Globalization, lifelong learning and the learning society: Sociological perspectives*. London: Routledge.
- Jaumotte, F., Lall, S., & Papageorgiou, C. (2013). Rising income inequality: Technology, or trade and financial globalization? *IMF Economic Review*, 61(2), 271–309.
- Jayasingam, S., & Yong, J. R. (2013). Affective commitment among knowledge workers: The role of pay satisfaction and organization career management. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24(20), 3903–3920.

- Jen, R. F. (2010). Is information technology career unique? Exploring differences in career commitment & its determinants among IT & Non-IT employees. *International Journal of Electronic Business Management*, 8(4), 263–271.
- Jex, S. M., & Britt, T. W. (2014). *Organizational psychology: A scientist-practitioner approach*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Jivraj, S., Nazroo, J., Vanhoutte, B., & Chandola, T. (2014). Aging and subjective well-being in later life. *The Journals of Gerontology Series B: Psychological Sciences and Social Sciences*, 69(6), 930–941. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1093/geronb/gbu006>
- Joanes, D. N., & Gill, C. A. (1998). Comparing measures of sample skewness and kurtosis. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society (Series D): The Statistician*, 47(1), 183–189. doi:10.1111/1467-9884.00122
- João, T. F., & Coetzee, M. (2012). Job retention factors, perceived career mobility and organisational commitment in the South African financial sector. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, 22(1), 69–76.
- Johnson, M.K., & Monserud, M.A. (2012). Work value development from adolescence to adulthood. *Advances in Life Course Research*, 17 (2), 45–58. doi:10.1016/j.alcr.2012.02.002
- Johnsrud, L. K. (2002). Measuring the quality of faculty and administrative worklife: Implications for college and university campuses. *Research in Higher Education* 43, 379–395. doi:10.1023/A:1014845218989
- Johri, R., & Misra, R. K. (2014). Self-efficacy, work passion and wellbeing: A theoretical framework. *IUP Journal of Soft Skills*, 8(4), 20–35.
- Jonker, J., & Pennink, B. (2010). *The essence of research methodology: A concise guide for master and PhD students in Management Science*. Heidelberg: Springer.
- Joussain, A. (1928). *Les passions humaines*. Ernest Flammarion.
- Judge, T. A., Cable, D. M., Boudreau, J. W., & Bretz, R. D. (1994). An empirical investigation of the predictors of executive career success. *Personnel Psychology*, 48, 485–519. doi:<http://digitalcommons.ilr.cornell.edu/cahrswp/233>
- Judge, T. A., & Watanabe, S. (1993). Another look at the job satisfaction-life satisfaction relationship. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78, 939–948. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.78.6.939

- Jung, Y., & Takeuchi, N. (2014). A life span perspective for understanding employee career orientations and success. In *Academy of Management Proceedings* (Vol. 2014, No. 1, p. 14616). Academy of Management. doi:10.5465/AMBPP.2014.14616abstract
- Kalof, L., Dan, A., & Dietz, T. (2008). *Essentials of social research*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Kameny, R. R., DeRosier, M. E., Taylor, L. C., McMillen, J. S., Knowles, M. M., & Pifer, K. (2014). Barriers to career success for minority researchers in the behavioral sciences. *Journal of Career Development, 41*(1), 43–61. doi:https://doi.org/10.1177/0894845312472254
- Kang, H. J., Gatling, A., & Kim, J. (2015). The impact of supervisory support on organizational commitment, career satisfaction, and turnover intention for hospitality frontline employees. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism, 14*(1), 68–89.
- Kanye, B., & Crous, F. (2007). Graduate interns' experiences: A career success orientations approach. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 33*(3), 84–93.
- Keeton, K., Fenner, D. E., Johnson, T. R., & Hayward, R. A. (2007). Predictors of physician career satisfaction, work–life balance, and burnout. *Obstetrics & Gynecology, 109*(4), 949–955.
- Keith, T. Z. (2014). *Multiple regression and beyond: An introduction to multiple regression and structural equation modeling*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Kendall, P. C., & Hollon, S. D. (Eds.). (2013). *Cognitive-behavioral interventions: Theory, research, and procedures* (Vol. 21). USA: Academic Press.
- Kenny, D. A., Korchmaros, J. D., & Bolger, N. (2003). Lower level mediation in multilevel models. *Psychological Methods, 8*, 115–128. doi:10.1037/1082-989X.8.2.115
- Kerr, A., Wittenberg, M., & Arrow, J. (2014). Job creation and destruction in South Africa. *The South African Journal of Economics, 82*(1), 1–18. doi:10.1111/saje.12031
- Khalid, A., & Khalid, S. (2015). Relationship between organizational commitments, employee engagement and career satisfaction a case of university of Gujrat, Pakistan. *Journal of South Asian Studies, 3*(3), 323–330.
- Khan, J. A. (2011). *Research methodology*. Darya Ganj, New Delhi: APH Publishing.

- Kiaye, E. R., & Singh, M. A. (2013). The glass ceiling: A perspective of women working in Durban. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 28(1), 28–42. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1108/17542411311301556>
- Kidd, J. M. (2008). Exploring the components of career wellbeing and the emotions associated with significant career experiences. *Journal of Career Development*, 35, 166–186. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/0894845308325647>
- Kim, S., Kim, H., & Lee, J. (2015). Employee self-concepts, voluntary learning behavior, and perceived employability. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 30(3), 264–279. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1108/JMP-01-2012-0010>
- King, D.W., King, L.A., Foy, D.W., Keane, T.M., & Fairbank, J.A. (1999). Post-traumatic stress disorder in a national sample of female and male Vietnam veterans. Risk factors, war-zone stressors, and resilience-recovery variables. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 108, 164–170.
- Kingdom, G., & Knight, J. (2006). Subjective well-being poverty vs. income poverty and capabilities poverty? *The Journal of Development Studies*, 42(7), 1199–1224.
- Kinman, G., & Jones, F. (2008). A life beyond work? Job demands, work/life balance, and wellbeing in UK academics. *Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment*, 17(1-2), 41–60. doi:[10.1080/10911350802165478](https://doi.org/10.1080/10911350802165478).
- Kirchmeyer, C. (1998). Determinants of managerial career success: Evidence and explanation of male/female differences. *Journal of Management*, 24(6), 673–692. doi:[https://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-2063\(99\)80079-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-2063(99)80079-8)
- Kirchmeyer, C. (2005). The different effects of family on objective career success across gender: A test of alternative explanations. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 68, 323–346. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2005.05.002>
- Kline, P. (2013). *Handbook of psychological testing*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Kline, R. B. (2011). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Kock, N. (2015). Common method bias in PLS-SEM: A full collinearity assessment approach. *International Journal of e-Collaboration (IJeC)*, 11(4), 1-10.

- Koekemoer, E. (2014). An explorative study on factors influencing the career success of management employees. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology, 40*(2), 1–10. doi:<http://0-dx.doi.org.oasis.unisa.ac.za/10.4102/sajip.v40i2.1204>
- Koenig, A. M., Eagly, A. H., Mitchell, A. A., & Ristikari, T. (2011). Are leader stereotypes masculine? A meta-analysis of three research paradigms. *Psychological Bulletin, 137*, 616–642. doi:10.1037/a0023557
- Koh, C. W., Shen, W., & Lee, T. (2016). Black–white mean differences in job satisfaction: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 94*, 131–143. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2016.02.009>
- Kokou, G., & Lerodiakonou, C. (2007). Job satisfaction and employee commitment in the academic profession: A gender approach. *International Journal of Knowledge, Culture and Change Management, 6*(8), 101–123.
- Kong, H., & Yan, Q. (2014). The relationship between learning satisfaction and career competencies. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 41*, 133–139. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2014.05.013>
- Konstan, D. (2006). *The emotions of the ancient Greeks: Studies in Aristotle and classical literature (Vol. 5)*. Toronto, Canada: University of Toronto Press.
- Kooij, D. T., Guest, D. E., Clinton, M., Knight, T., Jansen, P. G., & Dikkers, J. S. (2013). How the impact of HR practices on employee well-being and performance changes with age. *Human Resource Management Journal, 23*(1), 18–35. doi: 10.1111/1748-8583.12000
- Krosnick, J. A. (1990). Government policy and citizen passion: A study of issue publics in contemporary America. *Political Behavior, 12*(1), 59–92.
- Kruger, L. P. (2011). The impact of black economic empowerment (BEE) on South African businesses: Focusing on ten dimensions of business performance. *Southern African Business Review, 15*(3), 207–233.
- Kuratko, D. F., Hornsby, J. S., & Covin, J. G. (2014). Diagnosing a firm's internal environment for corporate entrepreneurship. *Business Horizons, 57*(1), 37–47. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.bushor.2013.08.009>

