

**A PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING PROFILE FOR JUNIOR LEADERS IN THE SOUTH  
AFRICAN NATIONAL DEFENCE FORCE**

**By**

**Phillemon Matsapola Mogale**

**In fulfilment of the degree of**

**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN PSYCHOLOGY**

**In the subject**

**INDUSTRIAL AND ORGANISATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY**

**AT THE**

**UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA**

**SUPERVISOR: PROF R.M. OOSTHUIZEN**

**2020**

## DECLARATION

I, student number 34505946, Phillemon Matsapola Mogale, declare that this thesis entitled “A Psychological well-being profile for junior leaders in the SANDF” is my own work and that I have indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references all the sources that I have used or have quoted from. It has not, in part or in whole, been previously submitted for any other degree or examination at this or any other university.

I further declare that ethical clearance to conduct the research has been obtained from the South African National Defence Force (SANDF) and the Research Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology’s, Ethics Committee at the University of South Africa.

---

**Phillemon M Mogale**

---

Date:

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my appreciation to the university and the following people who helped me during this doctoral project; it was a lonely, tough and challenging task.

Thank God my Lord, Almighty for overseeing and guiding me with the wisdom and opportunity to dedicate my efforts to this research project through to its completion.

My dearly missed friend and co-worker, the late Dr Charles Kgosana, who motivated me to undertake this project. May his soul rest in eternal peace.

My gratitude goes to my supervisor Prof Rudi Oosthuizen for providing interactive guidance and support. Thank you to Prof Ophillia Ledimo and Prof Melinde Coetzee for preparing me cognitively and emotionally to cope with the demands of the degree.

UNISA and the Centre for Economic Management for assistance (financial support and academic resources) and sufficient library information needed to complete this thesis.

Mr Andries Masenge for his help, patience, and assistance with the statistical analysis.

Ms Chanel Serfontein for her professional editing of this thesis.

My sisters, Beauty and Patricia Mogale, who have been my pillar of strength and a friend indeed Dr Matjale Charles Francis Meela and all my family, especially Lethabo, Tshegofatso and Lehlogonolo; I hope I inspired you to continue to study further.

Chief of the SANDF, General Solly Shoke, for granting me permission to conduct research. Sergeant General (SG) of the South African Military Health Services (SAMHS), Aubrey Sedibe, for revamping and mentoring my career. Colonel Jane Lekola for her spiritual counselling. Lieutenant Colonel Masakhane Dikgole and Commander Thembi Mhlongo for assistance with the assembling of participants at the training schools.

To the Medical tasks support groups, friends, and comrades for their relentless support and motivation.

*“Bakwena Wee”*

## CONDENSED CURRICULUM VITAE

**STUDENT NUMBER:** 34505946

**FOR THE DEGREE:** PHD (INDUSTRIAL AND ORGANISATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY)

**FULL NAMES & SURNAME:** PHILLEMON M MOGALE

Birth Date:

0	6	0	2	1	9	7	6
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

I declare that I have completed the following tertiary qualifications:

Tertiary qualifications	Year of Completion	University
National Diploma Human Resources Management	2002	UNISA
Bcom Industrial Psychology	2009	UNISA
Bcom Honours Industrial Psychology	2011	UNISA
Mcom Industrial Psychology	2015	UNISA

### Current responsibilities:

I am a registered Industrial Psychologist (Independent practice).

*My performance output entails but are not limited to:*

- Overall psychological assessments limited to the scope.
- Psychometric Testing and Assessment for selections and development.
- Career counselling, career development and the designing of learning-potential manuals.
- Facilitating organisational development on individual, group, and organisational levels.
- Designing and facilitating customised team-building sessions and facilitating strategic-development plans.
- Job profiling.
- Medical-legal assessment and report writing.
- Conducting specialist acquisition assessment and testing for various selections.

**Signature:** \_\_\_\_\_ **Date:** \_\_\_\_\_

## **ABSTRACT / SUMMARY**

### **A PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING PROFILE FOR JUNIOR LEADERS IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL DEFENCE FORCE**

by

**Phillemon Matsapola Mogale**

**SUPERVISOR : Prof. R.M. OOSTHUIZEN**  
**DEPARTMENT : Industrial and Organisational Psychology**  
**DEGREE : PhD (Industrial and Organisational Psychology)**

The research focused on constructing a psychological well-being profile for flourishing practices for junior leaders by establishing the relationship between junior leaders' dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning). A non-probability purposive sampling quantitative method was applied to a sample of South African National Defence Force (SANDF) personnel in Gauteng ( $N = 458$ ) at junior leadership levels to explore the statistical relationship between their dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning) attribute.

Multiple regression analyses indicated the dispositional attributes with the exception of emotional affect as significant predictors of the flourishing variable. The structural equation modelling (SEM) indicated a good fit of the data with the correlation-derived measurement model. Moderated hierarchical regression analyses indicated that age, race, gender and years of service as significant moderators of the relationship between the participants' dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations and organisational commitment) and flourishing (positive psychological functioning) attribute. Tests for mean differences discovered that participants differed in terms of their age and race. The study made a significant contribution to the bulk of knowledge in the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology. On a theoretical level, the study deepened the understanding of the individual and cognitive, affective, conative and relations management dimensions of the hypothesised psychological well-being profile. On an empirical level, the study developed an empirically tested psychological well-being profile that informs flourishing practices for individual junior

leaders and organisational levels. On a practical level, dispositional and flourishing practices that inform the dimensions of the psychological well-being profile were recommended.

## **KEY TERMS**

Psychological well-being, dispositional attributes, emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment, flourishing, junior leaders, career development, psychological career resources, organisational commitment, cognitive functioning, affection, conative, relations management

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>Acknowledgements</b>	<b>ii</b>
<b>Declaration</b>	<b>iii</b>
<b>Condensed Curriculum Vitae</b>	<b>iv</b>
<b>Abstract /Summary</b>	<b>v</b>
<b>Key terms</b>	<b>vi</b>
<b>Table of contents</b>	<b>vii</b>
<b>SCIENTIFIC ORIENTATION FOR THE RESEARCH</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>1.1 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT</b>	<b>14</b>
<b>1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS</b>	<b>15</b>
<b>1.3.1 Research questions arising from the literature review</b>	<b>15</b>
<b>1.3.2 Research questions in respect of empirical study</b>	<b>16</b>
<b>1.4 RESEARCH AIMS</b>	<b>17</b>
<b>1.4.1 General aims</b>	<b>17</b>
<b>1.4.2 Specific aims of the research</b>	<b>18</b>
<i>1.4.2.1 Specific aims related to literature</i>	<i>18</i>
<i>1.4.2.2 Specific aims related to empirical study</i>	<i>18</i>
<b>1.5 STATEMENT OF SIGNIFICANCE</b>	<b>19</b>
<b>1.5.1 Potential contribution on a literature level</b>	<b>20</b>
<b>1.5.2 Potential contribution on an empirical level</b>	<b>20</b>
<b>1.5.3 Potential contribution to industrial and organisational psychology</b>	<b>21</b>
<b>1.6 RESEARCH MODEL</b>	<b>21</b>
<b>1.7 PARADIGM PERSPECTIVES</b>	<b>22</b>
<b>1.7.1 Intellectual climate</b>	<b>22</b>
<i>1.7.1.1 Humanistic-existential paradigm</i>	<i>22</i>
<i>1.7.1.2 Positivist research paradigm</i>	<i>23</i>
<b>1.7.2 The market of intellectual climate</b>	<b>23</b>
<i>1.7.2.1 Meta-theoretical statements</i>	<i>23</i>
<b>1.8 CONCEPTUAL DESCRIPTIONS</b>	<b>24</b>
<b>1.8.1 Emotional Affect</b>	<b>24</b>
<b>1.8.2 Career Orientations</b>	<b>25</b>
<b>1.8.3 Organisational Commitment</b>	<b>25</b>

<b>1.8.4</b>	<b>Flourishing</b>	<b>25</b>
<b>1.8.5</b>	<b>Psychological well-being</b>	<b>25</b>
<b>1.9</b>	<b>CENTRAL HYPOTHESIS</b>	<b>27</b>
<b>1.10</b>	<b>RESEARCH DESIGN</b>	<b>27</b>
<b>1.10.1</b>	<b>Research approach</b>	<b>28</b>
<b>1.10.2</b>	<b>Exploratory research</b>	<b>28</b>
<b>1.10.3</b>	<b>Explanatory research</b>	<b>28</b>
<b>1.10.4</b>	<b>Descriptive research</b>	<b>28</b>
<b>1.10.5</b>	<b>Research variables</b>	<b>29</b>
<b>1.10.6</b>	<b>Validity and reliability</b>	<b>30</b>
<i>1.10.6.1</i>	<i>Validity with regard to the literature</i>	<i>30</i>
<i>1.10.6.2</i>	<i>Reliability with regard to the literature</i>	<i>31</i>
<b>1.10.7</b>	<b>Unit of analysis</b>	<b>31</b>
<b>1.10.8</b>	<b>Ethical considerations</b>	<b>31</b>
<b>1.11</b>	<b>RESEARCH PROCESS</b>	<b>32</b>
<b>1.11.1</b>	<b>Phase 1: Literature review steps</b>	<b>34</b>
<b>1.11.2</b>	<b>Phase 2: Empirical study steps</b>	<b>36</b>
<b>1.12</b>	<b>CHAPTER LAYOUT</b>	<b>45</b>
<b>1.13</b>	<b>CHAPTER SUMMARY</b>	<b>47</b>

**CHAPTER 2: META-THEORETICAL CONTEXT OF PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING AND DISPOSITIONAL ATTRIBUTES OF JUNIOR LEADERS** **48**

<b>2.1</b>	<b>INTRODUCTION</b>	<b>48</b>
<b>2.2</b>	<b>PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING</b>	<b>49</b>
<b>2.2.1</b>	<b>Conceptual foundation of psychological well-being amongst junior leaders</b>	<b>49</b>
<i>2.2.1.1</i>	<i>Approaches to psychological well-being</i>	<i>52</i>
<i>2.2.1.2</i>	<i>Key elements of psychological well-being</i>	<i>55</i>
<i>2.2.1.3</i>	<i>Effects of psychological well-being</i>	<i>57</i>
<i>2.2.1.4</i>	<i>Junior leaders in the SANDF</i>	<i>59</i>
<i>2.2.1.5</i>	<i>Conclusion</i>	<i>62</i>
<b>2.3</b>	<b>PSYCHOLOGICAL DISPOSITIONAL ATTRIBUTES</b>	<b>64</b>
<b>2.3.1</b>	<b>Conceptual foundation of psychological dispositional attributes</b>	<b>64</b>
<i>2.3.1.1</i>	<i>Conceptualisation of emotional affect</i>	<i>64</i>
<i>2.3.1.2</i>	<i>Conceptualisation of career orientations</i>	<i>68</i>



2.3.1.3	<i>Conceptualisation organisational commitment</i>	70
2.3.1.4	<i>Conclusion</i>	80
<b>2.4</b>	<b>THEORETICAL APPROACHES OF PSYCHOLOGICAL DISPOSITIONAL ATTRIBUTES</b>	<b>81</b>
<b>2.4.1</b>	<b>Theoretical model of emotional affect</b>	<b>81</b>
2.4.1.1	<i>Positive and Negative Activation Model (Watson, et al., 1988)</i>	81
<b>2.4.2</b>	<b>Theoretical models of career orientations</b>	<b>85</b>
2.4.2.1	<i>The eight career anchors model</i>	85
<b>2.4.3</b>	<b>Theoretical model of organisational commitment</b>	<b>89</b>
2.4.3.1	<i>The organisational commitments valences model (Meyer &amp; Allen, 1997)</i>	89
<b>2.5</b>	<b>DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES INFLUENCING THE PSYCHOLOGICALDISPOSITIONAL ATTRIBUTES OF JUNIOR LEADERS</b>	<b>93</b>
<b>2.5.1</b>	<b>Emotional affect</b>	<b>93</b>
2.5.1.1	<i>Age</i>	93
2.5.1.2	<i>Race</i>	93
2.5.1.3	<i>Gender</i>	93
2.5.1.4	<i>Years of service</i>	94
2.5.1.5	<i>Rank</i>	94
<b>2.5.2</b>	<b>Career orientations</b>	<b>94</b>
2.5.2.1	<i>Age</i>	94
2.5.2.2	<i>Race</i>	95
2.5.2.3	<i>Gender</i>	95
2.5.2.4	<i>Years of service</i>	96
2.5.2.5	<i>Rank</i>	96
<b>2.5.3</b>	<b>Organisational commitment</b>	<b>96</b>
2.5.3.1	<i>Age</i>	96
2.5.3.2	<i>Race</i>	97
2.5.3.3	<i>Gender</i>	97
2.5.3.4	<i>Years of service</i>	97
2.5.3.5	<i>Rank</i>	97
<b>2.6</b>	<b>IMPLICATIONS FOR PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING AND DISPOSITIONAL ATTRIBUTES FOR JUNIOR LEADERS IN THE SANDF</b>	<b>99</b>
<b>2.6.1</b>	<b>Emotional affect</b>	<b>102</b>
<b>2.6.2</b>	<b>Career orientations</b>	<b>102</b>
<b>2.6.3</b>	<b>Organisational commitment</b>	<b>103</b>

<b>2.7</b>	<b>PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING AND DISPOSITIONAL ATTRIBUTES PROFILE OF JUNIOR LEADERS IN THE SANDF</b>	<b>103</b>
<b>2.7.1</b>	<b>Constructing a psychological well-being profile: Emotional Affect, Career Orientations, and Organisational Commitment</b>	<b>103</b>
2.7.1.1	<i>Psychological dispositional attributes: Emotional Affect</i>	104
2.7.1.2	<i>Psychological dispositional attributes: Career orientations</i>	105
2.7.1.3	<i>Psychological dispositional attributes: Organisational Commitment</i>	105
<b>2.7.2</b>	<b>Constructing a psychological well-being profile: Integration of Emotional Affect, Career Orientations, and Organisational Commitment (Psychological dispositional attributes) and the flourishing attribute(Positive psychological functioning attribute)</b>	<b>106</b>
<b>2.7.3</b>	<b>Hypothesised theoretical psychological well-being profile for junior leaders</b>	<b>111</b>
2.7.3.1	<i>Affective functioning dimension</i>	114
2.7.3.2	<i>Cognitive functioning dimension</i>	115
2.7.3.3	<i>Conative behaviour dimension</i>	115
2.7.3.4	<i>The influence of age, race, gender, years of service, and rank on emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment</i>	116
<b>2.8</b>	<b>EVALUATION AND SYNTHESIS</b>	<b>118</b>
<b>2.9</b>	<b>CHAPTER SUMMARY</b>	<b>121</b>
 <b>CHAPTER 3: FLOURISHING</b>		
<b>3.1</b>	<b>FLOURISHING</b>	<b>121</b>
<b>3.1.1</b>	<b>Conceptual background of flourishing</b>	<b>123</b>
3.1.1.1	<i>Conceptualisation of flourishing of junior leaders</i>	125
<b>3.2</b>	<b>THEORETICAL MODEL OF FLOURISHING</b>	<b>128</b>
<b>3.2.1</b>	<b>PERMA Model for Flourishing (Seligman, 2015)</b>	<b>129</b>
3.2.1.1	<i>Positive emotions</i>	129
3.2.1.2	<i>Engagements</i>	130
3.2.1.3	<i>Positive relationships</i>	130
3.2.1.4	<i>Meaning</i>	131
3.2.1.5	<i>Accomplishment</i>	131
<b>3.3</b>	<b>BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES INFLUENCING FLOURISHING</b>	<b>131</b>
3.3.1	<i>Age</i>	131

3.3.2	<i>Race</i>	132
3.3.3	<i>Gender</i>	132
3.3.4	<i>Years of service</i>	132
3.3.5	<i>Rank</i>	133
<b>3.4</b>	<b>IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE</b>	<b>134</b>
<b>3.4.1</b>	<b>Flourishing</b>	<b>136</b>
<b>3.4.2</b>	<b>Psychological well-being</b>	<b>137</b>
<b>3.4.3</b>	<b>Flourishing of junior leaders</b>	<b>138</b>
<b>3.5</b>	<b>EVALUATION AND SYNTHESIS OF RESEARCH LITERATURE</b>	<b>139</b>
<b>3.6</b>	<b>THEORETICAL INTEGRATION TOWARDS A PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING PROFILE</b>	<b>141</b>
<b>3.6.1</b>	<b>Constructing a hypothesised psychological well-being profile for junior leaders in the SANDF</b>	<b>142</b>
3.6.1.1	<i>Flourishing</i>	143
<b>3.6.2</b>	<b>Towards developing a psychological well-being profile: integration of the dispositional attributes and flourishing attributes</b>	<b>143</b>
<b>3.6.3</b>	<b>Hypothesised theoretical psychological well-being profile for junior leaders</b>	<b>146</b>
3.6.3.1	<i>Affective functioning dimension</i>	148
3.6.3.2	<i>Cognitive functioning dimension</i>	149
3.6.3.3	<i>Conative functioning dimension</i>	150
3.6.3.4	<i>Relations management dimension</i>	152
<b>3.7</b>	<b>EVALUATION AND FORMULATION OF RESEARCH HYPOTHESES</b>	<b>153</b>
<b>3.7.1</b>	<b>Hypothetical relationship between psychological well-being profile and flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning)</b>	<b>154</b>
<b>3.7.2</b>	<b>Hypothetical relationship between psychological well-being profile and dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment)</b>	<b>154</b>
<b>3.7.3</b>	<b>Hypothetical relationship between psychological well-being and flourishing</b>	<b>155</b>
<b>3.7.4</b>	<b>Hypothetical relationship between psychological well-being and dispositional attributes</b>	<b>155</b>
<b>3.7.5</b>	<b>Hypothetical relationship between dispositional attributes and flourishing</b>	<b>155</b>
<b>3.7.6</b>	<b>Hypothetical relationship between flourishing and emotional affect</b>	<b>156</b>

3.7.7	Hypothetical relationship between flourishing and career orientations	156
3.7.8	Hypothetical relationship between flourishing and organisational Commitment	156
3.8	<b>CHAPTER SUMMARY</b>	156
<b>CHAPTER 4: THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH</b>		<b>158</b>
4.1	<b>INTRODUCTION</b>	<b>158</b>
4.2	<b>DETERMINATION AND DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE</b>	<b>159</b>
4.2.1	Composition of the final sample size	160
4.2.2	Composition of age groups in the sample	160
4.2.3	Composition of race groups in the sample	161
4.2.4	Composition of gender groups in the sample	162
4.2.5	Composition of years of service groups in the sample	163
4.2.6	Composition of rank groups in the sample	164
4.2.7	Summary of the biographical information distribution profile	165
4.3	<b>CHOOSING AND MOTIVATING THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY (MEASURING INSTRUMENTS)</b>	<b>166</b>
4.3.1	<b>Measuring of biographical information</b>	<b>166</b>
4.3.1.1	<i>Age, race, gender, years of service, and rank</i>	166
4.3.2	<b>Measuring of psychological dispositional attributes</b>	<b>166</b>
4.3.2.1	<i>Scale for Positive And Negative Activation Experiences (SPANE) (Diener, Wirtz, Tov, Kim-Prieto, Choi, Oishi, &amp; Biswas-Diener, 2010)</i>	166
4.3.2.2	<i>Career Orientations Inventory (COI) (Schein, 1990)</i>	167
4.3.2.3	<i>Organisational Commitment Scales (OCS) (Meyer &amp; Allen, 1993)</i>	167
4.3.3	<b>Measuring of flourishing attribute</b>	<b>167</b>
4.3.3.1	<i>Flourishing Scale (FS) (Diener, Wirtz, Tov, Kim-Prieto, Choi, Oishi, &amp; Biswas-Diener, 2010).</i>	167
4.3.4	<b>Motivation and the psychometric properties (measuring instruments) of the measure of dispositional attributes</b>	<b>168</b>
4.3.4.1	<i>Scale for Positive And Negative Activation Experiences (SPANE) (Diener, Wirtz, Tov, Kim-Prieto, Choi, Oishi, &amp; Biswas-Diener, 2010)</i>	168
4.3.4.2	<i>Career Orientations Inventory (COI) (Schein, 1990)</i>	169
4.3.4.3	<i>Organisational Commitment Scales (OCS) (Meyer &amp; Allen 1993)</i>	171
4.3.5	<b>Motivation and the psychometric properties (measuring instrument) of the measure of the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning)</b>	<b>173</b>

4.3.5.1	<i>Flourishing Scale (FS)</i>	173
4.3.6	<b>Limitations of the psychometric battery</b>	174
4.4	<b>ADMINISTRATION AND ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS OF THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY (RESEARCH PROCEDURE)</b>	175
4.5	<b>SCORING OF THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY (STATISTICAL ANALYSIS)</b>	176
4.6	<b>FORMULATION OF THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES</b>	176
4.7	<b>STATISTICAL PROCESSING OF THE DATA</b>	178
471	<b>Stage 1: Descriptive statistics</b>	179
4.7.1.1	<i>Step 1: Internal consistency reliability analysis (SPAN, COI, OCS, FS)</i>	179
4.7.1.2	<i>Step 2: Assessing uni-dimensionality</i>	180
4.7.1.3	<i>Step 3: Means and standard deviations, kurtosis and skewness and Frequency data</i>	180
4.7.1.4	<i>Step 4: Tests for assumptions</i>	181
4.7.1.4.1	<i>The accuracy of data entered into the data file and missing values</i>	181
4.7.1.4.2	<i>The ratio of cases to independent variables</i>	182
4.7.1.4.3	<i>Outliers (univariate and multivariate)</i>	182
4.7.1.4.4	<i>Normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity</i>	182
4.7.1.4.5	<i>Multicollinearity and singularity</i>	183
4.7.1.4.6	<i>Levene's test for homogeneity of variance</i>	183
4.7.2	<b>Stage 2: Correlation analysis</b>	184
4.7.3	<b>Stage 3: Inferential (multivariate) statistical</b>	185
4.7.3.1	<i>Step 1: Multiple regression analysis</i>	185
4.7.3.2	<i>Step 2: Structural Equation Mediation modelling (SEM)</i>	186
4.7.3.3	<i>Step 3: Hierarchical moderated regression analysis</i>	187
4.7.3.4	<i>Step 4: Test for significant mean differences</i>	188
4.7.4	<b>Statistical level of significance</b>	189
4.7.4.1	<i>Statistical significance of Pearson-product moment correlations</i>	190
4.7.4.2	<i>Level of significance: Multiple regression and hierarchical moderated regression</i>	190
4.7.4.3	<i>Level of significance: Structural Equation Mediation modelling (SEM)</i>	191
4.7.4.4	<i>Statistical significance: Tests for significant mean differences</i>	193
4.8	<b>CHAPTER SUMMARY</b>	193
<b>CHAPTER 5: THE RESEARCH RESULTS</b>		
5.	<b>INTRODUCTION</b>	195

<b>5.1</b>	<b>PRELIMINARY STATISTICAL ANALYSIS</b>	<b>195</b>
<b>5.1.1</b>	<b>Common method variance</b>	<b>195</b>
<b>5.1.2</b>	<b>Measurement model validity</b>	<b>198</b>
<b>5.1.3</b>	<b>Reporting and interpretation of the measuring instruments reliabilities: Rasch analyses and Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the measures</b>	<b>200</b>
5.1.3.1	<i>Scale for Positive And Negative Emotions (Assessing Emotional affect)</i>	200
5.1.3.2	<i>Career Orientation Inventory (Assessing Career orientations/anchors)</i>	201
5.1.3.3	<i>Organisational Commitment Scales (Assessing Organisational Commitment)</i>	203
5.1.3.4	<i>Flourishing Scale (Assessing Flourishing)</i>	204
<b>5.2</b>	<b>DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS</b>	<b>205</b>
<b>5.2.1.</b>	<b>Reporting on the means, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis</b>	<b>205</b>
5.2.1.1	<i>Means and standard deviations of the Scale for Positive And Negative Emotions (SPANE)</i>	206
5.2.1.2	<i>Means and standard deviations of the Career Orientations Inventory (COI)</i>	206
5.2.1.3	<i>Means and standard deviations of the Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS)</i>	207
5.2.1.4	<i>Means and standard deviations of the Flourishing Scale (FS)</i>	207
<b>5.3</b>	<b>CORRELATIONAL STATISTICS</b>	<b>207</b>
<b>5.3.1</b>	<b>Reporting on the Pearson Product-moment correlation coefficients (SPANE, COI, OCS, FS) and the biographical information</b>	<b>208</b>
5.3.1.1	<i>The relationship between independent variables (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment), the dependent variable (flourishing), and biographical information</i>	208
5.3.1.1	<i>Age</i>	210
5.3.1.2	<i>Race</i>	210
5.3.1.3	<i>Gender</i>	210
5.3.1.4	<i>Years of Service</i>	211
5.3.1.5	<i>Rank</i>	211
<b>5.4</b>	<b>INFERENTIAL (MULTIVARIATE) STATISTICS</b>	<b>214</b>
<b>5.4.1</b>	<b>Multiple linear regression analyses</b>	<b>214</b>
<b>5.4.2</b>	<b>Structural equation modelling</b>	<b>216</b>
<b>5.4.3</b>	<b>Hierarchical moderated regression analysis</b>	<b>222</b>
5.4.3.1	<i>Age as a moderator</i>	223
5.4.3.2	<i>Race as a moderator</i>	225
5.4.3.3	<i>Gender as a moderator</i>	241

5.4.3.4	<i>Years of Service as a moderator</i>	243
5.4.3.5	<i>Rank level as a moderator</i>	249
<b>5.4.4</b>	<b>Reporting on the tests' significant mean differences</b>	<b>250</b>
<b>5.5</b>	<b>INTEGRATION AND THE DISCUSSIONS OF EMPIRICAL RESEARCH RESULTS</b>	<b>260</b>
<b>5.5.1</b>	<b>The biographical information of the sample and frequencies</b>	<b>260</b>
<b>5.5.2</b>	<b>Description statistics: Interpretation of the research results scores</b>	<b>261</b>
5.5.2.1	<i>Dispositional attributes profile</i>	262
5.5.2.2	<i>Flourishing attributes profile</i>	265
<b>5.5.3</b>	<b>Research aim 1: Interpretation of the correlation results</b>	<b>266</b>
5.5.3.1	<i>The relationship between dispositional attributes and the flourishing attribute</i>	268
5.5.3.2	<i>The relationship between the biographical, independent and dependent construct variables</i>	269
5.5.3.3	<i>Significant findings: Synthesis</i>	269
5.5.3.4	<i>Counter-intuitive findings</i>	270
<b>5.5.4</b>	<b>Research aim 2: Interpretation of the multiple linear regression results</b>	<b>270</b>
5.5.4.1	<i>Emotional affect as a predictor of flourishing</i>	270
5.5.4.2	<i>Career orientations as a predictor of flourishing</i>	271
5.5.4.3	<i>Organisational commitment as a predictor of flourishing</i>	271
5.5.4.4	<i>Significant findings: Synthesis</i>	272
5.5.4.5	<i>Counter-intuitive findings</i>	272
<b>5.5.5</b>	<b>Research aim 3: Interpretation of the Structural Equation Modelling Results</b>	<b>273</b>
5.5.5.1	<i>Main findings: Synthesis</i>	274
5.5.5.2	<i>Empirically manifested psychological well-being profile for junior leaders</i>	276
5.5.5.3	<i>Counter-intuitive findings</i>	276
<b>5.5.6</b>	<b>Research aim 4: Interpretation of the hierarchical moderated regression results</b>	<b>277</b>
5.5.6.1	<i>Main findings: Synthesis</i>	279
5.5.6.2	<i>Counter-intuitive findings</i>	279
<b>5.5.7</b>	<b>Research aim 5: Interpretation of the tests for significant mean differences results</b>	<b>279</b>
5.5.7.1	<i>Main findings: Synthesis</i>	280
5.5.7.2	<i>Counter-intuitive findings</i>	280

5.5.7.3	<i>Synthesis: Developing a psychosocial well-being profile for junior leaders</i>	281
<b>5.6</b>	<b>Decisions regarding the research hypothesis</b>	<b>284</b>
<b>5.7</b>	<b>CHAPTER SUMMARY</b>	<b>285</b>
<b>CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS</b>		
<b>6.1</b>	<b>CONCLUSIONS</b>	<b>287</b>
<b>6.1.1</b>	<b>Conclusions regarding the literature review</b>	<b>287</b>
6.1.1.1	<i>Research aim 1: To conceptualise psychological well-being for junior leaders in relation to emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment, and flourishing attributes in the military environment.</i>	287
6.1.1.2	<i>Research aim 2: To conceptualise the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attributes (positive psychological functioning) by means of theoretical models in the literature.</i>	290
6.1.1.3	<i>Research aim 3: To conceptualise the nature of the theoretical relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological function) and explain this relationship in terms of integrated theoretical models in the literature.</i>	294
6.1.1.4	<i>Research aim 4: To propose a conceptual psychological well-being profile for junior leaders based on the theoretical relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute, which may be used to inform psychological well-being practices</i>	297
6.1.1.5	<i>Research aim 5: To evaluate how biographical characteristics influence the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).</i>	298
6.1.1.6	<i>Research aim 6: To critically evaluate the implications of psychological well-being profile of junior leaders within the SANDF</i>	301
<b>6.1.2</b>	<b>Conclusions regarding the empirical study aims</b>	<b>303</b>
6.1.2.1	<i>Research aim 1: To investigate the nature of the statistical inter-correlational relationships between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations,</i>	



	<i>and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning), as manifested in a sample of participants employed in the SANDF.</i>	304
6.1.2.2	<i>The second aim: To empirically assess whether the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) attributes significantly predict the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).</i>	307
6.1.2.3	<i>The third aim: Based on the overall statistical relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning), assess the fit between the elements of the empirically-manifested structural model and the theoretically-hypothesised profile.</i>	309
6.1.2.4	<i>The fourth aim: To assess whether biographical variables (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) significantly moderate the relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).</i>	311
6.1.2.5	<i>The fifth aim: To assess whether any significant differences exist between the sub-groups of biographical variables (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) that acted as significant moderators between the dispositional attributes and the flourishing attribute</i>	312
6.1.2.6	<i>The sixth aim: To formulate recommendations for the psychological well-being and flourishing practices. And, also propose practical interventions for industrial and organisational psychology, psychological well-being, health and well-being practices, and future research.</i>	314
<b>6.1.3</b>	<b>Conclusions relating to the central hypothesis</b>	<b>314</b>
<b>6.1.4</b>	<b>Conclusions relating to the field of industrial psychology</b>	<b>314</b>
6.1.4.1	<i>Conclusions in terms of the literature review</i>	314
6.1.4.2	<i>Conclusions in terms of the empirical study</i>	315
6.1.4.3	<i>Conclusions regarding the field of industrial and organisational psychology</i>	316
<b>6.2</b>	<b>LIMITATIONS</b>	<b>316</b>
<b>6.2.1</b>	<b>Limitations of the literature review</b>	<b>317</b>
<b>6.2.2</b>	<b>Limitations of the empirical study</b>	<b>317</b>
<b>6.3</b>	<b>ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS</b>	<b>318</b>
<b>6.4</b>	<b>RECOMMENDATIONS</b>	<b>319</b>