- Lackritz, J. R. (2004). Exploring burnout among university faculty: Incidence, performance, and demographic issues. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 20, 713–729. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2004.07.002
- Lafrenière, M. A. K., Jowett, S., Vallerand, R. J., & Carbonneau, N. (2011). Passion for coaching and the quality of the coach–athlete relationship: The mediating role of coaching behaviors. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 12(2), 144–152. doi:10.1016/j.psychsport.2010.08.002
- Lafrenière, M. A. K., Vallerand, R. J., Carbonneau, N., Jowett, S., Paquet, Y., & Bureau, J. S., (2012). *A short form of the Passion Scale: Evaluation of factorial validity and invariance across demographic variables and activity categories* (Manuscript submitted for publication).
- Lafrenière, M. A. K., Vallerand, R. J., Donahue, E. G., & Lavigne, G. L. (2009). On the costs and benefits of gaming: The role of passion. *Cyber Psychology and Behavior*, 12(3), 285–290. doi:10.1089=cpb.2008.0234
- Lam, C. F., & Pertulla, K. (2008). *Work is my passion: Toward a conceptualization of passion for one's work*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Academy of Management, Anaheim.
- Lang, J., Kern, M., & Zapf, D. (2016). Retaining High Achievers in Times of Demographic Change. The Effects of Proactivity, Career Satisfaction and Job Embeddedness on Voluntary Turnover. *Psychology*, 7(13), 1545–1561.
- Laughlin, R. (1995). Empirical research in accounting: Alternative approaches and a case for middle-range thinking. *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal*, 8(1), 63–87. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09513550510146707
- Lavigne, G. L., Forest, J., & Crevier-Braud, L. (2012). Passion at work and burnout: A two-study test of the mediating role of flow experiences. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 21(4), 518–546. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/1359432X.2011.578390
- Layard, R., Clark, A. E., Cornaglia, F., Powdthavee, N., & Vernoit, J. (2014). What predicts a successful life? A life-course model of well-being. *The Economic Journal*, 124(580), 720–738. doi:10.1111/eoj.12170

- Leana, C. R., & Rousseau, D. M. (2000). *Relational wealth: The advantages of stability in a changing economy*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lent, R. W. (2013). Career-life preparedness: Revisiting career planning and adjustment in the new workplace. *Career Development Quarterly*, 61, 2–14. doi:10.1002/j.2161-0045.2013.00031.x
- Leung, A. S. M., Cheung, Y. H., & Liu, X. (2011). The relations between life domain satisfaction and subjective well-being. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 26, 155–169. doi:10.1108/02683941111102182
- Leutner, F., Ahmetoglu, G., Akhtar, R., & Chamorro-Premuzic, T. (2014). The relationship between the entrepreneurial personality and the Big Five personality traits. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 63, 58–63. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2014.01.042
- Levinson, D. J. (1978). *The seasons of a man's life*. New York: Knopf.
- Levy, P. S., & Lemeshow, S. (2013). *Sampling of populations: methods and applications*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Li, B., Ma, H., Guo, Y., Xu, F., Yu, F., & Zhou, Z. (2014). Positive psychological capital: A new approach to social support and subjective well-being. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, 42(1), 135–144. doi:https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.2014.42.1.135
- Liñán, F., & Fayolle, A. (2015). A systematic literature review on entrepreneurial intentions: citation, thematic analyses, and research agenda. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 11(4), 907–933.
- Liu, D., Chen, X. P., & Yao, X. (2011). From autonomy to creativity: a multilevel investigation of the mediating role of harmonious passion. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96(2), 294–311. doi:10.1037/a0021294
- Lloyd, N., & Leibbrandt, M. (2014). New evidence on subjective well-being and the definition of unemployment in South Africa. *Development Southern Africa*, 31(1), 85–105.
- Locke, E. A. (1969). What is job satisfaction? *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 4(4), 309–336. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073(69)90013-0
- Locke, E. A. (1976). The nature and causes of job satisfaction. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 1297–1349). Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.

- Lounsbury, J. W., Park, S. H., Sundstrom, E., Williamson, J. M., & Pemberton, A. E. (2004). Personality, career satisfaction, and life satisfaction: Test of a directional model. *Journal of Career Assessment, 12*(4), 395–406. doi:10.1177/1069072704266658
- Lu, V. N., Capezio, A., Restubog, S. L. D., Garcia, P. R. J. M., & Wang, L. (2016). In pursuit of service excellence: Investigating the role of psychological contracts and organizational identification of frontline hotel employees. *Tourism Management, 56*, 8–19. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2016.03.020
- Lucas, K., Liu, M., & Buzzanell, P. M. (2006). No limits careers: A critical examination of career discourse in the US and China. In M. Orbe, B. J. Allen, & L. A. Flores (Eds), *International and intercultural communication annual, Vol. 28* (pp. 217–242). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Lucas, R. E., Clark, A. E., Georgellis, Y., & Diener, E. (2003). Reexamining adaptation and the set point model of happiness: Reactions to changes in marital status. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 84*(3), 527–539. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.84.3.527
- Lyness, K. S., & Erkovan, H. E. (2016). The changing dynamics of careers and the work–family interface. In *The Oxford Handbook of Work and Family* (p. 376–400). Oxford University Press.
- Lyons, S. T., Schweitzer, L., & Ng, E. S. (2015). How have careers changed? An investigation of changing career patterns across four generations. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 30*(1), 8–21. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/13620431211255824.
- Lyubomirsky, S., & Layous, K. (2013). How do simple positive activities increase well-being? *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 22*(1), 57–62. doi:https://doi.org/10.1177/0963721412469809
- Lyubomirsky, S., Sheldon, K. M., & Schkade, D. (2005). Pursuing happiness: The architecture of sustainable change. *Review of General Psychology, 9*, 111–131. doi:10.1037/1089-2680.9.2.111
- MacKinnon, D. P. (2008). *Introduction to statistical mediation analysis*. New York: Erlbaum.
- Madison, G. (2014). The palpable in existential counselling psychology. *Counselling Psychology Review, 29*(2), 25–33.

- Mageau, G. A., Carpentier, J., & Vallerand, R. J. (2011). The role of self-esteem contingencies in the distinction between obsessive and harmonious passion. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 41*(6), 720–729. doi:10.1002/ejsp.798
- Mageau, G. A., & Vallerand, R. J. (2007). The moderating effect of passion in the relation between activity engagement and positive affect. *Motivation and Emotion, 31*, 312–321. doi:10.1007/s11031-007-9071-z
- Mageau, G. A., Vallerand, R. J., Charest, J., Salvy, S. J., Lacaille, N., Bouffard, T., & Koestner, R. (2009). On the development of harmonious and obsessive passion: The role of autonomy support, activity specialization, and identification with the activity. *Journal of Personality, 77*(3), 601–646. doi:10.1111/j.1467-6494.2009.00559.x
- Mageau, G. A., Vallerand, R. J., Rousseau, F. L., Ratelle, C. F., & Provencher, P. J. (2005). Passion and gambling: Investigating the divergent affective and cognitive consequences of gambling. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 35*(1), 100–118.
- Maggiori, C., Johnston, C. S., Krings, F., Massoudi, K., & Rossier, J. (2013). The role of career adaptability and work conditions on general and professional wellbeing. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 83*, 437–449. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2013.07.001
- Mainiero, L. A., & Sullivan, S. E. (2005). Kaleidoscope careers: An alternative explanation for the opt-out revolution. *Academy of Management Executive, 19*(1), 106–123. doi:10.5465/AME.2005.15841962
- Maintier, C., & Joulain, M., & Le Floc'h, N. (2011). To what extent do attitudes to work and the subjective components of non-work contribute to the life satisfaction of men and women in dual-earner couples? *Women's Studies International Forum, 34*, 242–250. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wsif.2011.02.003
- Makrides, L., Heath, S., Farquharson, J., & Veinot, P. L. (2007). Perceptions of workplace health: Building community partnerships. *Clinical Governance: An International Journal 12*(3), 178–187. doi:https://doi.org/10.1108/14777270710775891
- Marcoulides, G. A., & Schumacker, R. E. (Eds.). (2013). *Advanced structural equation modeling: Issues and techniques*. New York and London: Psychology Press.
- Maree, J. G. (2012). Career Adapt-Abilities Scale—South African form: Psychometric properties and construct validity. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 80*(3), 730–733. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2012.01.005

- Maree, J. G. (2013). Latest developments in career counselling in South Africa: Towards a positive approach. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 43(4), 409–421. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/0081246313504691>
- Maree, J. G. (2015). Research on life design in (South) Africa: A qualitative analysis. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 45(3), 332–348.
- Maree, J. G. (2016a). Career construction as a way of resolving career indecision. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 30(3), 170–192. doi:10.20853/30-3-665
- Maree, J. G. (2016b). Revitalising career counselling to foster career adaptability and resilience during change and turbulence: Part 1 – editorial. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 30(3), 1–5. doi:10.20853/30-3-664
- Mariani, B., & Allen, L. R. (2014). Development and psychometric testing of the Mariani Nursing Career Satisfaction Scale. *Journal of Nursing Measurement*, 22(1), 135–144. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1891/1061-3749.22.1.135>
- Marsh, H. W., Vallerand, R. J., Lafrenière, M.-A. K., Parker, P., Morin, A. J. S., & Carbonneau, N. (2013). Passion: Does one scale fit all? Construct validity of two-factor passion scale and psychometric invariance over different activities and languages. *Psychological Assessment*, 25, 796–809. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0032573>
- Martin, A., & Roodt, G. (2008). Perceptions of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions in a post-merger South African tertiary institution. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 34(1), 23–31.
- Martin, P., & Barnard, A. (2013). The experience of women in male-dominated occupations: A constructivist grounded theory inquiry. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 39(2), 01–12. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v39i2.1099>
- Martínez-Martí, M. L., & Ruch, W. (2017). The relationship between orientations to happiness and job satisfaction one year later in a representative sample of employees in Switzerland. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 18(1), 1–15. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-016-9714-4>
- Mauno, S., Ruokolainen, M., & Kinnunen, U. (2013). Does aging make employees more resilient to job stress? Age as a moderator in the job stressor–well-being relationship in three Finnish occupational samples. *Aging & Mental Health*, 17(4), 411–422. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13607863.2012.747077>

- McCullough, G., Huebner, E. S., & Laughlin, J. E. (2000). Life events, self-concept, and adolescents' positive subjective well-being. *Psychology in the Schools, 37*(3), 281–290. doi:10.1002/(SICI)1520-6807(200005)37:3<281::AID-PITS8>3.0.CO;2-2
- McMahan, E. A., & Estes, D. (2011). Hedonic versus eudaimonic conceptions of well-being: Evidence of differential associations with self-reported well-being. *Social Indicators, 103*(1), 93–108. doi:10.1007/s11205-010-9698-0
- McMahon, M., Watson, M., & Bimrose, J. (2012). Career adaptability: A qualitative understanding from the stories of older women. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 80*, 762–768. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2012.01.016
- Meister, J. C., & Willyerd, K. (2010). *The 2020 workplace: How innovative companies attract, develop, and keep tomorrow's employees today*. New York: HarperCollins.
- Merino-Tejedor, E., Hontangas, P. M., & Boada-Grau, J. (2016). Career adaptability and its relation to self-regulation, career construction, and academic engagement among Spanish university students. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 93*, 92–102. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2016.01.005
- Mertler, C. A., & Reinhart, R. V. (2016). *Advanced and multivariate statistical methods: Practical application and interpretation*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Meyer, W., Moore, C., & Viljoen, H. (2003). *Personology: From individual to ecosystem* (3rd ed.). Sandton: Heinemann.
- Michalos, A. C. (2008). Education, happiness and wellbeing. *Social Indicators Research, 87*(3), 347–366. doi:10.1007/s11205-007-9144-0
- Millán, J. M., Hessels, J., Thurik, R., & Aguado, R. (2013). Determinants of job satisfaction: a European comparison of self-employed and paid employees. *Small Business Economics, 40*(3), 651–670.
- Mirvis, P. H., & Hall, D. T. (1994). Psychological success and the boundaryless career. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 15*, 365–380. doi:10.1002/job.4030150406
- Moe, A. (2016). Harmonious passion and its relationship with teacher well-being. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 59*, 431-437.
- Moen, P., & Roehling, P. (2005). *The career mystique: Cracks in the American dream*. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.

- Mokaya, S. O., Musau, J. L., Wagoki, J., & Karanja, K. (2013). Effects of organizational work conditions on employee job satisfaction in the hotel industry in Kenya. *International Journal of Arts and Commerce*, 2(2), 79–90.
- Mokgele, K. R., & Rothmann, S. (2014). A structural model of student well-being. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 44(4), 514–527. doi:10.1177/0081246314541589
- Mokgolo, M. M., Mokgolo, P., & Modiba, M. (2012). Transformational leadership in the South African public service after the April 2009 national elections. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 10(1), 1–9. doi:http://hdl.handle.net/10520/EJC119722
- Montgomery, D. C., Peck, E. A., & Vining, G. G. (2015). *Introduction to linear regression analysis*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- More, J.J. (1978) The Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm: Implementation and theory. In: Watson, G.A., Ed., *Numerical Analysis*, Springer, Berlin, 105-116.
- Morgan, S., Reichert, T., & Harrison, T. R. (2016). *From numbers to words: Reporting statistical results for the social sciences*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Mosadeghrad, A. M. (2014). Occupational stress and its consequences: Implications for health policy and management. *Leadership in Health Services Journal*, 27(3), 224–239. doi:https://doi.org/10.1108/LHS-07-2013-0032
- Motileng, B. B., Wagner, C., & Cassimjee, N. (2006). Black middle managers' experience of affirmative action in a media company. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 32(1), 11-16. doi:http://hdl.handle.net/10520/EJC89082
- Mouton, J., & Marais, H. C. (1990). *Basic concepts in the methodology of the social sciences*. Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council.
- Mouton, J., & Marais, H. C. (1996). *Basic concepts in the methodology of the social sciences* (4th ed.). Pretoria: HSRC.
- Mroczek, D. K., & Spiro, A. (2005). Change in life satisfaction during adulthood: Findings from the Veterans Affairs Normative Aging Study. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 88, 189–202. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.88.1.189
- Mueller, B. A., Wolfe, M. T., & Syed, I. (2017). Passion and grit: An exploration of the pathways leading to venture success. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 32(3), 260-279.

- Mullen, R., Davis, J. A., & Polatajiko, H. J. (2012). Passion in the performing arts: Clarifying active occupational participation. *Work*, 41, 15–25. doi:10.3233/WOR-2012-1236
- Mullins, L. J. (2005). *Management and organisational behaviour* (7th ed.). Harlow, UK: Pearson Education.
- Nachbagauer, A. G., & Riedl, G. (2002). Effects of concepts of career plateaus on performance, work satisfaction and commitment. *International Journal of Manpower*, 23, 716–733. doi:https://doi.org/10.1108/01437720210453920
- Narula, R. (2014). *Globalization and technology: Interdependence, innovation systems and industrial policy*. Sussex: John Wiley & Sons.
- Nel, P. S., Du Plessis, A. J., & Marx, A. E. (2014). The future context of work in the business environment in South Africa: Some empirical evidence. *South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences*, 8(2), 187–200. doi: http://hdl.handle.net/10520/EJC31483
- Nelson, S. K., Fuller, J. A., Choi, I., & Lyubomirsky, S. (2014). Beyond self-protection: Self-affirmation benefits hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 40(8), 998–1011. doi:https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167214533389
- Neuman, W. L. (2011). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches* (7th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson/Allyn and Bacon.
- Ng, T. W. H., Eby, L. T., Sorensen, K. L., & Feldman, D. C. (2005). Predictors of objective and subjective career success: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, 58, 367–408. doi:10.1111/j.1744-6570.2005.00515.x
- Ng, T. W. H., & Feldman, D. C. (2010). Human capital and objective indicators of career success: The mediating effects of cognitive ability and conscientiousness. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 83, 207–235. doi:10.1348/096317909X414584
- Ng, T. W. H., & Feldman, D. C. (2014). Subjective career success: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 85, 169–179. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2014.06.001
- Nica, E., Manole, C., & Potcovaru, A. M. (2016). Competition in the worldwide workplace: Economic globalization and labor rights. *Journal of Self-Governance and Management Economics*, 4(3), 73–79.

- Nkomo, S. M., & Stewart, M., (2006). Diverse identities. In S. A. Clegg, W. R. Nord, & S. Hardy (Eds.), *Handbook of organization studies* (2nd ed.) New York: Sage Publications.
- Nordström, C., Sirén, C. A., Thorgren, S., & Wincent, J. (2016). Passion in hybrid entrepreneurship: The impact of entrepreneurial teams and tenure. *Baltic Journal of Management*, 11(2), 167–186. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1108/BJM-01-2015-0007>
- Norris, F. H., Perilla, J. L., Riad, J. K., Kaniasty, K., & Lavizzo, E. A. (1999). Stability and change in stress, resources, and psychological distress following natural disaster: Findings from Hurricane Andrew. *Anxiety, Stress & Coping: An International Journal*, 12(4), 363–396. doi:10.1080/10615809908249317
- Nye, A. (2015). Saint Augustine and concupiscence of the flesh. In A. Nya (Ed.), *Socrates and Diotima* (pp. 116–130). USA: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Obers, N. (2014). Career success for women academics in higher education: Choices and challenges: Part 2: HELTASA 2012 Special Section. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 28(3), 1107–1122. doi:<http://hdl.handle.net/10520/EJC159132>
- Oldham, G. R., & Da Silva, N. (2015). The impact of digital technology on the generation and implementation of creative ideas in the workplace. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 42, 5–11. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2013.10.041>
- Olson, D. A., & Shultz, K. S. (2013). Employability and career success: The need for comprehensive definitions of career success. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 6(1), 17–20. doi:10.1111/iops.12002
- Omoredede, A., Thorgren, S., & Wincent, J. (2013). Obsessive passion, competence, and performance in a project management context. *International Journal of Project Management*, 31(6), 877–888. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2012.09.002>
- Oswald, A. J., Proto, E., & Sgroi, D. (2015). Happiness and productivity. *Journal of Labor Economics*, 33(4), 789–822. doi:<http://hdl.handle.net/10419/35451>
- Pachulicz, S., Schmitt, N., & Kuljanin, G. (2008). A model of career success: A longitudinal study of emergency physicians. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 73(2), 242–253. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2008.05.003>
- Pallant, J. (2013). *SPSS Survival manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using IBM SPSS* (5th ed.). Maidenhead: McGraw Hill.