<b>6.4.1</b>	<b>Recommendations for the field of industrial psychology</b>	<b>319</b>
<b>6.4.2</b>	<b>Recommendations for future research</b>	<b>328</b>
<b>6.5</b>	<b>EVALUATION OF THE STUDY</b>	<b>328</b>
<b>6.5.1</b>	<b>Value added on a theoretical level</b>	<b>329</b>
<b>6.5.2</b>	<b>Value added on an empirical level</b>	<b>329</b>
<b>6.5.3</b>	<b>Value added on a practical level</b>	<b>330</b>
<b>6.6</b>	<b>REFLECTION ON DOCTORATENESS AND CONCLUSION</b>	<b>330</b>
<b>6.7</b>	<b>CHAPTER SUMMARY</b>	<b>331</b>
	<b>REFERENCES</b>	<b>333</b>
	<b>APPENDIX A</b>	<b>356</b>
	<b>APPENDIX B</b>	<b>357</b>

### LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1	<i>Overview of the Core Constructs</i>	26
Table 1.2	<i>Summary of the Research Aims, Research Hypotheses, and Applicable Statistical Procedure</i>	41
Table 2.1	<i>Elements of Psychological Well-being</i>	55
Table 2.2	<i>Defining Psychological Well-being</i>	63
Table 2.3	<i>Summary of Dispositional Attributes Constructs</i>	74
Table 2.4	<i>An Overview of Career Anchors</i>	87
Table 2.5	<i>Three Groupings of Career Anchors</i>	89
Table 2.6	<i>Summary of the Demographic Variables Affecting Dispositional Attributes</i>	98
Table 2.7	<i>Psychological Well-being Profile Integrating Emotional Affect, Career Orientations, and Organisational Commitment</i>	110
Table 2.8	<i>An Overview of Age, Race, Gender, Years of Service, and Rank on Emotional Affect, Career Orientations, and Organisational Commitment</i>	116
Table 3.1	<i>Summary of flourishing attribute definitions</i>	127
Table 3.2	<i>Summary of the Flourishing Biographical Variables</i>	133
Table 4.1	<i>An Overview of the Sample Size</i>	160
Table 4.2	<i>An Overview of the Age Distribution Sample Size</i>	161
Table 4.3	<i>Race Distribution of the Sample</i>	162
Table 4.4	<i>Gender Distribution of the Sample</i>	163
Table 4.5	<i>Years of Service distribution of the Sample</i>	164

Table 4.6	<i>Rank Distribution of the Sample</i>	165
Table 4.7	<i>Summary of the Empirical Research Hypotheses</i>	176
Table 4.8	<i>Different Levels of Statistical Significance</i>	189
Table 5.1	<i>Testing for Common Method Variance: One Factor Solutions</i>	196
Table 5.2	<i>Confirmatory Factor Analyses: Construct Validity</i>	198
Table 5.3	<i>Summary of the Rasch Statistics for SPANE</i>	200
Table 5.4	<i>Summary of Rasch Statistics for COI</i>	201
Table 5.5	<i>Summary of the Rasch Statistics for OCS</i>	203
Table 5.6	<i>Summary of the Rasch Statistics for FS</i>	204
Table 5.7	<i>Summary of the Mean Scores, Standard Deviation, Skewness, and the Kurtosis of the Scales</i>	205
Table 5.8	<i>Summary of the Bivariate Correlations between Emotional Affect, Career Orientations, and Organisational Commitment, Flourishing, and Biographical Information</i>	208
Table 5.9	<i>Summary of the Bivariate Correlations between the Dispositional Attributes and Flourishing Attributes.</i>	212
Table 5.10	<i>Multiple Regression Results: Dispositional attributes as a predictor of flourishing</i>	215
Table 5.11	<i>Structural Equation Modelling Results: Model Fit Statistics</i>	216
Table 5.12	<i>Standardised Path Coefficients for the Hypothesised Structural Equation Model</i>	217
Table 5.13	<i>Summary: Final Model of Dispositional Attributes that Acted as Significant Predictors of Flourishing (Positive Psychological Functioning)</i>	217
Table 5.14	<i>Preliminary Analysis 1: Elements of the Empirically Manifested Psychological Well-being Profile</i>	221
Table 5.15	<i>Interaction (Moderating) Effect between Age and Career Orientation Autonomy in Predicting Flourishing</i>	223
Table 5.16	<i>Interaction (Moderating) Effect between Race and Career Orientations Autonomy in Predicting Flourishing</i>	225
Table 5.17	<i>Interaction (Moderating) Effect between Race and Career Orientations Security/Stability (SE) in Predicting Flourishing</i>	227
Table 5.18	<i>Interaction (Moderating) Effect between Race and Career Orientations Entrepreneurial Creativity (EC) in Predicting Flourishing</i>	228
Table 5.19	<i>Interaction (Moderating) Effect between Race and Career Orientations Service/Dedication to a Cause (SV) in Predicting Flourishing</i>	230

Table 5.20	<i>Interaction (Moderating) Effect between Race and Career Orientations CH in Predicting Flourishing</i>	232
Table 5.21	<i>Interaction (Moderating) Effect between Race and Career Orientations Life Style (LS) in Predicting Flourishing</i>	233
Table 5.22	<i>Interaction (Moderating) Effect between Race and Career Orientations in Predicting Flourishing</i>	235
Table 5.23	<i>Interaction (Moderating) Effect between Race and Organisational Commitment Factor of Affective in Predicting Flourishing</i>	236
Table 5.24	<i>Interaction (Moderating) Effect between Race and Organisational Commitment Factor of Continuance in Predicting Flourishing</i>	238
Table 5.25	<i>Interaction (Moderating) Effect between Race and Organisational Commitment Factor in Predicting Flourishing</i>	240
Table 5.26	<i>Interaction (Moderating) Effect between Gender and Career Orientations General Managerial (GM) in Predicting Flourishing</i>	242
Table 5.27	<i>Interaction (Moderating) Effect between Years of Service and Career Orientation Autonomy in Predicting Flourishing</i>	243
Table 5.28	<i>Interaction (Moderating) Effect between Years of Service and Organisational Commitment Affective in Predicting Flourishing</i>	246
Table 5.29	<i>Summary of the Significant Moderating Effects Between the Dispositional Attributes and Flourishing Attribute that Acted as Significant Moderators</i>	249
Table 5.30	<i>Results of the Kruskal-wallis Test for Age: Dispositional Attributes and Flourishing</i>	251
Table 5.31	<i>Results of the Kruskal-Wallis Test for Race: Dispositional Attributes and Flourishing</i>	255
Table 5.32	<i>Results of the Kruskal-Wallis Test for Gender: Dispositional Attributes and Flourishing</i>	259
Table 5.33	<i>Empirically Manifested Psychological Well-being Profile Constituting Dispositional Attributes and Flourishing Attribute</i>	276
Table 5.34	<i>Summary of Decisions Regarding the Research Hypothesis</i>	284
Table 6.1	<i>Summary of Recommended Interventions</i>	321

## **LIST OF FIGURES**

<i>Figure 1.1</i>	The relationship between the research variables	30
<i>Figure 1.2</i>	Overview of the research process	33
<i>Figure 2.1</i>	Dimensions of psychological well-being	53

<i>Figure 2.2</i>	Effects of psychological well-being	57
<i>Figure 2.3</i>	Description of positive and negative emotional affect	66
<i>Figure 2.4</i>	Watson et al. (1988) positive and negative activation model	84
<i>Figure 2.5</i>	Schein (1978; 1990) eight career anchors	87
<i>Figure 2.6</i>	Depiction of the three organisational commitments valences	91
<i>Figure 2.7</i>	Integration of dispositional attributes and psychological well-being attributes	101
<i>Figure 2.8</i>	Hypothesised psychological well-being profile for junior leaders	113
<i>Figure 3.1</i>	Seligman's (2011) PERMA five components model	129
<i>Figure 3.2</i>	Illustration of the integration of flourishing into psychological well-being dimensions	136
<i>Figure 3.3</i>	Hypothesised psychological well-being profile for junior leaders	147
<i>Figure 4.1</i>	Age distribution of the sample (N= 458)	160
<i>Figure 4.2</i>	Race group distribution of the sample (N= 458)	162
<i>Figure 4.3</i>	Sample distribution by gender (N= 458)	163
<i>Figure 4.4</i>	Sample distribution by years of services (N= 458)	164
<i>Figure 4.5</i>	Sample distribution by rank group (N= 458)	165
<i>Figure 4.6</i>	Three major statistical analysis stages	178
<i>Figure 5.1</i>	Final empirical model: Standardised path coefficients	219
<i>Figure 5.2</i>	A two-way interaction effects for a binary moderator. Age as a moderator between Autonomy and flourishing.	224
<i>Figure 5.3</i>	A two-way interaction effects for a binary moderator. Race as a Moderator between Autonomy and Flourishing.	226
<i>Figure 5.4</i>	A two-way interaction effects for a binary moderator. Race as a moderator between <i>Security/Stability (SE)</i> and flourishing.	228
<i>Figure 5.5</i>	A two-way interaction effects for a binary moderator. Race as a Moderator between Entrepreneurial Creativity (EC) and flourishing.	230
<i>Figure 5.6</i>	A two-way interaction effects for a binary moderator. Race as a moderator between Service/Dedication to a cause (SV) and Flourishing.	232
<i>Figure 5.7</i>	A two-way interaction effects for a binary moderator: Race as a moderator between Life Style (LS) and flourishing.	235
<i>Figure 5.8</i>	A two-way interaction effects for a binary moderator. Race as a moderator between the Organisational Commitment Variable factor of Affective and flourishing.	238
<i>Figure 5.9</i>	A two-way interaction effects for a binary moderator. Race as a moderator between the Organisational Commitment Variable factor of Affective and Flourishing.	240

<i>Figure 5.10</i>	A two-way interaction effects for a binary moderator. Race as a moderator between the Career Orientation construct variable of General Management and flourishing.	243
<i>Figure 5.11</i>	A two-way interaction effects for a binary moderator. Years of Service as a moderator between the Career Orientation construct variable of Autonomy and flourishing.	246
<i>Figure 5.12</i>	A two-way interaction effects for a binary moderator. Years of Service as a moderator between the Organisational Commitment variable factor of Affective Commitment and flourishing.	248
<i>Figure 5.13</i>	Kruskall-wallis Test for the Effect of Age on Positive Affect and Flourishing	253
<i>Figure 5.14</i>	Kruskall-wallis Test for the Effect of Age on Negative Affect and Flourishing	253
<i>Figure 5.15</i>	Kruskall-wallis Test for the Effect of Age on Career Orientations and Flourishing	254
<i>Figure 5.16</i>	Kruskall-wallis Test for the Effect of Age on Organisational Commitment and Flourishing	254
<i>Figure 5.17</i>	Kruskall-wallis Test for the Effect of Age and Flourishing	255
<i>Figure 5.18</i>	Kruskall-wallis Test for the Effect of Race on Positive Affect and Flourishing	256
<i>Figure 5.19</i>	Kruskall-wallis Test for the Effect of Race on Negative Affect and Flourishing	257
<i>Figure 5.20</i>	Kruskall-wallis Test for the Effect of Race on Career Orientations and Flourishing	257
<i>Figure 5.21</i>	Kruskall-wallis Test for the Effect of Race on Organisational Commitment and Flourishing	258
<i>Figure 5.22</i>	Kruskall-wallis Test for the Effect of Race on Flourishing	258
<i>Figure 5.23</i>	Empirically Manifested Psychological Career Profile	283
<i>Figure 6.1</i>	Overview of the Dispositional Interventions	320

## **CHAPTER 1: SCIENTIFIC ORIENTATION FOR THE RESEARCH**

This research is contextualised as the construction of a psychological well-being profile for junior leaders in the South African National Defence Force (SANDF) environment. The constructs relevant to this study were emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment, regarded as psychological dispositional attributes, and flourishing, which indicates a pattern of positive psychological functioning. This chapter outlined the background of and motivation for the research which resulted in the formulation of the problem statement and the research hypothesis. Subsequently, it outlined the research questions, the aims, and the relevant paradigm perspective which guided the limitations for the study. Furthermore, the research design, methodology, and different steps which direct the research were described. Finally, the manner in which the chapters are presented were outlined.

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

The research has been grounded within the career and personnel psychology fields and in the South African Public Service national security organisation of the South African National Defence Force (SANDF). In this context, the study investigated the relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes of (1) emotional affect, (2) career orientations, (3) organisational commitment, and (4) flourishing (positive psychological attribute) of junior leaders. The study also analysed the constructs relating to the biographical characteristics (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) that resulted in the development of a well-rounded psychological well-being profile for junior leaders. This set of constructs contributes immensely to the positive psychology field, individual health and well-being levels, and personal resources which enhance healthy behaviour and positive mental functioning (Seligman, 2011; 2015; Hu, Xiao, Peng, Kuang, & He, 2018; Schotanus-Dijkstra, Drossaert, & Bohlmeijer, 2019).

This study elucidated the challenges facing junior leaders in terms of their psychological well-being in the different organisations. In this regard, a hypothesised psychological well-being study that contributes to the health and well-being of personnel was envisaged. An investigation into the dispositional attributes and positive mental functioning attributes that contribute to the psychological well-being of junior leaders in the changing nature of military operations around the globe is crucial for preserving members' health and their psychological well-being (Yildirim & Alanazi, 2018). Briefly, the complex nature of junior

leaders' positive feelings and positive psychological functioning, their career, and psychological well-being challenges are vital, because junior leaders execute directive mandate, and apply strategy and tactics for proper implementation of interventions (World Health Organization (WHO), 2017; 2019). Furthermore, these leaders are expected to remain healthy and to develop themselves in the assigned area of their responsibilities. The Department of Defence (DOD) is unique in that it consists of South African National Defence Force (SANDF) uniform members, appointed in terms of the Defence Act (2002), to perform military combat operations and other related activities, and employees appointed in terms of the Public Service Act (1994; 1999) as Public Service Act Personnel (PSAP), to oversee policy formulation, administration, and execution, while also leading subordinates.

The Military has been contextualised as an environment where uniform members and PSAP perform their duties and functions in support of the department's mandate (Constitution, 1996; Defence Act, 2002; Public Service Act, 1994; 1999; Military Veterans Act, 2011). Largely, military organisations all over the world are hierarchically structured by rank insignia levels, accompanied by responsibilities. These ranks are made up of junior and senior officers at different levels. The DOD also shares this military doctrine with the United Kingdom (British MoD, 1993) and United States of America (US MoD) military structure and doctrine. In other countries, the uniform members are the majority group and, as such, are responsible for administration and combat functions, whereas in South Africa there has been an influx of PSAP who perform most of the administration support and policy execution functions. This integrated approach, if not handled well, may result in overlapping, over- or under-commitment in responsibilities, and inefficiencies. As the department mandate remains extended to the veterans' department (Military Veterans Act, 2011), the volume of the department's human resources management, specifically in terms of development functions, increased.

Chiefly, the Republic of South Africa (RSA) Constitution chapter 10(a) requires that in all the public service institutions; *"a high standard of professional ethics should be promoted and maintained"*; 10(h) that *"good human resource management and career development practices to maximize human potential must be cultivated"*. To add more pressure, the National Development Plan (NDP) (2009) envisages *"a capable and competitive base of human resources that is skilled, technical, and professionally able to responds to the needs of the people"*. The above aspects are complex to manage and are relevant to the psychological well-being and flourishing of many junior leaders. Overall, junior leaders' career development is being singled out as the area of concern in the public services by the NDP 2030 and the National School of Governance report (NSG) (NDP, 2009; NSG, 2013).