- Papadimitriou, D., Winand, M., & Anagnostopoulos, C. (2017). Job and career satisfaction in an austerity environment: the role of job security and passion towards work. *International Journal of Sport Management and Marketing*, 17(1-2), 7-31.
- Park, Y. (2010). The predictors of subjective career success: An empirical study of employee development in a Korean financial company. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 14, 1–15. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2419.2009.00337.x
- Parker, S.K. & Liao, J. (2016). Wise proactivity: How to be proactive and wise in building your career. *Organizational Dynamics*, 45, 217–227. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2016.07.007>
- Patterson, M., Warr, P., & West, M. (2004). Organizational climate and company productivity: The role of employee affect and employee level. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 77, 193–216. doi:10.1348/096317904774202144
- Pavot, W., & Diener, E. (1993). The affective and cognitive context of self reported measures of subjective wellbeing. *Social Indicators Research*, 28, 1–20. doi:10.1007/BF01086714
- Pavot, W., & Diener, E. (2013). Happiness experienced: The science of subjective well-being. In S.A. David, I. Boniwell, A. Conley Ayers (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of happiness*, Oxford University Press, New York, NY, pp. 134-151
- Peiperl, M. A., & Baruch, Y. (1997). Back to square zero: The post-corporate career. *Organizational Dynamics*, 24(4), 7–22.
- Perera, H. N., & McIlveen, P. (2014). The role of optimism and engagement coping in College adaptation: A career construction model. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 84, 395–404. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2014.03.002>
- Persson, S., & Wasieleski, D. (2015). The seasons of the psychological contract: Overcoming the silent transformations of the employer-employee relationship. *Human Resource Management Review*, 25, 368–383. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2015.02.003>
- Pesch, K. M., Larson, L. M., & Surapaneni, S. (2016). Parental autonomy support and career well-being: mediating effects of perceived academic competence and volitional autonomy. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 24(3), 497–512.

- Peterson, R. A., & Kim, Y. (2013). On the relationship between coefficient alpha and composite reliability. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 98*(1), 194–198. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0030767>
- Philippe, F., & Vallerand, R. J. (2007). Prevalence rates of gambling problems in Montreal, Canada: A look at old adults and the role of passion. *Journal of Gambling Studies, 23*, 275–283. doi:10.1007/s10899-006-9038-0
- Philippe, F. L., Vallerand, R. J., Houffort, N., Lavigne, G. L., & Donahue, E. G. (2010). Passion for an activity and quality of interpersonal relationships: The mediating role of emotions. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 98*(6), 917–932.
- Philippe, F., Vallerand, R. J., Richer, L., & Vallières, E. F. Bergeron, J. (2009). Passion for driving and aggressive driving behavior: A look at their relationship. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 39*, 3020-3043. doi:10.1111/j.1559-1816.2009.00559.x
- Plonsky, L. (2015). Statistical power, p values, descriptive statistics, and effect sizes: A "back-to basics" approach to advancing quantitative methods in L2 research. In L. Plonsky (Ed.), *Advancing quantitative methods in second language research* (pp. 23-45). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Pickard, A. J. (2007). *Research methods in information*. London: Facet.
- Pienaar, C., & Bester, C. (2009). Addressing career obstacles within a changing higher education environment: Perspectives of academics. *South African Journal of Psychology, 39*(3), 376–385. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/008124630903900311>
- Pinquart, M., & Sorensen, S. (2000). Influences of socioeconomic status, social network, and competence on subjective well-being in later life: A meta-analysis. *Psychology and Aging, 15*, 187–224. doi:10.1037/0882-7974.15.2.187
- Poole, M. E., Langan-Fox, J., & Omodei, M. (1993). Contrasting subjective and objective criteria as determinants of perceived career success: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 66*(1), 39–54. doi:<http://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.1993.tb00515.x>
- Posel, D., & Casale, D. (2015). Differences in subjective well-being within households: an analysis of married and cohabiting couples in South Africa. *African Review of Economics and Finance, 7*(1), 32–52.

- Potgieter, I. L., Coetzee, M., & Ximba, T. (2017). Exploring career advancement challenges people with disabilities are facing in the South African work context. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management, 15*(1), 1–11. doi:10.4102/sajhrm.v15i0.815
- Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2008). Asymptotic and resampling strategies for assessing and comparing indirect effects in multiple mediator models. *Behavior Research Methods, 40*(3), 879–891.
- Preacher, K.J. & Kelley, K. (2011). Effect size measures for mediation models: Quantitative strategies for communicating indirect effects. *Psychological Methods, 16*(2), 93–115. doi:10.1037/a0022658
- Preckel, D., Von Känel, R., Kudielka, B. M., & Fischer, J. E. (2005). Over commitment to work is associated with vital exhaustion. *International Archives of Occupational and Environmental Health, 78*, 117–122. doi:10.1007/s00420-004-0572-8
- Prion, S., & Haerling, K. A. (2014). Making sense of methods and measurement: Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. *Clinical Simulation in Nursing, 10*(11), 587–588. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecns.2014.07.010
- Przybylski, A. K., Weinstein, N., Ryan, R. M., & Rigby, C. S. (2009). Having to versus wanting to play: Background and consequences of harmonious versus obsessive engagement in video games. *CyberPsychology & Behavior, 12*, 485–492. doi:https://doi.org/10.1089/cpb.2009.0083
- Pulakos, E. D., Arad, S., Donovan, M. A., & Plamondon, K. E. (2000). Adaptability in the workplace: Development of a taxonomy of adaptive performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*(4), 612–624. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.85.4.612
- Punnett, B. J., Duffy, J. A., Fox, S., Gregory, A., Lituchy, T. R., Monserrat, S. I., ... Santos, N. M. B. F. (2006). *Successful professional women of the Americas: From polar winds to tropical breezes*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.
- Purvanova, R. K., & Muros, J. P. (2010) Gender differences in burnout: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 77*, 168–185. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2010.04.006
- Qadeer, F., Ahmed, A., Hameed, I., & Mahmood, S. (2016). Linking passion to organizational citizenship behavior and employee performance: The mediating role of work engagement. *Pakistan Journal of Commerce and Social Sciences, 10*(2), 316–334. doi:http://ssrn.com/abstract=2832180

- Raabe, B., Frese, M., & Beehr, T. (2007). Action related theory and career self-management. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *70*, 297–311. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2006.10.005>
- Rabie, S., & Naidoo, A. V. (2016). The value of the gap year in the facilitation of career adaptability. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, *30*(3), 138–155. doi:10.20853/30-3-631
- Rain, J. S., Lane, I. M., & Steiner, D. D. (1991). A current look at the job satisfaction/life satisfaction relationship: Review and future considerations. *Human Relations*, *44*, 287–307. doi:10.1177/001872679104400305
- Ramakrishna, H.V., & Potosky, D. (2003). Conceptualisation and exploration of composite career anchors: An analysis of information systems personnel. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *14*(2), 199-214. doi:10.1002/hrdq.1060
- Rankhumise, E. M. (2013). Mentoring as an enhancement to career success of protégés. *Journal of Public Administration*, *48*(2), 369–380. doi:<http://hdl.handle.net/10520/EJC140009>
- Rasool, F., & Botha, C. J. (2011). The nature, extent and effect of skills shortages on skills migration in South Africa. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, *9*(1), 1–12. doi:<http://hdl.handle.net/10520/EJC95944>
- Ratelle, C. F., Vallerand, R. J., Mageau, G. A., Rousseau, F. L., & Provencher, P. (2004). When passion leads to problematic outcomes: A look at gambling. *Journal of Gambling Studies*, *20*, 105–119. doi:10.1023/B:JOGS.0000022304.96042.e6
- Rath, T., & Harter, J. (2010). *Wellbeing: The five essential elements*. New York: Gallup Press.
- Rautenbach, C. L. (2015). *Flourishing of employees in a fast moving consumable goods environment* (Doctoral dissertation). North-West University, South Africa.
- Reitman, F., & Schneer, J. A. (2003). The promised path: A longitudinal study of managerial careers. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *18*(1), 60–75. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940310459592>
- Ren, H., Bolino, M. C., Shaffer, M. A., & Kraimer, M. L. (2013). The influence of job demands and resources on repatriate career satisfaction: A relative deprivation perspective. *Journal of World Business*, *48*(1), 149–159. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2012.06.015>

- Republic of South Africa. (1998). Employment Equity Act No. 55 of 1998. *Government Gazette*, 400(19370).
- Ribeiro, M. A. (2015). Contemporary patterns of career construction of a group of urban workers in São Paulo (Brazil). *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 88, 19–27. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2015.02.008>
- Rini, C. K., Dunkel-Schetter, C., Wadhwa, P. D., & Sandman, C. A. (1999). Psychological adaptation and birth outcomes: The role of personal resources, stress, and sociocultural context in pregnancy. *Health Psychology*, 18, 333–345.
- Riordan, S., & Louw-Potgieter, J. (2011). Career success of women academics in South Africa. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 41(2), 157–172. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/008124631104100205>
- Rip, B., Vallerand, R. J., & Lafrenière, M.-A. K. (2012). Passion for a cause, passion for a creed: On ideological passion, identity threat, and radicalization. *Journal of Personality*, 80, 573–602. doi:10.1111/j.1467-6494.2011.00743.x
- Ritchie, J., Lewis, J., Nicholls, C. M., & Ormston, R. (Eds.). (2013). *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers*. London: Sage Publications.
- Riza, S. D., Ganzach, Y., & Liu, Y. (2016). Time and job satisfaction: A longitudinal study of the differential roles of age and tenure. *Journal of Management*, 1–22. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206315624962>
- Robinson, D. (2007). *Employee engagement*. Retrieved from <http://www.employment-studies.co.uk>
- Rojewski, J. W., & Hill, R. B. (2014). Positioning research and practice in career and technical education: A framework for college and career preparation in the 21st century. *Career and Technical Education Research*, 39(2), 137–150. doi:<https://doi.org/10.5328/cter39.2.137>
- Roothman, B., Kirsten, D. K., & Wissing, M. P. (2003). Gender differences in aspects of psychological well-being. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 33(4), 212–218. doi:<http://hdl.handle.net/10520/EJC98250>
- Rosenbaum, J.E. (1984). *Career mobility in a corporate hierarchy*. Orlando, FL: Academic Press.

- Rosso, B. D., Dekas, K. H., & Wrzesniewski, A. (2010). On the meaning of work: A theoretical integration and review. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 30, 91–127. doi:10.1016/j.riob.2011.10.001
- Rothmann, S. I. (2014). Flourishing in work and careers. In M. Coetzee (Ed), *Psychosocial career meta-capacities* (pp. 203–220). Heidelberg: Springer International.
- Rousseau, F. L., & Vallerand, R. J. (2008). An examination of the relationship between passion and subjective well-being in older adults. *The International Journal of Aging and Human Development*, 66, 195–211. doi:https://doi.org/10.2190/AG.66.3.b
- Rousseau, F. L., Vallerand, R. J., Ratelle, C. F., Mageau, G. A., & Provencher, P. J. (2002). Passion and gambling: On the validation of the Gambling Passion Scale (GPS). *Journal of Gambling Studies*, 18, 45–66. doi:10.1023/A:1014532229487
- Rowe, T., & Crafford, A. (2003). A study of barriers to career advancement for professional women in investment banking. *South African Journal of Human Resource Management*, 1(2), 21–27. doi:http://hdl.handle.net/10520/EJC95746
- Rubin, A., & Babbie, E. (2014). *Research methods for social work* (8th ed.). Belmont, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- Rudolph, C. W., Lavigne, K. N., & Zacher, H. (2017). Career adaptability: A meta-analysis of relationships with measures of adaptivity, adapting responses, and adaptation results. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 98, 17–34. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2016.09.002
- Russell, H. (2015). The passion of faith and the work of love: Barrett, Augustine, and Kierkegaard. *Toronto Journal of Theology*, 31(1), 66–74. doi:https://doi.org/10.3138/tjt.3102
- Ryan R., & Deci E. (2003). On assimilating identities of the self: A self-determination theory perspective on internalization and integrity within cultures. In M. Leary & J. Tangney (Eds.), *Handbook of self and identity* (pp. 253–272). New York, NY: Guilford.
- Ryan, R. M., Huta, V., & Deci, E. L. (2008). Living well: A self-determination theory perspective on eudaimonia. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 9, 139–170. doi:10.1007/s10902-006-9023-4
- Ryff, C. D. (1989). Happiness is everything, or is it? Explorations on the meaning of psychological wellbeing. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57, 1069–1081. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.57.6.1069

- Ryff, C. D. (2013). Psychological well-being revisited: Advances in the science and practice of eudaimonia. *Psychotherapy and Psychosomatics*, 83(1), 10–28. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1159/000353263>
- Ryff, C. D., & Singer, B. (1996). Psychological wellbeing: Meaning, measurement, and implications for psychotherapy research. *Psychotherapy and Psychosomatics*, 65, 14–23. doi:10.1159/000289026
- Ryff, C. D. & Singer, B. H. (2008). Know thyself and become what you are: A eudaimonic approach to psychological well-being. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 9(1), 13–39. doi:10.1007/978-94-007-5702-8\_6
- Santos, F. J., Roomi, M. A., & Liñán, F. (2016). About gender differences and the social environment in the development of entrepreneurial intentions. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 54(1), 49–66. doi:10.1111/jsbm.12129
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P. & Thornhill, A. (2009). *Research methods for business students*. London: Pearson Education.
- Savickas, M. (1997). Career adaptability: An integrative construct for life-span, life-space theory. *Career Development Quarterly*, 45(3), 247–259. doi:10.1002/j.2161-0045.1997.tb00469.x
- Savickas, M. (2001). A developmental perspective on vocational behaviour: Career patterns, salience and themes. *International Journal for Educational and Vocational Guidance*, 1, 49–57. doi:10.1023/A:1016916713523
- Savickas, M. (2002). Career construction: A development theory of vocational behaviour. In D. Brown, & Associates (Eds.), *Career choice and development* (4th ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Savickas, M. L. (2005). The theory and practice of career construction. In S.D. Brown and Lent, R.W. (eds.), *Career development and counseling: Putting theory and research to work* (pp. 42–70). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley and Sons.
- Savickas, M. L. (2011). New questions for vocational psychology: Premises, paradigms, and practices. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 19(3), 251–258. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/1069072710395532>

- Savickas, M. L. (2013). Career construction theory and practice. In S. D. Brown, & R. W. Lent (Eds.), *Career development and counseling: Putting theory and research to work* (pp. 42–70) (2nd ed.). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- Savickas, M. L., & Porfeli, E. J. (2012). Career adapt-abilities scale: Construction, reliability, and measurement equivalence across 13 countries. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *80*(3), 661–673. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2012.01.011>
- Schein, E.H. (1975). How "career anchors" hold executives to their career paths. *Personnel*, *52*(3), 11–24.
- Schein, E. H. (1978). *Career dynamics: Matching individual and organizational needs*. Reading: Addison-Wesley.
- Schein, E. H. (1990). *Career anchors: Discovering your real values*. San Diego: Pfeiffer.
- Schein, E. H. (1992). Career anchors and job/role planning: The links between career planning and career development. In D. H. Montross & C. J. Shinkman (Eds.), *Career development: Theory and practice*. Springfield, OH: Thomas.
- Schein, E. H. (1996). Career anchors revisited. Implications for career development in the 21st century. *Academy of Management Executive*, *10*(4), 80–88. doi:10.5465/AME.1996.3145321
- Schein, E. H. (2006). *Career anchors* (3rd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer.
- Schellenberg, B. J. I., & Bailis, D. S. (2015). Can passion be polyamorous? The impact of having multiple passions on subjective well-being and momentary emotions. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, *16*, 1365-1381. doi:10.1007/s10902-014-9564-x
- Schermelleh-Engel, K., Moosbrugger, H., & Müller, H. (2003). Evaluating the fit of structural equation models: Tests of significance and descriptive goodness-of-fit measures. *Methods of psychological research online*, *8*(2), 23-74.
- Schlaegel, C., He, X., & Engle, R. L. (2013). The direct and indirect influences of national culture on entrepreneurial intentions: A fourteen nation study. *International Journal of Management*, *30*(2), 597–609.
- Schneider, K. J., Bugental, J. F. T., & Pierson, J. F. (2001). *The handbook of humanistic psychology*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

- Schneider, K. J., Pierson, J. F., & Bugental, J. F. (Eds.). (2014). *The handbook of humanistic psychology: Theory, research, and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Schotanus-Dijkstra, M., Pieterse, M. E., Drossaert, C. H. C., Westerhof, G. J., Graaf, R., Have, M. T., ... & Bohlmeijer, E. T. (2016). What factors are associated with flourishing? Results from a large representative national sample. *Journal of happiness studies*, *17*(4), 1351–1370. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-015-9647-3>
- Schreuder, A. M. G., & Coetzee, M. (2007). *Careers: An organisational perspective* (3rd ed.). Landsdowne: Juta Academy.
- Schreuder, A. M. G., & Coetzee, M. (2016). *Careers: An organisational perspective* (5th ed.). Cape Town: Juta.
- Schutte, N., & Barkhuizen, N. (2016). The development of a strategic leadership competency measure for public sector leaders: A pilot study. *Organisational Studies and Innovation Review*, *2*(3), 21–29.
- Schwab, K. (Ed.). 2016. *The Global Competiveness Report 2013–2014*. Geneva, Switzerland: World Economic Forum.
- Scott, M., & Zeidenberg, M. (2016). Order or chaos? Understanding career mobility using categorical clustering and information theory. *Longitudinal and Life Course Studies*, *7*(4), 320–346. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.14301/llcs.v7i4.358>
- Seekings, J. (2014). The social and political implications of demographic change in post-apartheid South Africa. *The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, *652*(1), 70–86. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/0002716213508265>
- Séguin-Lévesque, C., Laliberté, M.-L. N., Pelletier, L. G., Blanchard, C., & Vallerand, R. J. (2003). Harmonious and obsessive passion for the Internet: Their associations with the couple's relationship. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *33*, 197–221. doi:10.1111/j.1559-1816.2003.tb02079.x
- Seibert, S. E., Crant, J. M., & Kraimer, M. L. (1999). Proactive personality and career success. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *84*(3), 416–27.
- Seibert, S. E., & Kraimer, M. L. (2001). The Five-Factor Model of Personality and Career Success. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *58*(1), 1–21. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.2000.1757>