Therefore, in every effort, personnel's health and their career development are of paramount importance to be able to realise these goals. For decades, junior leaders have been overwhelmed by the responsibility of supporting the seniors while guiding subordinates and also considering their personal and career developments. Currently, many junior leaders are functioning as middle layers that support senior leaders' strategic plans and also guide lower-level subordinates to execute their day-to-day activities. According to the Department of Public Service and Administration (DPSA) salary and benefits prescript, 1999, junior leaders would be personnel ranging from salary level 6 to 11. These are military rankings of officers which may range from Sergeant (Sgt) to Major (Maj) or Lieutenant Colonel (Lt Col) in certain circumstances. The SANDF is made up of four arms of service (Army, Navy, Air Force, and Military Health Services (SAMHS)). Junior leaders are developed or appointed in these different arms of services and functions to support strategic objectives and foster implementation at the lowest levels.

This study did not make comparisons between Services or divisions or military doctrines and structures; instead, it specifically investigated the overall psychological well-being of junior leaders in the SANDF. While junior leaders in uniform undergo intensive military training to be able to command, communicate, instruct, supervise, lead, and execute given instructions, non-uniform personnel such as PSAP are also supposed to lead, communicate, supervise, manage resources, and possess certain supervisory and leadership abilities in order to execute delegated tasks. Therefore, their development would include the three (3) elements of: 1- building attributes (building of self-confidence, how to take initiative, devotion to duty, sense of honour and pride in uniform), 2- professional knowledge (how to command, administer, train, lead a battalion, lead an infantry or equivalent in operations independently), and 3- leadership qualities (building leadership qualities, command, command sergeant major, control, communication) (Herman, Trueman, Tremble, & Goodwin, 1993; Marx & Liebenberg, 2019).

According to Bakker and Schaufelli (2008) and Williamson and O'Hara (2017), leaders have a greater role to play in getting subordinates energetic, absorbed, dedicated, and thriving. Brenton and Kostal (2019) and Hu et al. (2018) draws attention to the idea that organisations should engage the body and soul of their employees and assist them to collaborate with others, take responsibilities for their own developments, and flourish. In this instance, Keller and Webber (2001) established that, in the military, it is important that institutions take care of their leaders' lives and ensure that their careers are administered smoothly. Subsequently, Boe (2017) holds a view that military institutions actually contain many high-

risk tasks and operations, and therefore many of the personnel serving in these institutions are exposed to high-risk functions that may result in health hazards and contribute to occupational stressors. Koldtz (2010) found that many military institutions were facing extremist situations and were very volatile. In support of Koldtz (2010) and Boe (2017) established that the Norwegian army is trained to handle the most difficult and complicated situations and tasks which may trigger stress and anxiety, and therefore it is important that personnel build on their current character and strength.

Generally, the military consists of a diverse collection of structures, divisions, roles, cultures, and people (Snider, & Watkins, 2002; Marx & Liebenberg, 2019). However, military relies on leaders and not managers to accomplish primary missions. In the United States of America (USA), military refers to people in uniform, full and part time, reserves, national guards, and departments of the army, maritime, and aerospace (Army, Navy, and Air Force). Further, US Army war colleges train future leaders to create vision, shape culture, and manage relationships with other services, manage stakeholders and society, and lead change (McGee, 1988). McGee and Cabs (1999) and Yildirim and Alanazi (2018) established that, apart from managing relationships, military leaders also need cognitive complexity when undergoing training to be able to apply strategies to manage complex operations that require their mental and character strength.

In current military settings, Boe (2017) and Niemiec (2018) showed that character strength is good for leadership and tends to contribute to resilience. Therefore, most soldiers need to build on their resilience to adapt well in the military environment (Myers & Diener, 2018). Character strength in the military includes discipline, behaviour, attitude, and actions that are in line with the command (Niemiec, 2018). Since character strength can be regarded as a contributor to the concept of well-being, it is believed that most military institutions will continue to infuse the issue of character strength as part of their military syllabus (Boe, 2017; Niemiec, 2018). It is important to consider that character strength increases positive thinking and emotional strength (Boe, 2017). Belamy and Williams (2010) revealed that most of the military doctrine harnessed character strength in their training and development programmes for leadership development.

Character strength requires that junior leaders have human capacity skills, technical skills, motivation to motivate others, and some educational background to be able to execute given responsibilities (Bozionelos & Singh, 2017; Williamson & O'Hara, 2017). Leaders need to manage organisational vision, create trust in their ability to lead, pay attention to the anxieties and developmental needs of followers, and help subordinates face old ways in a

positive way, and must also be able to excite, stimulate interest, and inspire subordinates to put extra efforts in place to achieve set goals (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Hu et al., 2018). However, many uniform personnel leaders who experience stress or related illnesses enjoy the services of a chaplain, social workers, or psychological services.

According to Williamson and O'Hara (2017), it is important to understand that the task associated with maintaining the leaders' well-being in the military is demanding. These tasks include conducting the training of trainees, engaging in physical fitness, assessing their mental ability, provision of legal assistance, and helping them to manage family concerns (Schotanus-Dijkstra et al., 2019). In addition, Wong (2011; 2017) postulated that junior leaders are expected to execute orders and simultaneously achieve high and demanding goals. Since the above tasks, responsibilities, and goals are demanding to junior leaders and may present less opportunities for them to exercise their own initiatives, addressing the issue of well-being will contribute a lot to their pending developmental issues (WHO, 2019; Yildirim & Belen, 2019).

In order to understand the concept of a junior leader, it is also important to understand the difference between commanding and leading and the impacts on individuals' health. Generally, commanding relies on getting people to do most things in the way the "commander" wants, through the use of power, coercion, and fear of punishment (Milan, Pavel, & Gustav, 2017; Williamson & O'Hara, 2017). It has been found that leading is more subtle, and relies on the ability to inspire people's behaviour towards required performance and desirable actions through reliance on trust, respect, confidence, inspiration, and common goals and vision (Milan et al., 2017). Particularly in today's society, many leaders cannot be regarded as commanders, because outside of the military power base, the relationships between leaders and their followers is based less on power and punishment, but more on the choices of the followers and building trust relationships (Van Dyk, 2009; Schotanus-Dijkstra et al., 2019). Many subordinates or followers who chose to follow a particular leader have more common intentions, and they do not react well to being given orders constantly (Wong, Bliese & McGurk, 2003; Maydeu-Olivares, 2017).

An important role that most leaders exhibit in organisations is creating relationships and task-management behaviours (Schotanus-Dijkstra et al., 2019). The relations behaviour management focus is on creating quality relationships, while task behaviour emphasises the kind of behaviour which is associated with how tasks are accomplished (Myers & Diener, 2018). The relations and task behaviour are important because they ignite certain emotional responses and may also influence the degree of attachment or commitment to an

organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1991). As Schutte and Wissing (2017) indicated, relationships formed in the organisation affect the degree of socialisations and may influence individuals' choice to either stay or leave. As stated by Bass (1990), most military organisations are in favour of task-oriented behaviour, instead of behaviour-oriented behaviour, which is generally associated with autocratic/authoritarian leadership. Penner, Malone, Coughlin, and Hertz (1973) found that in US Army commissioner and non-commissioner leadership training and subsequent high performance is related to leaders who displayed the authoritarian or autocratic behaviour.

According to House (1996), the element of officer leadership behaviour is becoming an important component in combating operations because many leaders nowadays embrace the concept of leaders' supportive (path-goal) behaviour, which insists on a friendly and supportive work environment. Smith (2002) stressed that stress is prevalent in many institutions. Yildirim and Alanazi (2018) concurs that both individuals and organisations experience excessive stress. Further, Smith (2002) stated that most of the individuals who are experienced high levels of stress tend to report poor health, are depressed, and are not satisfied. It was found that in China's and Taiwan's military, stress is a noticeable contributor to unwell-being when compared to the rest of the military institutions (Chang & Lu, 2007). Yildirim and Alanazi (2019) pointed out that the manner in which organisations organise their way of work, uniformity, and culture has an indirect influence on their stress levels.

Furthermore, Chang and Lu (2007) and Maydeu-Olivares (2017) indicated that, in fact, subordinates tend to be stressed by relationships with their leaders. Generally, military behaviour and relationships during wartimes differ somewhat from those during peaceful times, in that the principal difference is simply quantitative and not qualitative behavioural elements (Milan et al., 2017; Schutte & Wissing, 2017). According to Chen and Bliese (2002), Non-Commissioned Officers' (NCO) leadership behaviour contributed to low psychological strain (enhanced well-being) and, similarly, the study also indicated that more soldiers were reporting high levels of job-related efficiencies and enhanced well-being. However, Bartone, Snook, and Tremble's (2002) study showed that Canadian army officers have dominance, cognitive complexity, high energy drive, and internal locus of control, which indicates an enhanced well-being, but shortfall to address the impact of these officers' personality traits.

Personality is reported as a powerful psychological factor that can hinder or assist a leader in behaving in accordance with established military discipline and culture (Herman et al., 1993; Marx & Liebenberg, 2019). The individuals' personalities included aspects of self-

concept, ideas, attitudes, thoughts, values, and commitments that people hold about themselves (Strumpfer, 2006; Hu et al., 2018). Self-concept is regarded as an individual's overall self-evaluation (Bandura, 1982; Jacobs, 1987). In most instances, self-concept tends to help individuals re-shape their behaviour and personality because they are inclined to react to situations in line with their own self-evaluation indicators (Yildirim & Belen, 2018). In addition, Quinn (1988) emphasised that cognitive complex-shaped behaviour assisted many leaders to perform diverse roles and functions while responding to different personalities. However, the current study's emphasis was on the psychological well-being part of the leader and not personality structures as such. Hu et al. (2018) concurred with Avolio and Gardner (2005) and Sheldon, Corcoran and Prentice (2019) that most leaders are facing difficult and challenging tasks throughout the world, including building confidence in subordinates, restoring hope, building resilience, increasing optimisation, and bouncing back from stressful and catastrophic events.

The literature indicated that leaders also need social support mechanisms to enhance their well-being. According to Joshanloo (2017) and Chen, Chen, & Su (2018) social support is based on four characteristics, namely organisational loyalty, family-kin, social events, informal work obligations, and sub-group involvement. These facets provided individuals with insight into individual well-being (Yildirim & Belen, 2019). Generally, it can be concluded from the literature that, in the development of a junior leader profile, the following are necessary: command, communication, instruction, leading, and resource management (Chen et al., 2018). In addition, The WHO (2008; 2019) pointed out that mental impairments have been one of the causes of disabilities and contributors to mortality, suicidal tendencies, and workplace performance deficiencies worldwide. The passion for productivity and workplace relations has prompted management to develop tactics to increase positive organisational attributes and behaviour, while also maintaining cohesion and the well-being of their workers (Sheldon et al., 2019).

The construct of psychological well-being is explained by many authors under differing contexts. Furthermore, Hu et al. (2018) draws relations between well-being and positive organisation functioning, and postulates that positive organisational functioning is characterised by efficacy, self-esteem, optimism, and satisfaction elements, which are important to maintain the health and well-being of employees. Since psychological well-being has been defined and constructed in different ways, it is useful to study its relatedness to the junior leader profile and its contributions to the positive psychology field (Yildirim & Alanazi, 2018). Joshanloo (2017) and van Dierendonck, Haynes, Borrill, and Stride (2004) studies found a strong correlation between leadership and well-being.

According to Ryff (1989; 2018) and Ryff and Keyes (1995), psychological well-being consists of the six components of self-acceptance, personal growth, and purpose in life, environmental mastery, autonomy, and positive relations with others. Joshanloo (2017) contended that psychological well-being inculcates health, happiness, positive mental state, and character strength geared towards performance within the workplace. Zwotsloot and Pot (2004) and Yildirim and Belen (2018) postulated that, although psychological well-being is vital for overall mental health, it is also vital for organisational growth. Although research indicated that psychological well-being is a matter of personal health responsibility Wright (2003) and Gray (2018) cautioned that part of the challenge facing many organisations today is their ability to cater for their employees' and leaders' psychological well-being, wellness, and health. Furthermore, White (2017) contended that some of the careers chosen by the employees can become health hazards if they are not crafted or developed carefully with consideration to individuals' personal and life circumstances.

Psychological well-being is therefore regarded as an aggregate of individuals' total engagement with life and events that is expressed positively or negatively (Keyes, Shimotkin & Ryff, 2002; Joshanloo, 2017). Subsequently, psychological well-being comprises aspects of emotional response, happiness, and satisfaction (White 2017; Yildirim & Belen, 2019). Moreover, psychological well-being would include how junior leaders engage with their life challenges and how they manage their emotions effectively (Baumeister & Landau, 2018). Generally, psychological well-being indicates the stage at which a person quietly functions at an optimal and satisfactory level in relation to his or her emotional and behavioural adjustment (Patel & Prince, 2010; Yildirim & Belen, 2018; WHO, 2019). Rothman and Cooper, (2015) and Sheldon et al. (2019) hinted that poor psychological well-being can actually be a psychological symptom that may trigger constant mood swings, irritability, tiredness, poor health, and unhealthy life styles which may hamper positive functioning.

The literature indicated that psychological well-being can be regarded as a possible overall added advantage of health and mental stability in an individual's life in the absence of ill health (Cook & Geldenhuys, 2018; WHO, 2019). Since the study of salutogenesis advocates for healthy employees (Global Health Promotion, 2013), it forms an integral part of the current study in that it provides an opportunity to facilitate higher levels of optimism, positive health, and mental well-being, which contributes to an overall psychological well-being. Salutogenesis embraces aspects of manageability, meaningful life, and comprehensibility elements, and also emphasises creation-enhanced and improved physical, mental, and social well-being across the globe (Global Health Promotion, 2013).

Salutogenesis aims to assist people who may be sick and want to better improve their health, but also tries to avoid, manage, or overall eliminate unhealthy life styles (Becker, Glascoff, & Felts, 2010; Sheldon et al., 2019). Salutogenesis contributed immensely to a psychological well-being construct that emphasises salutogenesis' sense of coherence (SOC) model, which emphasises the prevention, treatment, and management of negative health, while increasing positive health and supplementing employee health and well-being (Yildirim & Belen, 2019). Generally, individuals who are free from physical and mental ill health are better placed to enhance their meaningful life and often secure employability (Bezuidenhout, 2010; Adams & Bloom, 2017). Becker et al. (2010) suggested that salutogenesis elements should form the basic foundation of health enhancement and well-being in the workplaces.

Importantly, the WHO (2008; 2019) embraced a healthy status as a complete state of positive well-being and an absence of pathological and ill health. Park, Peterson, and Seligman (2004; 2011; 2017) found that life satisfaction forms an important cognitive component of psychological well-being, and further embraces hope, zest, and gratitude, which enhances the absence of psychological and social life problems such as depression, stress, and anti-social behaviour. Subsequently, the junior leaders who showed optimistic, enthusiastic, and future-minded are likely to exhibit satisfaction in life and greater positivity towards their health and well-being (Yildirim & Belen, 2019).

According to Diener (2000) and Myers and Diener (2018), life satisfaction embraces well-being in that it tends to indicate a person's overall sense of self-appraisal and strength of character. Of the six (6) virtue character strengths (namely knowledge, courage, humanity, justice, temperance, and transcendence (Peterson & Seligman, 2004), courage and humanity fit best with the concept of well-being. According to Joshanloo (2017) and Peterson and Seligman (2004) while courage embraces emotional strength that assists individuals to exercise the will to accomplish set goals in face of setbacks or opposing elements, humanity is important in psychological well-being in that it stresses the interpersonal strength that individuals must possess to form relationships and befriend others in order to build on the aspect of self-concept (Seligman & Steen, 2005).

Biswas-Diener, Kashdan and Minhas (2011) pointed out that military leaders need character strength because it enhances their well-being. Niemac (2018), Peterson and Seligman (2004) further posit that the two character-strength criteria for an individual indicate the association between strength of character that individuals possess and well-being. These

two criteria are ubiquity and fulfilling. Ubiquity indicates that an individual is well recognised across different cultures, while fulfilling indicates greater satisfaction and happiness in life (Peterson & Seligman, 2004; Hu et al., 2018). Furthermore, Myers and Diener (2018) showed that authentic happiness contributes to well-being, in that individuals who are happy in life and at work reflect characteristics of well-being and health. Authentic happiness consists of three routes: (a) positive emotions and pleasure, (b) engagement, and (c) meaningful (Yildirim & Belen, 2018; 2019). Erlingsso and Brysiewicz (2017) cautioned that the effects of life changes can impact on individuals' well-being. Therefore, well-being demonstrates how an individual is feeling about their current situation in relation to their health and social and life aspirations (Baumeister & Landau, 2018). There are growing interests in research on health and well-being at work stations (Stratham & Chase, 2010; Wang, Wong, Yeh, & Wang, 2018).

Currently, there is no psychological well-being profile that facilitates joint psychological well-being and career flourishing for junior leaders. The research literature indicated that there is also a paucity of literature on the associations between the positive and negative emotional concentration (emotional affect) of junior leaders, their career orientations and organisational commitment attributes (psychological dispositional), and how they would flourish in life (positive psychological functioning). Overall, psychological well-being embraced the emotional states of positive and negative affect, happiness, and life satisfaction (Green, Goldman, & Salovey, 1993; Erlingsson & Brysiewicz, 2017). As part of positive health and well-being, emotional affect is expressed as a learnt attitude that is related to the feeling of liking or disliking something (such as an event or situation) in a particular way (Ivancevich, Konopaske, & Matteson, 2005; Joshanloo, 2017).

Myers and Diener (2018) indicated that, actually, emotions can actively reinforce optimal functioning in people. Positive emotions broaden individuals' attention, thinking, and actions; undo lingering negative emotions; fuel psychological resilience; and build consequential personal resources (Fredrickson, 2005; Hentschel, Eid, & Kutscher, 2017). Williamson and O'Hara (2017) draw parallel relations between positive emotions and character strength and report that character strength is a positive trait which allows leaders to enhance their well-being, as it has an element of positive affect and behaviour traits which are associated to well-being. Norman (2004) defined emotional affect as the emotive responses (positive responses or kind-hearted or -strenuous or setbacks) that pointed out to the possibility of earning social awareness and change in behaviour.



Emotional affect has been classified into positive or negative experience (Watson, Clark, & Tellegan, 1988; Bergh, 2014). Generally, positive emotions refer to the state of experiencing pleasure when an individual goes through an experience (Rothman & Cooper, 2015; Baumeister & Landau, 2018), while negative affect is reactionary and can be regarded as a feeling of regret and adverse experiences. Although Rasool and Botha (2011) argued that skills shortages have contributed to many junior leaders' career crises and have been seen as a major obstacle in most developments in the organisations, Sivanathan, Kara, Turner and Barling (2004) emphasised that negative affect towards many leaders has accounted for many occupational health crises, ineffective behaviour, and poor interpersonal relationships at workplaces.

Changes in the careers for the 21<sup>st</sup>-century world of work and economic turmoil have prompted organisations to think twice about how careers are organised and how to assist individuals to shape their career to suit their employment of choices (Coetzee, 2010; Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2012; Ariza-Montes, Molina-Sánchez, Ramirez-Sobrino, & Giorgi, 2018). Careers have become lateral, spiral, and have no more upward mobility (Ferreira, 2011; Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2012; White, 2017). Careers have become a nightmare to most leaders. In this study, junior leaders also need career orientations to nurture and to choose careers that are congruent with their life needs, aspirations, and ability to nurture others (Hefferon, Ashfield, Waters, & Synard, 2017).

Career orientations are commonly defined as patterns of self-perceived talents, abilities, basic values, and ever-changing motives and needs (Schein, 1990; 1996). Schein (1990; 1996) and Feldmann and Bolini (2007) elaborated that career orientations consist of eight (8) career anchors: autonomy or independence; technical or functional; general managerial; entrepreneurial or creative; lifestyle; pure challenge; service or dedication to a cause; and security or stability. Career orientations can also assist junior leaders to make career choices, balance their personal and leadership developments, and also indicate what sort of development they need, and the types of roles they aspire or which suit them (Hefferon et al., 2017). Furthermore, a leader can assist subordinates to choose and map their careers in line with their aspirations and organisational need (Myers & Diener, 2018).

These eight career orientations/anchors are explored further in the following chapter. Allen and Meyer (1990) and Baumeister and Landau (2018) stated that organisations are struggling to find ways to keep their employees attached to them. Organisational commitment has become more than just employees' productivity and salaries. Over the

decades, leaders have struggled to find concrete ways keep employees attached to their organisation. Organisational commitment is, therefore, coined as the manner in which junior leaders indicate an emotional indenture or moral obligation to the organisation (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Wiener, 1982; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Van der Walt, 2018). Organisational commitment consists of three (3) distinctive dimensions: (i) Affective Commitment (AC). Affective commitment is the desire of an individual to belong, connect, and take part in an organisation's structure; (ii) Continuance commitment (CC). The continuance commitment is the aggregate cost and the consequence attached to the decision of disengagement from the department. (iii) Normative commitment (NC). Normative commitment is the feeling of obligation and the sense of indebtedness of an individual towards an organisation or department.

Breitsohl and Ruhle (2016) stressed that commitment indicates the belief that a person holds that is true, that has value, and that is personally important to him/her. According to Ryff (2018) and Yamaguchi (2013) individuals with a high level of organisational commitment display positivity towards organisational goals and a strong sense of belonging. White (2017) argued that, in many instances, leaders' conscious and unconscious experiences would significantly affect their level of commitment to the organisation. Organisational commitment is explored further in the following chapter. Baumeister and Landau (2018) stated that organisations should find ways to assist individuals in taking charge of their career behaviour, increase their psychological capital, and find ways to flourish in their life.

Flourishing has emerged from the positive psychology field with the aim to enhance individuals' positive outlook about the future and life in general (Seligman, 2011; Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Ariza-Montes et al., 2018). In the current study, flourishing is coined as a positive psychological function (Seligman, 2011; Yildirim & Belen, 2019). Keyes (2007) demarcated flourishing as a pattern of positive feelings and positive psychological functioning in life. Flourishing consists of positive emotions, engagement, relationships, meaning, and accomplishment attributes. Positive emotions refer to individuals experiencing pleasure through positive affect; engagement is the knowing of one's signature strength in re-crafting life at work, in love, in leisure, in parenting, and in friendship; meaning and purpose exist when individuals know what their highest strength and talents are; accomplishment is the pursuit of success, winning, achievement, and personal mastery; and positive relationships refers to warm, satisfying, and trusting relationships with others (Ariza-Montes et al., 2018; Yildirim & Belen, 2018).

According to Keyes (2007) and Hu et al. (2018) flourishing is a syndrome of well-being which combines feeling good (emotional well-being) with positive functioning (psychological and social well-being). As part of a mental health continuum, Seligman (2011) and Diener and Myers (2018) postulated further that psychological well-being and flourishing are related and seem to inculcate an individual's good mental health and positive psychological state. The concept of flourishing is explored in the following chapter. In the current study, emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment are viewed as a set of psychological dispositional attributes, while flourishing is viewed as a positive psychological functioning attribute.

The study elaborated on biographical variables' (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) significant influence on individuals' emotional affect and career orientations. According to Courtier (2015) and WHO (2019), there is reluctance by graduate and young new recruits to start their career as junior leaders. Chen and Bliese (2002) found that non-commissioned officers (NCO) in the Military structures are able to manage their psychological well-being better and reported lower psychological strains than officers. Against this background, there is a paucity of literature on the overall influence of biographical variables (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) in relation to the variables of emotional affect, career orientation, organisational commitment, and flourishing.

In relation to the above literature, it appears that the constructs of psychological dispositional attributes of emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment, and the construct of positive psychological function of flourishing were essential to the study of junior leaders. Exploring the relationships between these constructs has helped to construct a psychological well-being profile of junior leaders, which informs their well-being. Based on the review of the literature, the following research hypotheses were formulated:

Ha1 There is a statistically-significant positive inter-correlation between the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning) that constitutes an overall psychological well-being profile.

Ha2 The (independent variables) dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) significantly predict the (dependable variable) flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).

Ha3 The theoretically conceptualised psychological well-being profile has a good fit with the empirically manifested structural equational model.

Ha4 Biographical information of age, race, gender, years of service, and rank moderates the relationship between the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).

Ha5 There are significant differences between sub-groups in terms of the biographical information, which acted as significant moderators between the independent dispositional attributes and the dependent flourishing attribute.

## **1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

Considering the background, it is apparent that there was paucity of research in terms of junior leaders' psychological well-being and their flourishing in general. The common problem highlighted is that there is no common explanation for what constitutes a healthy and well-adjusted junior leader throughout the military doctrines. Another problem is that the literature indicated that people's psychological well-being in leading positions has not been conceptualised in a single model or profile that informs future research. The current study hypothetically and empirically investigated the relationship between emotional affect, career orientations, and organisation commitment (which is regarded as a set of psychological dispositional attributes) and the flourishing attribute (which is regarded as positive psychological functioning), which informed a well-rounded psychological well-being profile for junior leaders.

Overall, since psychological well-being is regarded as a an aspect of positive psychology that contributes to the overall well-being and healthy environments (Bala, 2014; Krippendorff, (2019), it therefore stand to reason that flourishing tends to lead to a positive psychological state characterised by positive emotions, engagement, positive relations, meaning, and accomplishment with positive work or life results (Seligman, 2011; Hu et al., 2018; WHO, 2019). These constructs are part of positive psychology, which aims to enhance positive, healthy, and optimal utilisation of people (Seligman, 2011). Therefore, it was envisaged that empirical exploration of this association could assist to construct a psychological well-being profile for junior leaders. Junior leaders were seen as an important cornerstone of organisational and individual flourishing. Importantly, Boki and Talib (2009) and

Krippendorff, (2019) emphasised that, since work is central to people's lives, health, and satisfaction, low job satisfaction may indicate certain counterproductive behaviour that could affect individuals' health and well-being.

Another unearthed problem was that most of the junior leaders' psychological well-being has not been seriously considered, while in most instances junior leaders were either placed or appointed in obscured positions, while others experience stress, dissonance, conflicting emotions, and disillusionment, and were unable to commit fully to the operations of the current organisation (Gray, 2018; Ryff, 2018). The relationship between the psychological dispositional and positive psychological functioning attributes in a single study in respect to junior leaders has not yet been fully investigated. The current research can be regarded as original and warranted further investigation, and has contributed to the positive psychology literature. Furthermore, the current literature clearly clarified the relationship that can be found between the variables of emotional affect (positive and negative emotional disposition), career orientations (career anchors), organisational commitment (psychological dispositional attributes), and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning). In this context, junior leaders require these attributes to be able to flourish, manage their own and other personnel's well-being, and function healthily and optimally in the SANDF. The above problem statement led to the overall research question that the study aimed to answer, which was:

What are the relationships between junior leaders' psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning), and can an overall psychological well-being profile be developed based on these attributes to inform junior leaders' psychological well-being and career orientations practices in the SANDF?

In relation to the problem statement and the overall research question of the current study, the following research questions were formulated in terms of specific literature and empirical questions:

### **1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

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

Considering the above literature review, the following specific research questions were addressed:

Research question 1: How does the literature conceptualise psychological well-being for junior leaders in relation to emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment, and flourishing attributes?

Research question 2: How are the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and flourishing attributes (positive psychological functioning) conceptualised and explained by theoretical models in the literature?

Research question 3: Can a conceptual psychological well-being profile for junior leaders be proposed based on the theoretical relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute?

Research question 4: How do biographical characteristics influence the development of the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attributes, and the experiences/perceptions of flourishing?

Research question 5: What are the implications of a psychological well-being profile for junior leaders within the SANDF department?

Research question 6: What recommendations can be formulated for industrial and organisational psychology and career practices and what suggestions can be made for future research?

### **1.3.2 Research questions in respect of empirical study**

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

Research question 1: What is the nature of the statistical inter-correlational relationships between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning) as manifested in a sample of respondents employed in the SANDF?

Research question 2: Do the variables of the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) significantly predict the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning)?

Research question 3: Based on the overall statistical relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attributes (positive psychological functioning), is there a good fit between the elements of the empirically researched and the theoretically hypothesised profile?

Research question 4: Do the biographical variables (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) significantly moderate the relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes and the flourishing attribute?

Research question 5: Do significant differences exist between the sub-groups of biographical variables that acted as significant moderators between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attributes?

Research question 6: What recommendations were formulated for psychological well-being and flourishing practices? And what practical interventions were suggested for industrial and organisational psychology, psychological well-being, health and well-being practices, and future research?

## **1.4 RESEARCH AIMS**

The following research aims were formulated:

### **1.4.1 General aim**

The general aim of the current study was to determine the relationship between junior leaders' emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment (psychological dispositional attributes), and flourishing attributes (positive psychological functioning), and whether an overall psychological well-being profile can be developed to inform junior leaders' psychological well-being. The study also aimed to determine if the biographical characteristics (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank level) for junior leaders

significantly moderated the relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes and the flourishing attribute.

#### **1.4.2 Specific aims of the research**

The following specific aims were formulated for the literature and the empirical study:

##### *1.4.2.1 Specific aims related to literature*

Research aim 1: To conceptualise psychological well-being for junior leaders in relation to emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment, and flourishing attributes in the military environment.

Research aim 2: To conceptualise the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and flourishing attributes (positive psychological functioning) by means of theoretical models in the literature.

Research aim 3: To propose a conceptual psychological well-being profile for junior leaders, based on the theoretical relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute, which may be used to inform psychological well-being practices?

Research aim 4: To evaluate how biographical characteristics influence the development of the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).

Research aim 5: To critically evaluate the implications of a psychological well-being profile of junior leaders within the SANDF.

Research aim 6: To formulate recommendations for industrial and organisational psychology and career practices and suggestions for future research.

##### *1.4.2.2 Specific aims related to empirical study*

In terms of the empirical study, the following empirical research aims were addressed:



Research aim 1: To investigate the nature of the statistical inter-correlational relationships between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning), as manifested in a sample of participants employed in the SANDF (This research aim was related to testing research hypothesis Ha1).

Research aim 2: To assess whether the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) significantly predicted the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning) (This research aim was related to testing research hypothesis Ha2).

Research aim 3: Based on the overall statistical relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning), assess the fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model (This research aim was related to testing research hypothesis Ha3).

Research aim 4: To assess whether biographical variables (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) significantly moderate the relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning) (This research aim was related to testing research hypotheses Ha4 and Ha5).

Research aim 5: To empirically investigate whether significant differences exist between the sub-groups of the biographical variables that acted as significant moderators between the independent dispositional attributes and the dependent flourishing attribute (This research aim was related to testing research hypothesis Ha5).

Research aim 6: To formulate recommendations for psychological well-being and flourishing practices. Additionally, to propose practical interventions for industrial and organisational psychology, psychological well-being, health and well-being practices, and future research.

## **1.5 STATEMENT OF SIGNIFICANCE**

Various studies were conducted, separated on the current constructs of emotional affect, career orientations/anchors, organisational commitment, and flourishing. There seemed to be a complex and underlying problem when contextualising the concept of psychological

well-being by various studies. Currently, there was also the challenge of developing a psychological well-being profile that addresses the flourishing of junior leaders in the SANDF.

To date, no studies have been conducted to determine the relationship between these four constructs and their biographical variables, and how these constructs are related to each other within the military environment. Therefore, the study was regarded as original. The roles of emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment, and flourishing in enhancing healthy behaviour, ultimately addressing performance behaviour, seem to be varied and complex and need attention. However, to date there was no profile in the SANDF that addresses the psychological well-being and flourishing of junior leaders with the association of the current constructs, and therefore the study aimed to fill this gap.