- Seibert, S. E., Kraimer, M. L., & Crant, J. M. (2001). What do proactive people do? A longitudinal model linking proactive personality and career success. *Personnel Psychology*, *54*(2), 845–874. doi:10.1111/j.1744-6570.2001.tb00234.x
- Seibert, S. E., Kraimer, M. L., Holtom, B. C., & Pierotti, A. J. (2013). Even the best laid plans sometimes go askew: Career self-management processes, career shocks, and the decision to pursue graduate education. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *98*, 169–182. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0030882
- Seligman, M. E. P. (2011). *Flourish: A visionary new understanding of happiness and wellbeing*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Seligman, M. E. P., & Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2014). *Positive psychology: An introduction* (pp. 279–298). Netherlands: Springer.
- Sewdass, N., & Du Toit, A. (2014). Current state of competitive intelligence in South Africa. *International Journal of Information Management*, *34*(2), 185–190. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijinfomgt.2013.10.006
- Shanafelt, T. D., Raymond, M., Kosty, M., Satele, D., Horn, L., Phippen, J., & Sloan, J. (2014). Satisfaction with work/life balance and the career and retirement plans of US oncologists. *Journal of Clinical Oncology*, *32*(11), 1127–1135. doi:10.1200/JCO.2013.53.4560
- Sharf, R. S. (2010). *Applying career development theory to counselling* (5th ed.). Belmont, CA: Cengage Learning.
- Shaw, S., & Leberman, S. (2015). Using the kaleidoscope career model to analyze female CEOs' experiences in sport organizations. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, *30*(6), 500–515. doi:https://doi.org/10.1108/GM-12-2014-0108
- Sheldon, K. M. (2002). The self-concordance model of healthy goal-striving: When personal goals correctly present the person. In E. L. Deci & R. M. Ryan (Eds.), *Handbook of self-determination research* (pp. 65–86). Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press.
- Shi, J. (2012). Influence of passion on innovative behaviour: An empirical examination in the People's Republic of China. *African Journal of Business Management*, *6*(30), 8889–8896. doi:10.5897/AJBM11.2250
- Shields, T., & Cassada, K. (2016). Examination of access and equity by gender, race, and ethnicity in a non-traditional leadership development programme in the United States.

- Shinnar, R. S., Hsu, D. K., & Powell, B. C. (2014). Self-efficacy, entrepreneurial intentions, and gender: Assessing the impact of entrepreneurship education longitudinally. *The International Journal of Management Education*, 12(3), 561–570. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijme.2014.09.005>
- Shuck, B., & Reio T. G. (2014). Employee engagement and well-being: A moderation model and implications for practice. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 21(1), 43–58. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051813494240>
- Siedlecki, K. L., Salthouse, T. A., Oishi, S., & Jeswani, S. (2014). The relationship between social support and subjective well-being across age. *Social Indicators Research*, 117(2), 561–576. doi:10.1007/s11205-013-0361-4
- Sirkin, R. M. (2005). *Two-sample t tests. Statistics for the social sciences* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc. pp. 271–316.
- Siu, O. L., Cheung, F., & Lui, S. (2015). Linking positive emotions to work well-being and turnover intention among Hong Kong police officers: The role of psychological capital. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 16(2), 367–380. doi:10.1007/s10902-014-9513-8
- Smith, D. B., & Shields, J. (2013). Factors related to social service workers' job satisfaction: Revisiting Herzberg's motivation to work. *Administration in Social Work*, 37(2), 189–198.
- Sortheix, F. M., Dietrich, J., Chow, A., & Salmela-Aro, K. (2013). The role of career values for work engagement during the transition to working life. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 83(3), 466–475. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2013.07.003>
- Spector, P. E. (1997). *Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, causes and consequences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Spehar, I., Forest, J., & Stenseng, F. (2016). Passion for Work, Job Satisfaction, and the Mediating Role of Belongingness. *Scandinavian Journal of Organizational Psychology*, 8(1), 17–27.
- Spurk, D. & Abele, A. E. (2011). Who earns more and why? A multiple mediation model from personality to salary. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 26, 87–103. doi:10.1007/s10869-010-9184-3

- Spurk, D., Abele, A. E., & Volmer, J. (2015). The career satisfaction scale in context: A test for measurement invariance across four occupational groups. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 23(2), 191–209. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/1069072714535019>
- Spurk, D., Kauffeld, S., Barthauer, L., & Heinemann, N. S. (2015). Fostering networking behavior, career planning and optimism, and subjective career success: An intervention study. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 87, 134–144. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2014.12.007>
- Steiger, J. H., Shapiro, A., & Browne, M. W. (1985). On the multivariate asymptotic distribution of sequential chi-square statistics. *Psychometrika*, 50(3), 253–263.
- Steptoe, A., Deaton, A., & Stone, A. A. (2015). Subjective wellbeing, health, and ageing. *The Lancet*, 385(9968), 640-648. doi:[10.1016/S0140-6736\(13\)61489-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(13)61489-0)
- Sternberg, R. J. (2003). Implications of the theory of successful intelligence for career choice and development. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 11(2), 136–152. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/1069072703011002002>
- Stoermer, S., Hitotsuyanagi-Hansel, A., & Froese, F. J. (2017). Racial harassment and job satisfaction in South Africa: the moderating effects of career orientations and managerial rank. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 1–20. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2016.1278254>
- Strauss, K., Griffin, M. A., Parker, S. K., & Mason, C. M. (2015). Building and sustaining proactive behaviors: The role of adaptivity and job satisfaction. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 30, 63–72. doi:[10.1007/s10869-013-9334-5](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-013-9334-5)
- Strauss, K., Parker, S. K., & O’Shea, D. (2017). When does proactivity have a cost? Motivation at work moderates the effects of proactive work behavior on employee strain. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 100, 15–26. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2017.02.001>
- Stumpf, S. A. (2014). A longitudinal study of career success, embeddedness, and mobility of early career professionals. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 85, 180–190. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2014.06.002>
- Stumpf, S. A., & Tymon, W. G., Jr. (2012). The effects of objective career success on subsequent subjective career success. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 81, 245–253. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2012.09.001>

- Sukriket, P. (2015). The relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention of Thai software programmers in Bangkok, Thailand. *AU Journal of Management*, 12(2), 42–52.
- Sukums, F., Mensah, N., Mpembeni, R., Kaltschmidt, J., Haefeli, W. E., & Blank, A. (2014). Health workers' knowledge of and attitudes towards computer applications in rural African health facilities. *Global Health Action*, 7–19. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.3402/gha.v7.24534>
- Sullivan, S. E. (2013). The changing nature of careers: A review and research agenda. In K. Inkson, & M. L. Savickas (Eds.), *Career studies, Vol I Foundations of career studies* (pp. 271–302). London: Sage Publications.
- Sullivan, S. E., & Arthur, M. B. (2006). The evolution of the boundaryless career concept: Examining physical and psychological mobility. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 69(1), 19–29. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2005.09.001
- Sullivan, S. E., & Crocitto, M. (2007). The developmental theories: A critical examination of their continuing impact on careers research. In H. Gunz, & M. Peiperl (Eds.) *Handbook of career studies* (pp. 283–309). London: Sage Publications.
- Sullivan, S. E., & Mainiero, L. A. (2007). Kaleidoscope careers: Benchmarking ideas for fostering family-friendly workplaces. *Organizational Dynamics*, 36(1), 1–34.
- Supeli, A., & Creed, P. A. (2016). The longitudinal relationship between protean career orientation and job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention-to-quit. *Journal of Career Development*, 43(1), 66–80. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/0894845315581686>
- Super, D. E. (1957). *The psychology of careers*. New York, NY: Harper and Row.
- Super, D. (1970). *Work values inventory*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.
- Super, D. E. (1990). A life-span, life-space approach to career development. In D. Brown & L. Brooks (Eds.), *Career choice and development* (2nd ed., pp. 197–261). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Super, D. E. (1995). Values: Their nature, assessment and practical use. In D. E. Super, B. Sverko, & C. Super (Eds.), *Life roles, values, and careers: International findings of the work importance study* (pp. 55–61). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Swart, J. P. (2012). *Antecedents and outcome of happiness of managers in the agricultural sector in South Africa* (Unpublished doctoral thesis). North-West University, Vanderbijlpark, South Africa.

- Symington, N. (2012). *Investigating graduate employability and psychological career resources* (Unpublished master's dissertation). University of Pretoria, Pretoria.
- Tams, S., & Arthur, M. B. (2010). New directions for boundaryless careers: Agency and interdependence in a changing world. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 31, 629–646. doi:10.1002/job.712
- Tay, L., & Diener, E. (2011). Needs and subjective well-being around the world. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 101(2), 354. doi:10.1037/a0023779
- Tay, L., & Kuykendall, L. (2013). Promoting happiness: The malleability of individual and societal subjective wellbeing. *International Journal of Psychology*, 48(3), 159–176. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00207594.2013.779379
- Taylor, S. E., Peplau, L. A., & Sears, D. O. (2006). *Social psychology* (12th ed.). New Jersey: Pearson Education.
- Tehseen, S., Ramayah, T., & Sajilan, S. (2017). Testing and Controlling for Common Method Variance: A Review of Available Methods. *Journal of Management Sciences*, 4(2), 142-168.
- Teo, T. (2011). *Technology acceptance in education*. Rotterdam, The Netherlands: Sense Publishers.
- Terre Blanche, M., Durrheim, K., & Painter, D. (Eds.). (2006). *Research in practice: Applied methods for the social sciences* (2nd ed.). Cape Town: UCT Press.
- Thorgren, S., & Wincent, J. (2013). Passion and habitual entrepreneurship. *International Small Business Journal*, 33, 216–227. doi:10.1177/0266242613487085
- Timms, C., & Brough, P. (2013). “I like being a teacher”: Career satisfaction, the work environment and work engagement. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 51(6), 768–789. doi:10.1108/JEA-06-2012-0072
- Tladinyane, R. T. (2013). *Psychological career resources, work engagement and organisational commitment: A psychological profile for staff retention* (Unpublished doctoral thesis). University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa.
- Tladinyane, R.T., & Van der Merwe, M. (2016). Career adaptability and employee engagement of adults employed in an insurance company: An exploratory study. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14(1), 1–9. doi:10.4102/sajhrm.v14i1.752