This research originally aimed to investigate a relationship between emotional affect (as defined by (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1998; Diener, Wirtz, Tov, Kim-Prieto, Choi, Oishi, & Biswas-Diener, 2010), career orientations (as defined by Schein, 1990), organisational commitment (as defined by Allen & Meyer, 1991), and flourishing (as defined by Diener et al., 2010; Seligman, 2011), and how these variables manifest themselves in the SANDF environment. It was envisaged that the current study could be of particular importance and relevance in filling the existing literature gap, and possibly offering a solution to the problem of junior leader's way and means of flourishing, and the development of a psychological well-being profile for these junior leaders.

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

The study was useful in identifying the relationship between the constructs of emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment (dispositional) attributes and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning). The findings were useful in developing a psychological well-being profile that was empirically tested. Furthermore, by exploring how biographical variables influenced the dispositional attributes and positive psychological functioning attribute, an understanding of how the hypothesised psychological well-being fits in a multi-cultural environment was gained.

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

The study contributed to the development of a psychological well-being profile aimed at junior leaders, which informed flourishing and well-being practices. The study added value to

the problem of junior leaders' psychological well-being and their flourishing challenges. The study pointed out how individuals from different backgrounds differed in relation to their age, race, gender, years of service, rank, emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment (dispositional) attributes, and flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).

### **1.5.3 Potential practical contribution to industrial and organisational psychology**

Since the research was regarded as original, on a practical level the study added value to the field of industrial and organisational psychology and human development practices. Positive results from the proposed study raised awareness of the flourishing and psychological well-being practices for junior leaders, and indicated how these junior leaders differed in relation to their biographical information (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank).

## **1.6 RESEARCH MODEL**

A research model is necessary to guide the study in particular parameters (Scotland, 2012; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; 2015). The research model consists of three subsystems that are interrelated to each other with a specific research domain (Industrial and Organisational Psychology) (Saidi & Siew, 2019). The three subsystems consist of the intellectual climate, the market of intellectual resources, and the research process (Saidi & Siew, 2019). The postulation of the current research model was that it followed to the social research processes. Social science dictates that a social reality is studied objectively with the aim of acquiring knowledge (Marc, 2011; Scotland, 2012).

According to Scotland (2012), the research model consisted of five dimensions arranged in a systematic research process framework: sociological, ontological, teleological, epistemological, and methodological dimensions. The sociological dimension is termed as the conformity to the requirements of sociological research ethics. Ontological dimension involves what is being scrutinised in certainty. Teleological dimension entail that research should be organised and be objective. The epistemological dimension means the pursuit for reality, and the methodological dimension entails understanding the nature of social and scientific research sciences.

## 1.7 PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE

Research was conducted within a specific paradigm (Mouton & Marais, 1990). Moreover, the research was contextualised within the meta-theoretical and discipline to which it belongs (Mouton & Marais, 1990; Scotland, 2012; Saidi & Siew, 2019). A paradigm is regarded as an assumption by which the researcher understanding the apparent principles of reality (Maree, 2009; Dahlke & Wiernik, 2018). The present study was conducted within the field of industrial and organisational psychology.

### 1.7.1 Intellectual climate

The literature review was presented from the perspective of humanistic-existential, and the empirical study from the positivist research paradigm, as explained below.

#### 1.7.1.1 *Humanistic-existential paradigm*

The humanistic-existential paradigm was related to this study in that people possess have ability and are willing to to choose their career orientations, then flourish and move within respective careers (Cilliers & May, 2010; Seligman, 2011; Taneva & Arnold, 2018). Humanistic-existential psychology is distinguished from other theoretical paradigms because it is regarded as junior leader's personal life experience and the ways in which they shape their health in relation to to how they understood the world as meaningful to them (Cilliers & May, 2010; Krippendorff, 2019). Cilliers (2000) and Garrison (2001) further indicated that the humanistic-existential paradigm subscribes to the following principles:

- “People are seen as more than the sum of their parts and can be studied as a whole;
- Individuals are principally good and should be seen as dignified beings;
- People exist in a human context and form the basis of human identity;
- Individuals act in self-awareness, where they have ongoing growth whilst realising their own true potential;
- People have freedom and responsibility to make choices and live purposefully”.

### 1.7.1.2 *Positivist research paradigm*

The positivist research approach is grounded on the objective stance and is aimed at explaining the laws and mechanisms that operate within the society (Terre-Blanche & Durrheim, 2002). In the current study, the empirical study was applied in relation to the positivist study (Gray, 2014; 2018). Maxwell (2013) stressed that the objective of the positivist approach is based on the independence of the researcher and the knowledge that is unearthed and confirmed by observing or by measuring the occurrences.

Krause (2005) and Erlingsson and Brysiewicz (2017) stated that positivist epistemology science is viewed as the manner in which reality is discovered and understood well, and by which it can be predicted and manipulated and. In science, positivism prevails and undertaking is that science measure independent facts about a single reality under study (Healy & Perry, 2000; Scotland, 2012; Erlingsson & Brysiewicz, 2017). Positivism is understood as an epistemology which seeks to explain and predict happenings in the social world by researching the causal relationships between constituent elements (Scotland, 2012; Erlingsson & Brysiewicz, 2017) The current research consisted of a quantitative study and the assumption was that there was a relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the positive psychological functioning attribute (flourishing) amongst junior leaders.

## 1.7.2 **The market of intellectual climate**

### 1.7.2.1 *Meta-theoretical statements*

Meta-theoretical statements are an approach in which different views about the world of reality are shared (Tondl, 2012). The current study's meta-theoretical statements were presented as industrial and organisational psychology, career psychology, and personnel psychology.

#### (a) Industrial and organisational psychology

The study was contextualised within the industrial and organisational psychology field (IOP). The research would contribute to the employees' health, flourishing, and psychological well-being in relation to their career development. Industrial and organisational psychology is part of applied science and contributes to the general knowledge of the psychological field (Van

Vuuren, 2010; Krippendorff, 2019). Industrial and organisational psychology explains and predicts human behaviour and life experiences in the workplace (Watkins, 2001; Williamson & O'Hara, 2017). The study provided more understanding of human behaviour and the well-being and flourishing of junior leaders.

(b) Career psychology

Career psychology is a sub-field of industrial and organisational psychology that focuses on individual career and organisational development (Greenhouse, Callanan, & Godshalk, 2000). It involves helping employees to craft and resolve their career differences and choices (Tondl, 2012; Bergh, 2014). The sub-field is important and relevant in this study in that it helped junior leaders to make career choices based on their career orientations, and also increase their employability potential (Bezuidenhout, 2010; Krippendorff, 2019).

(c) Personnel psychology

Personnel psychology is a sub-field that involves personnel movements, utilisation, maintenance, and compensation (Bergh, 2014; Gray, 2018). The personnel psychology field is geared towards the measurement of personality differences and optimal utilisation of competencies at work (Bergh & Thereon, 2009; Ryff, 2018). This field is relevant in that the current study's construct of organisational commitment was important to junior leaders' decision to stay with or leave the organisation.

## **1.8 CONCEPTUAL DESCRIPTION**

### **1.8.1 Emotional affect**

Emotional affect is regarded as the “emotional reactions (positive-sympathetic or compassionate or negative-exhausting or resentment) that pose a strong probability of incurring awareness and behavioural changes” in a person (Watson et al., 1988; Norman, 2004). The emotional affect construct will be discussed from the theoretical background of Watson, Clark and Tellegan (1988) and Diener, Wirtz, Tov, Kim-Prieto, Choi, Oishi, and Biswas-Diener (2010). The emotional affect construct was measured by the Scale of Positive and Negative Experiences (Diener et al., 2010).

### **1.8.2 Career orientations**

Career orientations, also known as career anchors, are the “patterns of self-perceived talents and abilities, basic values, evolving motives, and needs that influence employees’ career decisions” (Schein, 1990; 1996). The career orientations construct was discussed from the theoretical background of Schein’s (1990; 1996) career anchors. The construct was measured by the Career Orientations Inventory (COI) (Schein, 1990).

### **1.8.3 Organisational commitment**

Organisational commitment has been described as an employee’s psychological and emotional attachment, membership, and moral obligation towards an identified department, workplace or an organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991; El-Nahas, Abd-El- Salam, & Shawky, 2013). The construct was discussed from the theoretical background of Meyer and Allen (1991) and El-Nahas et al. (2013). The construct was measured by the Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS) (Meyer & Allen, 1991; 1993).

### **1.8.4 Flourishing**

Flourishing is coined as the positive psychological functioning state (Seligman, 2011). The construct was discussed from the theoretical background of Keys (2002; 2007) and Seligman (2011). The construct was measured by the Flourishing Scale (FS) (Diener et al., 2010).

### **1.8.5 Psychological well-being**

Psychological well-being has been defined as a positive attribute in which an individual realises his/her abilities and can cope with normal stressful life events, and work productively while making a contribution to the community (Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Ryff, 2018; WHO, 2004; 2019). The psychological well-being construct was discussed from the model and theoretical backgrounds of Diener and Biswas-Diener (2008) and Ryff and Keyes (1995; Ryff, 2018).

Table 1.1

*Overview of the Core Constructs*

<b>Construct</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Underpinning theoretical model</b>	<b>Measuring instrument</b>
<b>Emotional affect</b>	Emotional affect is the “emotional reactions (positive-sympathetic or compassionate or negative-exhausting or resentment) that have a strong probability of incurring awareness and behavioural changes” (Norman, 2004).	Watson, Clark and Tellegan’s (1988) mixed model of emotional affect.	Scale of Positive And Negative Experiences (SPANE) (Dienier, et al., 2010).
<b>Career orientations</b>	Career orientations/anchors are regarded as “patterns of self-perceived talents and abilities, basic values, evolving motives, and needs that influence employees’ career resolutions” (Schein, 1990; 1996; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2010).	Schein’s (1990) model of career anchors.	Career Orientations Inventory (Schein, 1990).
<b>Organisational Commitment</b>	Organisational commitment is an employee’s psychological and emotional attachment, membership, and moral obligation towards an identified organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991; El-Nahas, Abd-El- Salam, & Shawky, 2013).	Meyer and Allen (1991) and El-Nahas et al. (2013) Organisational commitment.	Organisational Commitment Scale (Meyer & Allen, 1991; 1993).
<b>Flourishing</b>	Flourishing is the positive psychological functioning state (Seligman, 2011). Flourishing is a pattern of positive feelings and positive functioning in life (Keys, 2002; 2007).	Seligman (2011) and Keys (2002; 2007) Positive psychology and human	Flourishing Scale (FS) (Diener et al., 2010).



		flourishing.
<b>Psychological well-being</b>	Psychological well-being is the positive attribute whereby an individual realises his/her abilities and can cope with normal stressful life events and work productively while making a contribution to the organisation (WHO, 2004; 2019; Ryff & Keyes, 1995)	Ryff and Keyes (1995) and Diener and Biswas-Diener (2008) Psychological well-being

### 1.9 CENTRAL HYPOTHESES

The central hypotheses of the study were as follows:

The central hypothesis of the study was that the relationship dynamics between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the positive psychological functioning attribute (flourishing) constitute a psychological well-being profile for junior leaders, which could be utilised to nurture career enrichment, flourishing, and psychological well-being practices of junior leaders. Additionally, it was assumed that the junior leaders' biographical information (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) moderated the relationship between the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the positive psychological functioning attribute (flourishing). Furthermore, significance differences existed between the sub-groups of biographical variables that acted as significant moderators between the dispositional attributes and flourishing attribute.

### 1.10 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Gray (2014; 2018) and Mouton and Marais (1996), the research design should provide the strategic framework and a structure of the research project to maximise the validity and reliability of the research findings. Moreover, Babbie and Mouton (2009; 2011) and De Souza, Alexandré, and Guirardello (2017) found further that research design is more valuable because it provides a bridge and a structured plan to channel the interpretation of the findings. The current design was presented with reference to the research approach, discussion on validity and reliability, unit of analysis, and the ethical considerations.

### **1.10.1 Research approach**

A non-probability purposive sampling quantitative approach was applied to explore the statistical relationship between the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the positive psychological functioning attribute (flourishing). As indicated earlier, the research was arranged according to the positivist research perspective. The positivist methodology entails that the empirical testing and confirmation of research hypotheses as well as the theories should be conducted with the instruments that have been validated and deemed reliable (Terre Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006; Glasper & Rees, 2017).

### **1.10.2 Exploratory research**

Exploratory research refers to the exploration of new research fields (Salkind, 2012). An exploratory study's aim is to determine the possibility of gaining new insights and generation of new knowledge by investigating various theoretical models (Newman, 2007; Krippendorff, 2019). To explore the four constructs, four instruments were applied; namely the Scale of Positive And Negative Experiences (SPANE) (Watson et al., 1988; Diener et al., 2010); Career Orientations Inventory (COI) (Schein, 1990); Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS) (Meyer & Allen, 1993); and Flourishing Scale (FS) (Diener et al., 2010), targeting permanently-employed junior personnel from the SANDF, with the intention of measuring the empirical relationships between these variables.

### **1.10.3 Explanatory research**

Explanatory research aimed to explain the relationship between research variables (Salkind, 2012; Krippendorff, 2019). The study explained the path and the degree of the association between emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment, and the flourishing constructs.

### **1.10.4 Descriptive research**

Salkind (2012) and Dahlke and Wiernik, (2018) stated that the aim of the descriptive research is to describe issues as accurately as possible and to gain an in-depth description of individual, group, organisation, situation, and culture. The psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and positive

psychological functioning attribute (flourishing) were conceptualised in the literature. For empirical research, a descriptive study indicated the means, standard deviations, frequencies, and Cronbach's alpha of these four constructs. The primary data was administered in paper and pencil and in questionnaires (Struwig, 2001). These questionnaires were administered in individual gatherings, and the data was captured electronically on an Ms Excel programme, then processed and analysed by SPSS version 25 Hayes (2018).

The Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was also used to further analyse model fit. SEM is a combination of confirmatory factor analysis, path analysis, partial least squares, LISREL (Linear Structural Relations), latent growth, and regression (Garson, 2008; Kline, 2011; Saidi & Siew, 2019). SEM also implies a structure of the covariance between the observable variables (Hox & Bechger, 1995). The SEM provides a general and convenient framework for statistical analysis, as a set of mathematical models, computer algorithms, and statistical methods that fitted networks of constructs to data (Hox & Bechger, 1995; Saidi & Siew, 2019).

#### **1.10.5 Research variables**

According to Bouma and Ling (2010), a variable is regarded as any concept or idea that can be measured. Therefore a concept can assume an independent or dependent variable (Gray, 2014; 2018). An independent variable is the variable that is being researched (Maxwell, 2013). The dependent variable is the outcome/effect of another variable (Bouma & Ling, 2010; Glasper & Rees, 2017). The researcher was interested in the measurement of the direction and the magnitude of the relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the positive psychological functioning attribute (flourishing). Therefore, the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) constructs were regarded as independent variables, and the positive psychological functioning attribute (flourishing) was regarded as a dependent variable.

Biographical variables were regarded as individual variables moderating the relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) (independent variables) and the positive psychological functioning (flourishing) attribute (dependent variable). Figure 1.1 provides an overview of the relationship between the independent, moderating, and dependent variables.

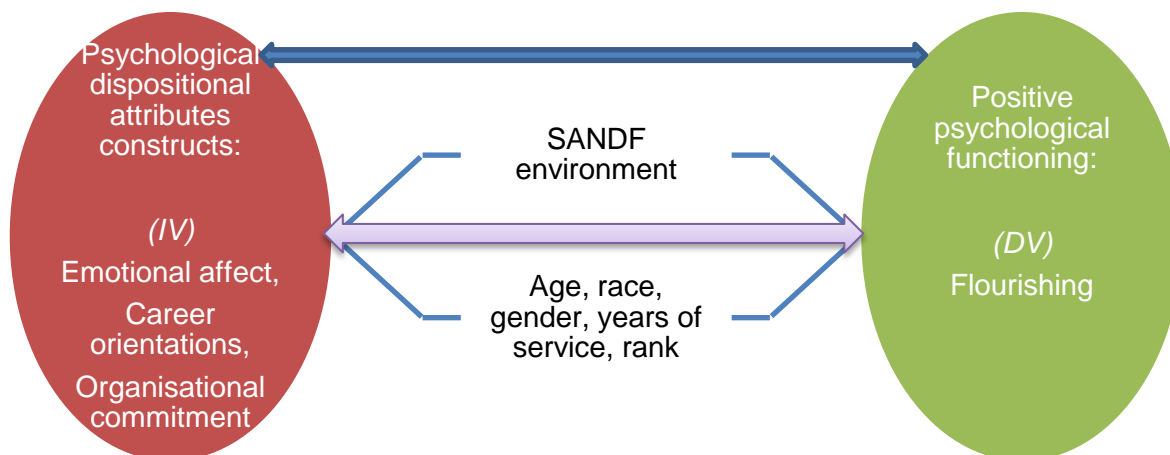


Figure 1.1: The relationship between the research variables

## 1.10.6 Validity and reliability

### 1.10.6.1 Validity with regard to the literature

Validity is the “extent to which a measuring instrument measures the constructs it is meant to measure” (Babbie & Mouton, 2009; 2011). The internal and external validity indicate the approximate fact regarding the constructs’ under the study (Trochim, 2006; Glasper & Rees, 2017). Terre-Blanche and Durrheim (2002) stressed that, in research, internal and external validity are the cornerstone of every study. The literature review and empirical review were studied in relation to the current study variables (Mouton & Marais, 1996). Internal validity of the study refers to the correlation question and the extent to which causal conclusions can be drawn (Gray, 2014; 2018). Maxwell (2013) indicated that internal validity aims to examine the study design and methods utilised to reach assumptions or results.

Internal validity was ensured by minimising selection bias and conducting the study within the parameters of the field. External validity is the degree to which the study results can be generalised to other settings and people associated with the sample (Bouma & Ling, 2010; Glasper & Rees, 2017). External validity was achieved by ensuring that the study and its results are generalised within SANDF environments. The researcher strived to obtain a representative sample to maximise external validity (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2009; Glasper & Rees, 2017). Final conclusions, implications, and recommendations were discussed in relation to the research results.

#### 1.10.6.2 *Reliability with regards to the literature*

The reliability of the current research was ensured by removing potential bases of errors, while focusing on the effects of the junior leader's characteristics (Bouma & Ling, 2010; Foxcroft & Roodt, 2009). Cronbach's coefficient alpha was used to determine the internal consistency reliability of the utilised measures (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002). In accordance with Terre Blanche and Durrheim (2002), the reliability was ensured as follows:

- “The data collection instruments were checked to satisfy that they are valid and reliable and only the researcher will collect data.
- All collected data was stored electronically and safely in a secured file.
- The Cronbach alpha coefficients were used to establish internal consistency. Cronbach's alpha coefficient ranges from 0, which indicated no internal consistency, to 1, which is the maximum internal consistency score”. Tredoux and Durrheim (2006) indicated that a Cronbach alpha of .75 was adequate for the research.

#### **1.10.7 Units of analysis**

In the study, the unit of analysis were individual human beings (Salkind, 2012). The study concentrated on the emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment, and flourishing constructs within the SANDF. The unit of analysis is the extent to which the object or things are researched in order to formulate generalisation of the objects and to further explain their differences or similarities (Babbie & Mouton, 2009; 2011). At an individual level, scores on each instrument were considered. When examining the relationship between biographical groups (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank), the unit of analysis was the sub-groups (Mouton & Marais, 1996). The overall results would assist to develop a psychological well-being profile for junior leaders.

#### **1.10.8 Ethical considerations**

The Health Professionals Council of South Africa's (HPCSA) ethical guidelines and standard and the University of South Africa (UNISA) Policy on Research Ethics formed the cornerstone of this research project. Before the research process began, ethical clearance was obtained by the supervising university (UNISA) IOP Research Ethics Committee (Refer to appendix B). Permission to conduct the research was obtained from the targeted

organisation (SANDF) (Refer to appendix A). The researcher is an employee of the current department under study. Informed consent was acquired from all relevant junior leaders prior to participation. Their collected personal information, data, and results have been handled as confidential.

Participation in the study was voluntary and participants remained anonymous (Sinclair, 2011). Participants with exceptional requirements or literacy challenges were considered (Haynes & O`Braine, 2000). No harm whatsoever was caused and participants were assured of privacy and their right to withdraw from the study at any time if they felt the need to do so (Babbie & Mouton, 2009; 2011).

### **1.11 THE RESEARCH PROCESS**

The research was conducted in two phases, namely literature review and empirical study, as illustrated in figure 1.2

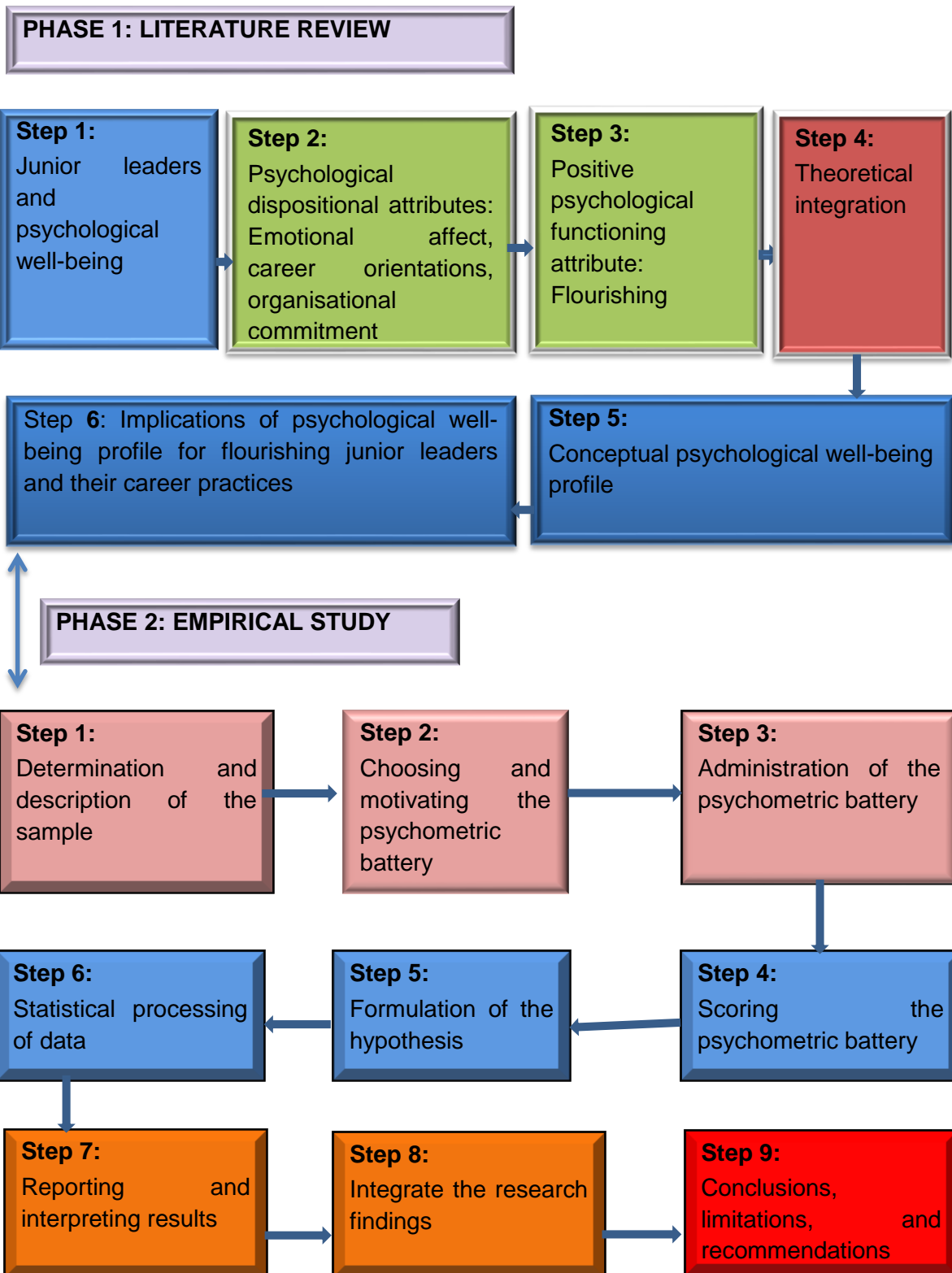


Figure 1.2: Overview of the research process

### 1.11.1 Phase 1: Literature review steps

The study comprised the review of the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the positive psychological functioning (flourishing) attribute, and focused on the well-being of junior leaders.

**Step 1:** Conceptualisation of the meta-theoretical context of a psychological well-being profile for junior leaders in the 21<sup>st</sup> century in the SANDF. Psychological well-being profile within the SANDF was critically evaluated. The variables influencing junior leaders' profiles and flourishing were identified. The implications of a psychological well-being profile for junior leaders within the SANDF were assessed.

**Step 2:** Conceptualisation and theoretical explanations of the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) by means of theoretical models in the literature.

#### *Emotional affect*

The construct of emotional affect was conceptualised in relation to the psychological well-being of junior leaders and the IOP field. The research on elements of the emotional affect was critically evaluated and variables influencing emotional affect were identified. The implications of emotional affect on a psychological well-being profile for junior leaders were highlighted.

#### *Career orientations*

The construct of career orientations was conceptualised and critically evaluated in relation to junior leaders and the IOP field. Schein's (1990) career anchors approach was incorporated to demonstrate principles and concepts elaborated in the current literature. Finally, the implications of career orientations on a psychological well-being profile for junior leaders were assessed.

#### *Organisational commitment*

The construct of organisational commitment was conceptualised in relation to junior leaders and the IOP field in the literature. Organisational commitment was critically evaluated.



Finally, the implications of organisational commitment pertaining to psychological well-being were assessed.

**Step 3:** Conceptualisation and theoretical explanations of the positive psychological functioning (flourishing) attribute.

### *Flourishing*

The construct of flourishing was conceptualised and critically evaluated in relation to the hypothesised profile. Based on this critical evaluation evidence, a psychological well-being profile for flourishing junior leaders was developed to indicate concepts and principles discussed. The implications of flourishing pertaining to psychological well-being and the career practices were indicated.

**Step 4:** The integration of the hypothetical psychological well-being profile outlining the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and positive psychological functioning (flourishing) attribute. In this step, the theoretical integration and development of the psychological well-being profile, which includes dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the positive psychological functioning (flourishing) attribute, were evaluated. A psychological well-being profile for flourishing junior leaders was based on this construct. The implications for industrial and organisational psychology were discussed.

**Step 5:** Conceptual psychological well-being profile.

In this step, a psychological well-being profile for flourishing junior leaders was developed based on the hypo-theoretical relationship between the constructs of emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment (dispositional attributes) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning). The implications for industrial and organisational psychology were critically evaluated.

**Step 6:** Implications of the psychological well-being profile for flourishing junior leaders and their career practices. This step relates to the critical discussion and the practical implications of the emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment (dispositional attributes), and flourishing (positive psychological functioning attribute) constructs in the SANDF, well-being, and the industrial and organisational psychology field.

### 1.11.2 Phase 2: Empirical study steps

In order to achieve the empirical research aims, phase two was explored consisted of nine steps:

#### **Step 1: Determination and description of the sample (research participants)**

The method and process for assembling the sample characteristics were outlined in this step. The SANDF has approximately ten thousand (10 000) personnel, and approximately three thousand (3 000) junior leaders. A non-probability purposive sampling method was deemed suitable for the study. The study targeted a sample of approximately five hundred (N=500) junior leaders within the four arms of services in the SANDF. A non-probability purposive sampling technique depends on availability and willingness of individuals to participate in the study, however, at certain times, selection of participants depends on the also the typical cases (Gerrish & Lacey, 2010). Purposive sampling relies on a large sample and is applied when a particular event, setting, or set of people are chosen because they may be known (Gray, 2014; 2018; Dahlke & Wiernik, 2018).

The disadvantages of the non-probability purposive sampling may be that the researcher may not get enough participants, or the sample size may not be a reflection of the entire population under study and results may not be generalisation effectively (Maxwel, 2013). The advantages of purposive sampling are that the researcher knows the participants and it is easy to generate data (Gray, 2014; 2018). Struwig and Stead (2001) indicated that a sample size of one hundred and fifty ( $n=150$ ) to two hundred ( $n=200$ ) samples can provide an acceptable reflection of the population. A three hundred ( $n=300$ ) plus sample size provides a more accurate reflection of the population. By increasing the sample size to more than three hundred ( $n=300$ ), there is a possibility of reducing non-response impact factors..

In addition to the measuring instruments (PANAS, COI, OCS, and FS) that were used, a biographical questionnaire was administered. The sample included the biographical characteristics of age, race, gender, years of service, and rank in the SANDF. The inclusion of population characteristics in the study was vital, in that the previous research has indicated that these characteristics give actionable and meaningful results that assist in making better organisational decisions and interventions. Moreover, the inclusion of biographical data has indicated that that age, race, gender, years of service, and rank tend to influence research results (De Lange, Demerouti & Van der Heijde, 2009; Coetzee, 2010;

Brown, Bimrose, Barnes, & Hughes, 2012; Du Plooy, 2013; João & Coetzee, 2012; Glasper & Rees, 2017). For the purpose of this research, all junior leaders in the SANDF, irrespective of their service or function, were approached to participate in the study.

## **Step 2: Choosing and motivating the psychometric battery (measuring instruments)**

In this step, the five measuring instruments which were applied are explained

Scale for Positive and Negative Activation Experiences (SPANE) (Dinier, Wirtz, Tov, Kim-Prieto, Choi, Oishi, & Biswas-Diener, 2010)

- Individuals' emotional affect was measured by administering the Scale for Positive and Negative Experiences (SPANE) instrument developed by Dienier et al. (2010). The SPANE measurement instrument has twelve (12) self-reporting items. The respondents rate the extent to which they have experienced a particular emotion within a specified period of time using a five (5) point Likert-type scale. The scale statements ranged from point one (1) (very slightly or not at all) to point five (5) (very much). The items are based on emotion adjectives (six positive and six negative). If there are more positive or more negative adjectives scores, this would indicate that the individual's feelings at that particular time and in that situation was positive or negative. The reliability (internal consistency) of the measurement instrument (SPANE) is .89, with proven divergent validity.

Career Orientations Inventory (COI) (Schein, 1990)

- Career orientations were measured by the Career Orientations Inventory (COI) (Schein, 1990). The COI is a self-perceived and self-report instrument with forty (40) items. The instrument was developed by Schein (1990). The Career Orientations Inventory measures the level of individuals' self-perceived, talents, career choices/preferences (Schein, 1990). The instrument consists of eight (8) sub-scales, which are: autonomy or independence, technical or functional, general managerial, entrepreneurial or creativity, lifestyle, pure challenge, service or dedication to a cause, and security or stability.

The Career Orientations Inventory uses a five point Likert-type scale that ranges from the statement of never true for me (1), to always true for me (5). Although there is no time limit for the questionnaire, it can take approximately ten minutes to be completed. The Career Orientations Inventory is rated according to the instructions provided (Schein (1990). The respondent would select three (3) items that are most true to them and indicate them in the

three blocks provided at the end of the questionnaire. The items are awarded an additional four (4) points and then added back to the original rating that the respondent provided for the indicated items. The allocated scores of the items from the eight (8) categories of career orientation are then summed up and divided by five (5). The results would indicate the respondent's average score for each career orientation sub-scale. The highest score is the dominant career orientation of the respondent (Schein, 1990).