- Tofighi, D., & Thoemmes, F. (2014). Single-level and multilevel mediation analysis. *The Journal of Early Adolescence*, *34*(1), 93–119.
- Tofighi, D., West, S. G., & MacKinnon, D. P. (2013). Multilevel mediation analysis: The effects of omitted variables in the 1-1-1 model. *British Journal of Mathematical and Statistical Psychology*, *66*, 290–307. doi:10.1111/j.2044-8317.2012.02051.x
- Tolentino, L. R., Garcia, P. R. J. M., Lu, V. N., Restubog, S. L. D., Bordia, P., & Plewa, C. (2014). Career adaptation: The relation of adaptability to goal orientation, proactive personality, and career optimism. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *84*(1), 39–48. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2013.11.004
- Tolentino, L. R., Garcia, P. R. J. M., Restubog, S. L. D., Bordia, P., & Tang, R. (2013). Validation of the Career Adapt-Abilities Scale and an examination of a model of career adaptation in the Philippine context. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *83*, 410–418 doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2013.06.013
- Tov, W., & Diener, E. (2008). The wellbeing of nations: Linking together trust, cooperation, and democracy. In B. A. Sullivan, M. Snyder, & J. L. Sullivan (Eds.), *Cooperation: The political psychology of effective human interaction* (pp. 323–342). Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Trivellas, P., Kakkos, N., Blanas, N., & Santouridis, I. (2015). The Impact of Career Satisfaction on Job Performance in Accounting Firms. The Mediating Effect of General Competencies. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, *33*, 468-476. doi:10.1016/S2212-5671(15)01730-X
- Trochim, W. M. K. (2006). *Knowledge base*. Retrieved May 03, 2016, from <http://www.socialresearchmethods.net>.
- Tsai, J. L., Knutson, B., & Fung, H. H. (2006). Cultural variation in affect valuation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *90*, 288–307. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.90.2.288
- Tschopp, C., Grote, G., & Gerber, M. (2014). How career orientation shapes the job satisfaction–turnover intention link. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *35*(2), 151–171. doi:10.1002/job.1857
- Tucker, J. S., Pleban, R. J., & Gunther, K. M. (2010). The mediating effects of adaptive skill on values-performance relationships. *Human Performance*, *23*, 81–99. doi:10.1080/08959280903400275

- Turban, D. B., & Dougherty, T. W. (1994). Role of protégé personality in receipt of mentoring and career success. *Academy of Management Journal*, *37*, 688–702. doi:10.2307/256706
- Turban, D. B., & Yan, W. (2016). Relationship of eudaimonia and hedonia with work outcomes. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *31*(6), 1006–1020. doi:https://doi.org/10.1108/JMP-07-2015-0271
- Turner, R. J. (1960). Sponsored and contest mobility and the school system. *American Sociological Review*, *25*, 855–867.
- Turner, R.J., Lloyd, D.A., & Roszell, P. (1999). Personal resources and the social distribution of depression. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, *27*, 643–672. doi:http://www.jstor.org/stable/2676332
- Twenge, J. M., Sherman, R. A., & Lyubomirsky, S. (2016). More happiness for young people and less for mature adults: Time period differences in subjective well-being in the United States, 1972–2014. *Social Psychological and Personality Science*, *7*(2), 131–141. doi:https://doi.org/10.1177/1948550615602933
- Tziner, A., Meir, E. I., & Segal, H. (2002). Occupational congruence and personal task-related attribute: How do they relate to work performance? *Journal of Career Assessment*, *10*, 401–412. doi:https://doi.org/10.1177/1069072702238403
- Ullrich, K. (2010). *Getting to the top: Strategies for career success*. USA: Silicon Valley Press.
- Uy, M. A., Chan, K., Sam, Y. L., Ho, M. R. & Chernyshenko, O. S. (2015). Proactivity, adaptability and boundaryless career attitudes: The mediating role of entrepreneurial alertness. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *86*, 115–123. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2014.11.005
- Valentine, S., & Fleischman, G. (2008). Ethics programs, perceived corporate social responsibility and job satisfaction. *Journal of business ethics*, *77*(2), 159–172. doi:10.1007/s10551-006-9306-z
- Vallerand, R. J. (2010). On passion for life activities: The Dualistic Model of Passion. In M. P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (pp. 97–193). New York, NY: Academic Press. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601(10)42003-1
- Vallerand, R. J. (2015). *The psychology of passion: A dualistic model*. New York: Oxford University Press.

- Vallerand, R. J., & Houliort, N. (2003). Passion at work: Toward a new conceptualization. In D. Skarlicki, S. Gilliland, & D. Steiner (Eds.), *Social issues in management* (Vol. 3, pp. 175–204). Greenwich, CT: Information Age.
- Vallerand, R. J., Houliort, N., & Forest, J. (2014). Passion for work: Determinants and outcomes. In M. Gagné (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of work engagement, motivation, and self-determination theory* (pp. 85–105). Oxford: Oxford University Press. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1177/1475725715584700>
- Vallerand, R. J., Mageau, G. A., Elliot, A. J., Dumais, A., Demers, M. A., & Rousseau, F. (2008). Passion and performance attainment in sport. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, *9*(3), 373–392. doi:10.1016/j.psychsport.2007.05.003
- Vallerand, R. J., Mageau, G. A., Ratelle, C., Leonard, M., Blanchard, C. & Koestner, R. (2003). Les passions de l'ame: On obsessive and harmonious passion. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *85*, 756–767. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.85.4.756>
- Vallerand, R. J., Paquet, Y., Philippe, F. L. & Charest, J. (2010). On the role of passion for work in burnout: A Process Model. *Journal of Personality* *78*, 289–312. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494.2009.00616.x>
- Vallerand, R. J., & Rapaport, M. (2017). The role of passion in adult self-growth and development. In M.L. Wehmeyer, K.A. Shogren, T.D. Little, S.J. Lopez, *Development of self-determination through the life-course* (pp. 125-143). Netherlands: Springer. doi:10.1007/978-94-024-1042-6\_10
- Vallerand, R. J., Rousseau, F. L., Grouzet, F. M. E., Dumais, A., Grenier, S., & Blanchard, C. M. (2006). Passion in sport: A look at determinants and affective experiences. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, *28*, 454–478. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1123/jsep.28.4.454>
- Vallerand, R. J., Salvy, S.-J., Mageau, G. A., Elliot, A. J., Denis, P. L., & Grouzet, F. M. E. (2007). On the role of passion in performance. *Journal of Personality*, *75*(3), 505–533. doi:10.1111/j.1467-6494.2007.00447.x
- Van den Berg, H. S., & Van Zyl, E. (2008). A cross-cultural comparison of the stress experienced by high-level career women. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *3*(3), 7-21. doi:<http://hdl.handle.net/10520/EJC89165>

- Van der Heijde, C. M., & Van der Heijden, B. I. J. M. (2006). A competence-based and multidimensional operationalisation of employability. *Human Resource Management* 45(3), 449–476. doi:10.1002/hrm.20119
- Van der Heijden, B. I. J. M., De Lange, A. H., Demerouti, E., & Van der Heijde, C. M. (2009). Age as moderator in the relationship between self-versus supervisor ratings of employability and career success. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 2, 156-164. doi:10.1002/hrm.20119
- Van Dyk, J., & Coetzee, M. (2012). Retention factors in relation to organisational commitment in medical and information technology services. *South African Journal of Human Resource Management*, 10(2), 1–11. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v10i2.433
- Van Praag, B. M. S., Frijters P., & Ferrer-i-Carbonell A. (2003). The anatomy of subjective wellbeing, *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, 51, 29–49. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/S0167-2681(02)00140-3
- Van Zyl, L. E., & Rothmann, S. (2012). Beyond smiling: The evaluation of a positive psychological intervention aimed at student happiness. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, 22(3), 369–384.
- Veenhoven, R. (2013). The four qualities of life ordering concepts and measures of the good life. In *The exploration of happiness* (pp. 195-226). Springer Netherlands.
- Venter, J. M. (2012). *The relationship between psychological career resources and engagement at a South African software and services organisation* (Unpublished master's dissertation). University of Pretoria, Pretoria.
- Venter, J., Coetzee, M., & Basson, J. S. (2013). Psychological career resources and work engagement of early career consulting staff. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, 23(3), 431–438.
- Verbruggen, M. (2012). Psychological mobility and career success in the new career climate. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 81, 289–297. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2011.10.010
- Verburg, R. (2016). Politics in commercial society: Jean-Jacques Rousseau and Adam Smith. *Erasmus Journal for Philosophy and Economics*, 9(1), 173–179. doi:http://ejpe.org/pdf/9-1-br-3.pdf

- Verner-Filion, J., Lafrenière, M. A. K., & Vallerand, R. J. (2012). On the accuracy of affective forecasting: The moderating role of passion. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *52*, 849–854. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2012.01.014
- Verner-Filion, J., & Vallerand, R. J. (2016). On the differential relationships involving perfectionism and academic adjustment: The mediating role of passion and affect. *Learning and Individual Differences*, *50*, 103-113. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2016.07.018
- Visagie, S., & Koekemoer, E. (2014). What it means to succeed: Personal perceptions of career success held by senior managers. *South African Journal of Business Management*, *45*(1), 43–54. doi:http://hdl.handle.net/10520/EJC151237
- Vohs, K., & Baumeister, R. (2004). Understanding self-regulation. In R. F. Baumeister, & K. D. Vohs (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation: Research, theory and applications*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Wachira, W., Brookes, M., & Haines, R. (2016). Viewing the impact of outsourcing from a Kenyan perspective. *Asian Journal of Management Science and Economics*, *3*(1), 24–43.
- Wallace, J. E. (2001). The benefits of mentoring for female lawyers. *Journal of Vocational Behavior* *58*(3), 366–391. doi:https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.2000.1766
- Walsh, W. B., & Osipow, S. H. (2014). *Career counseling: Contemporary topics in vocational psychology*. Routledge.
- Wang, Y. F. (2013). Constructing career competency model of hospitality industry employees for career success. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *25*(7), 994-1016. doi:https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-07-2012-0106
- Wang, C. K. J., Khoo, A., Liu, W. C., & Divaharan, S. (2008). Passion and intrinsic motivation in digital gaming. *CyberPsychology & Behavior*, *11*, 39–45. doi:https://doi.org/10.1089/cpb.2007.0004
- Wang, Q., Weng, Q., McElroy, J. C., Ashkanasy, N. M., & Lievens, F. (2014). Organizational career growth and subsequent voice behavior: The role of affective commitment and gender. *Journal of vocational behavior*, *84*(3), 431-441. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2014.03.004

- Warne, R. T. (2011). Beyond multiple regression: Using commonality analysis to better understand R<sup>2</sup> results. *Gifted Child Quarterly*, 55, 313–318. doi:10.1177/0016986211422217
- Watson, S. A. (2016). Challenges faced by older job seekers in a technology driven age. *Career Planning and Adult Development Journal*, 32(3), 38–44.
- Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54, 1063–1070.
- Wayne, S. J., Liden, R. C., Kraimer, M. L., & Graf, I. K. (1999). The role of human capital, motivation and supervisor sponsorship in predicting career success. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 20, 577–595.
- Weiss, M. G. (2001). Cultural epidemiology: an introduction and overview. *Anthropology & medicine*, 8(1), 5-29. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13648470120070980
- Weiting, N. (2013). The duality of wealth: Is material wealth good or bad for well-being? *Journal of Social Research & Policy*, 4(2), 7–19.
- Weng, Q. X., & Chen, Y. L. (2014). Career well-being: Concept introduction, theoretical framework establishment and future prospects. *Foreign Economics & Management*, 36, 56-63.
- Westland, J. C. (2015). *Structural equation modeling: From paths to networks*. New York, NY: Springer.
- Wickramasinghe, V., & Jayaweera, M. (2010). Impact of career plateau and supervisor support on career satisfaction: a study in offshore outsourced IT firms in Sri Lanka. *Career Development International*, 15(6), 544–561. doi:10.1108/13620431011084402
- Wikgren, M. (2005). Critical realism as a philosophy and social theory in information science? *Journal of Documentation*, 61(1), 11–22. doi:10.1108/00220410510577989
- Witter, R. A., Okun, M. A., Stock, W. A., & Haring, M. J. (1984). Education and subjective wellbeing: A meta-analysis. *Education Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 6, 165–173. doi:https://doi.org/10.3102/01623737006002165

- Wöcke, A., & Heymann, M. (2012). Impact of demographic variables on voluntary labour turnover in South Africa. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23(16), 3479–3494. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2011.639028
- Wolf, E. B., Lee, J. J., Sah, S., & Brooks, A. W. (2016). Managing perceptions of distress at work: Reframing emotion as passion. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 137, 1–12. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2016.07.003
- Wolff, H. G., & Moser, K. (2009). Effects of networking on career success: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94, 196–206.
- Woodd, M. (2013). The move towards a different career pattern: are women better prepared than men for a modern career? *Career Development International*, 5(2), 99–105. doi:https://doi.org/10.1108/09649429910255465
- Wright, T. A., & Cropanzano, R. (2000). Psychological wellbeing and job satisfaction as predictors of job performance. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 5(1), 84–94. doi:10.1037//1076-8998.5.1.84
- Wu, C. H., Luksyte, A., & Parker, S. K. (2015). Over qualification and subjective well-being at work: The moderating role of job autonomy and culture. *Social Indicators Research*, 121(3), 917–937.
- Yamao, S., & Sekiguchi, T. (2015). Employee commitment to corporate globalization: The role of English language proficiency and human resource practices. *Journal of World Business*, 50(1), 168–179. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2014.03.001
- Yang, Y., & Mathew, T. (2017). The simultaneous assessment of normality and homoscedasticity in linear fixed effects models. *Journal of Statistical Theory and Practice*, 1–16. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/15598608.2017.1320243
- Zacher, H. (2014). Individual difference predictors of change in career adaptability over time. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 84, 188–198. doi:ttp://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2014.01.001
- Zacher, H., Feldman, D. C., & Schulz, H. (2014). Age, occupational strain, and well-being: A person-environment fit perspective. In P. L. Perrewé, J. Halbesleben, & C. C. Rosen (Eds.), *The role of demographics in occupational stress and wellbeing* (pp. 83–111). Bingley, UK: Emerald Group. doi:10.1108/S1479-355520140000012002

- Zhang, Z., Zyphur, M. J., & Preacher, K. J. (2009). Testing multilevel mediation using hierarchical linear models. *Organizational Research Methods*, 12, 695–719. doi:10.1177/1094428108327450
- Zhao, H., Seibert, S., & Lumpkin, G. T. (2010). The relationship of personality to entrepreneurial intentions and performance: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Management*, 36(2), 381–404. doi:https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206309335187
- Zigarmi, D., Nimon, K., Houson, D., Witt, D., & Diehl, J. (2009). Beyond engagement: Toward a framework and operational definition for employee work passion. *Human Resource Development Review*, 8, 300–326. doi:https://doi.org/10.1177/1534484309338171
- Zimek, A., Schubert, E., & Kriegel, H. P. (2012). A survey on unsupervised outlier detection in high-dimensional numerical data. *Statistical Analysis and Data Mining*, 5(5), 363–387. doi:10.1002/sam.11161

Annexure A: Editor's letter

*Alexa Barnby*  
*Language Specialist*

---

Editing, copywriting, indexing, formatting, translation

---

BA Hons Translation Studies; APEd (SATI) Accredited Professional Text Editor, SATI

Mobile: 071 872 1334

Tel: 012 361 6347

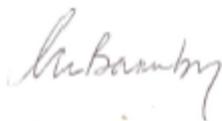
alexabarnby@gmail.com

5 January 2018

To whom it may concern

This is to certify that I, Alexa Kirsten Barnby, a language practitioner accredited by the South African Translators' Institute, have edited the doctoral dissertation titled "TOWARD CONSTRUCTING A PSYCHOSOCIAL MODEL OF CAREER WELLBEING FOR THE SOUTH AFRICAN WORKING ADULT" by Salemon Marais Bester.

The onus is, however, on the author to make the changes and address the comments.



## Annexure B: Ethics clearance certificate

### CEMS/IOP RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

31 August 2016

Ref #: 2016\_CEMS/IOP\_076

Student #: 58527737

Staff #: N/A

Dear Mr Salemon M Bester,

**Decision: Ethics approval**

**Address:** CEB/SHL Consultants  
Dubai, United Arab Emirates

**Tel no:** +97155 624 3837

**E-mail:** [maraisbester@gmail.com](mailto:maraisbester@gmail.com)

**Supervisor:** Prof M Coetzee

**Title:** Toward Constructing a Psycho-Social Model of Career Wellbeing for the South African Working Adult

**Qualification:** Postgraduate degree/Non-degree output/Commissioned research

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the CEMS/IOP Research Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research.

The submitted documentation was reviewed in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics by the CEMS/IOP on 30 August 2016.

*The proposed research may now commence with the proviso that:*

- 1) The researcher/s will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.*
- 2) Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study, as well as changes in the methodology, should be communicated in writing to the CEMS/IOP Ethics Review Committee.*
- 3) An amended application could be requested if there are substantial changes from the existing proposal, especially if those changes affect any of the study-related risks for the research participants.*



- 4) *The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study.*

*Note:*

*The reference number **2016\_CEMS/IOP\_076** should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication [e.g. Webmail, E-mail messages, letters] with the intended research participants, as well as with the CEMS/IOP RERC.*

Kind regards,



---

Dr Sonja Grobler

**Chair: IOP Research Ethics Committee**

Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology

College of Economic and Management Sciences

AJH van der Walt Building, Room 3-76

+27 (0) 12 429 8272

Fax: 012 429 8368



---

Prof M T Mogale

**Executive Dean**

College of Economic and Management Sciences

AJH van der Walt Building, Room 05-04

Tel: 012 429 4805