The validity and reliability of the instrument are high and are considered adequate for the study. Ellison and Schreuder (2000) reported internal consistency reliability estimates for the technical/functional (0.59), general management (0.71), autonomy (0.75), security (0.78), entrepreneurship (0.75), service (0.73), pure challenge (0.70), and lifestyle (0.64) in the career orientation scales for a sample of 295 (predominantly white) managers. These internal consistency reliabilities, as measured by the Cronbach alpha coefficient, are moderately high, with the exception of somewhat lower reliabilities for the technical/functional and lifestyle career orientation scales.

Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS) (Meyer & Allen, 1993)

- The organisational commitment was measured by using the Organisational Commitment scale (OCS) developed by Meyer and Allen (1993). The Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS) measures individuals' degree of psychological and emotional connection and moral obligation to an organisation (Lumley, 2010; Meyer & Allen, 1997). This includes affective, continuance, and normative commitment.

The organisational commitment scale consists of three dimensional sub-scales, each with six (6) questionnaires. Overall, the scale has eighteen (18) self-reporting items and seven (7) point Likert-type scale statements that range from strongly disagree (1), to strongly agree (7). The instrument's validity and reliability are recorded as adequate for the South African context (Coetzee, Ferreira, & Shunmugum, 2017). The internal consistency of the instruments' subscales ranged from affective commitment (.82), to continuance commitment (.74) and normative commitment (.83).

Flourishing Scale (FS) (Diener, Wirtz, Tov, Kim-Prieto, Choi, Oishi, & Biswas-Diener, 2010).

- Flourishing was measured using the Flourishing Scale (FS) developed by Diener, Wirtz, Tov, Kim-Prieto, Choi, Oishi, and Biswas-Diener (2010). The Flourishing Scale measures aspects of psychological well-being in the areas of life of optimism, relationship with others, self-esteem and purpose in life, and other key aspects of

psychological wealth, such as strong social relationships, self-respect, competence, engaging work, spirituality, and whether life has purpose and meaning.

The Flourishing Scale (FS) comprises eight (8) self-reporting items that are based on individuals' life satisfaction and their psychological well-being. The FS scale is scored on seven (7) point Likert-type scales that range from strongly disagree (1), to strongly agree (7). The instrument's validity and reliability are adequate for the study, and it has a higher internal consistency of .80 (Diener et al., 2010). The instrument was suitable for the study.

#### Biographical questionnaire

- A biographical questionnaire was attached to the front of the instruments to determine age, race, gender, years of service, and rank. The influences of demographic variables were studied in a variety of different studies (Igbaria, Greenhaus, & Parasuraman, 1991; Allen & Katz 1992; Erdoğan, 2004; Engelbrecht, Heine, & Mahembe, 2017).

### **Step 3: Administration of the psychometric battery (research procedure)**

The researcher is an employee of the SANDF. Permission to conduct research has been obtained from the Chief Director of Defence Intelligence and General Officer Commanding, Training Command (GOC, TRG COMD) to access learning institutions (SANWC, CECE, CCDT, PS School) where there are a majority of junior leaders who participated in the study. The researcher approached the junior leaders in their offices and training venues. The researcher discussed the intention to conduct the research with all identified junior leaders in main plenary and also briefly informed them about the aims of the study and its importance in the entire SANDF health and well-being spectrum. The researcher also advised the participants to report any unethical part from the researcher or research process to UNISA IOP research ethics committee or HPCSA.

Participants were informed of the need for them to sign consent forms and were briefed about the purpose of the study and all other information pertaining to it and the measuring instruments. The study was conducted individually, and in paper and pencil form. The researcher collected the completed questionnaires within 48 hours. Collected questionnaires were securely locked and stored in the computer with strict access password. The research results were discussed in relation to the literature and empirical research aims. The following data collection process was followed:

- The SPANE, COI, OCS, and FS questionnaires were distributed to the sampled participants;
- A biographical questionnaire comprising of questions on age, race, gender, years of service, and rank was also attached and handed out together with the four instruments questionnaire;
- The participants were asked to complete questionnaires during briefing visits and in their spare time and the researcher collected them as soon as they were completed;
- The data collection instruments were not posted. This assisted in the prevention of missing data;
- The completed questionnaires were collected within 48 hours to prevent any misplacement or loss;
- The destroyed instruments were part of the study, but not in final analysis;
- When completed, the researcher collected and stored the data in the computer software programme Excel, and protected the data with an access password to prevent any contaminations.

#### **Step 4: Scoring of the psychometric battery (statistical analysis)**

In this step, a discussion of the data analysis technique and capturing was conducted. Completed questionnaires were collated and exported into an Excel spreadsheet. The data was then processed and analysed by SPSS version 25 Hayes (2018), and a structural equation modelling technique (Kline, 2011; Dahlke & Wiernik, 2018). The SEM provides a general and convenient framework for statistically analysing a set of mathematical models, computer algorithms, and statistical methods that fit networks of constructs to data (Hox & Bechger, 1995; Creswell & Poth, 2018).

#### **Step 5: Formulation of the research hypothesis**

In this step, the research hypothesis for archiving the study aims and objectives was formulated. A research hypothesis is defined as a concept or an idea that represents a general categorisation of an impression about something (Gray, 2014; 2018). Hypotheses are also tentative statements about a phenomenon (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2006). Therefore, the formulated empirical research hypotheses were also tested. Table 1.2 is the summary of the research aims, research hypothesis, and the statistical procedures that were used to respond to the study questions.

Table 1.2

*Summary of the Empirical Research Aim, Research Hypotheses and Applicable Statistical Procedures*

<b>Aims</b>	<b>Research hypothesis</b>	<b>Statistical procedures</b>
<b>Research Aim 1</b>	There is a statistically significant positive inter-correlation between the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and flourishing attributes (positive psychological functioning) that constitute an overall psychological well-being profile.	Correlation analysis
<b>Research Aim 2</b>	The (independent variables) dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) significantly predict (dependable variable) the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).	Multiple regression analyses
<b>Research Aim 3</b>	The theoretically conceptualised psychological well-being profile has a good fit with the empirically manifested structural equational model.	Structural equation modelling
<b>Research Aim 4</b>	Biographical information of age, race, gender, years of service, and rank moderate the relationship between the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).	Hierarchical moderated regression
<b>Research Aim 5</b>	There are significant differences between sub-groups of the biographical information that acted as significant moderators between the independent dispositional	Tests for significant mean differences

attributes and the dependent flourishing attribute.

**Research Aim 6** To formulate recommendations for psychological well-being and flourishing practices. Additionally, to propose practical interventions for industrial and organisational psychology, psychological well-being, health and well-being practices, and future research.

---

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

The statistical analysis step 6 was conducted in three stages:

**Stage 1:** Descriptive statistics were used to describe the variables, which include Cronbach's alpha coefficients (internal consistency reliability), means, standard deviations, skewness, and kurtosis (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013).

**Stage 2:** To test research hypotheses Ha1, a correlational statistics analysis was performed to explore the direction, strength, and magnitude of the relationship between the variables (Field, 2012; Creswell & Poth, 2018). The Pearson product moment correlation coefficient provides a measure of the strength and direction of the relationships (Newman, 2000; Saidi & Siew, 2019).

**Stage 3:** To test research hypotheses Ha2 & Ha3, inferential statistics were used and multiple regression analysis was performed to explore the proportion of variance in the dependent variable (Flourishing) that is explained by the independent variables (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) (Saidi & Siew, 2019). Structural equation modelling was performed on Ha4. The tests for the mean differences (T-tests, ANOVAS and Scheffe's Post hoc tests) were performed to test Ha5 and Ha6. In order to counter the chances of a Type 1 error, the significance values were set at the 95% confidence level ( $p \leq .05$ ).

Descriptive statistics were used to describe data. Descriptive stages were performed in four steps:



- Determining the internal consistency reliability of the measuring instruments by means of Cronbach's Alpha coefficient;
- Evaluating the uni-dimensionality of the SPANE, COI, OCS, and FS by using a Rasch analysis;
- Determining the means and standard deviations, kurtosis, and skewness of the categorical and frequency data;
- Testing assumptions (correlation analysis, canonical correlation, multiple regression analysis, and moderated regression).

The Pearson's correlation coefficient between two variables was clarified as the covariance of the two variables divided by the product of the standard deviations (Marc, 2011; Saidi & Siew, 2019). The level of significance expresses statistical significance in terms of providing the specific probability. A confidence level of 95% ( $p \leq .05$ ) was applied to test for statistical significance. In other words, when a test of significance reveals a p-value lower than .05, the null hypothesis will be rejected. There is always the probability of making two different judgement errors (Dahlke & Wiernik, 2018). First, a Type 1 error occurs when the null hypothesis is rejected but is in fact true. Second, a Type 2 error occurs when the null hypothesis is accepted but is in fact false. These types of errors can be avoided by increasing the sample size or adjusting the alpha level to compensate for small samples (Pallant, 2007; 2011).

In addition, practical effect sizes were used to determine whether the relationship between variables is statistically significant, and were interpreted according to the following guidelines:  $r = .10$  (small practical effect);  $r = .30$  (medium practical effect); and  $r = .50$  (large practical effect) (Cohen, 1992; Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013). The inferential statistics were applied to establish the significant regression value ( $p \leq .05$ ) between the dependent and independent variables. The values of the Beta (B) were shown. The Beta values (B) indicated the contribution of the independent variables in explaining the variance in the dependent variable.

The absolute values ( $r$ ) indicated the practical significance effect size of small ( $R^2 = .02$ ), medium ( $R^2 = .13$ ), and large ( $R^2 = .25$ ) (Cohen, 2003; Creswell & Poth, 2018). The applicable test for significant mean differences was performed to establish differences between the biographical variables. The results from the Kruskal-Wallis test were explained by the Chi-Square values, the degree of freedom ( $df$ ), and the significance level. The significance level less than .05 was significant in the groups, and the mean rank showed

how different groups varied (Pallant, 2007; 2013; Hayes, 2013; Saidi & Siew, 2019). Cohen's  $d$ -value indicated the practical effect size and was interpreted as:  $d = .20$  (small effect);  $d = .50$  (medium effect); and  $d = .80$  (large effect) (Cohen, 1992; Creswell & Poth, 2018).

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

The discussion and interpretation of findings were conveyed clearly and in an orderly manner. This was done through the the statistical analysis results presented via tables, diagrams, and/or graphs in relation to step 6: statistical processing.

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

The research conclusions arising from the empirical research were integrated and interpreted in relation to the overall empirical research results of the study.

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

The final step suggested the conclusions which were highlighted and presented as guided by the study's integration with the literature. The boundaries of the study were highlighted, and recommendations were put forth in that addressed the relationships between emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment, career meta-capabilities, and flourishing for the construction of the psychological well-being profile for flourishing junior leaders.

### **Theoretical assumptions**

In relation to the literature review, the following assumptions were highlighted in the study:

- There should be further exploration that intends to address the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment) and flourishing attributes (positive psychological functioning).
- The psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment) influenced the flourishing attributes (positive psychological functioning).

- The four constructs of emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment, and flourishing were multi-dimensional and were moderated by external factors of age, race, gender, years of service, and rank.
- The hypothesised psychological well-being profile addressed flourishing, career development practices, psychological well-being, and health of junior leaders.

## **Limitations**

The following limitations were

- That the results may not be generalised beyond the boundaries.
- The research was based on self-report/perception and may be subjective. Therefore, employees might not be open and honest.
- Some questionnaires may not be returned, or may be destroyed or lost in the process.
- The study may not be a good representation of the SANDF.
- Availability of and participation by junior leaders may not be adequate.

## **Recommendations**

The study recommended that flourishing practices be prioritised, and that a psychological well-being profile for flourishing junior leaders, which integrates variables from emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment, and flourishing, be developed. Secondly, career orientations formed part of induction and orientation programmes at the entry level of junior leaders so that they are aware of their career and roles. The results should inspire future research on flourishing junior leaders and their psychological well-being.

## **1.12 CHAPTER LAYOUT**

The chapters were structured as follows:

**Chapter 2:** Meta-theoretical context of psychological well-being of junior leaders relative to the psychological dispositional attributes of emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment within the SANDF were addressed.

This chapter addressed the meta-theoretical context of the psychological well-being of junior leaders relative to the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment), and how these constructs are conceptualised and explained by theoretical models in the literature. The study also investigated the implications of the biographical characteristics (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) on the relationship between the dispositional (emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment) attributes.

Finally, the implications of emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment on IOP practices were discussed and evaluated.

### **Chapter 3: The positive psychological functioning attributes**

The chapter addressed the positive psychological functioning attribute (flourishing), and how this construct is conceptualised and explained by theoretical models in the literature. The study also investigated the implications of the biographical characteristics (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) on flourishing attributes (positive psychological functional). The implications of emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment, and flourishing variables on the IOP field were discussed and evaluated.

### **Chapter 4: Empirical research**

The chapter described the empirical part of the research. Furthermore, the aim of the empirical research was given and the sample, choice of survey, data collection, and processing methodology were well outlined. Research hypotheses were also reformulated.

### **Chapter 5: Research results**

This chapter discussed statistical results and integrated the results of the empirical study with the literature review. The results were presented in this chapter in the format of descriptive, structural equation, hierarchical moderated, multivariate statistical reporting, interpreting, and integration.

## **Chapter 6: Conclusions, limitations, and recommendations**

The concluding chapter integrated the discussion, limitations, results, and conclusions reached. The recommendations for the SANDF department and the industrial and organisational psychology field and for further research were formulated. The study ended with conclusion and integration of the study.

### **1.13 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

The scientific orientation was discussed. This included the study background and motivation for the study, the problem, research questions, research model, paradigm perspectives, theoretical research, research design, and research process to be followed. The chapter concludes with the thesis chapters layouts. The relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and positive psychological functioning (flourishing) attributes were used to construct a psychological well-being profile for flourishing junior leaders. The study also investigated whether these junior leaders' biographical characteristics (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) significantly moderated the relationship between the dispositional attributes and the positive psychological functional attributes.

The following chapter 2 addressed the research aim 1 and the meta-theoretical context of the psychological well-being of junior leaders in the context of the psychological dispositional attributes of emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment within the SANDF.

## **CHAPTER 2: META-THEORETICAL CONTEXT OF PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING AND DISPOSITIONAL ATTRIBUTES OF JUNIOR LEADERS**

### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

The current chapter outlines the perspectives of the study in relation to the theoretical situation that forms the definite limitations of the study. Literature aims 1, 2, 4, and 5; namely: conceptualising psychological well-being and junior leaders' attributes within the military environment, and conceptual definitions of the psychological dispositional attributes are addressed. In this chapter, the theoretical approaches of dispositional attributes, models, and biographical variables influencing psychological well-being were elaborated on. Finally, the implications of psychological well-being and dispositional attributes and a proposed psychological well-being profile were suggested and evaluated. The chapter concludes with syntheses and evaluations.

There have been differing and dissenting views about how psychological well-being has been conceptualised and disseminated. In light of these conceptual views, psychological well-being has been approached according to the medical model and as a state of positive psychological conditions, and not actually through addressing the well-being and flourishing of personnel who are not well and have fragmented and unsystematic careers (Meyer, Maltin, & Thai, 2012; Yildirim & Belen, 2018). Importantly, psychological well-being has been highly regarded as one of the most important health and wellness contingency constructs to overcome the 21<sup>st</sup>-century challenges by many researchers (Sieberhagen, Pienaar, & Els, 2011; Yildirim & Alanazi, 2018).

As Keyes (2002) and Myers and Diener (2018) indicated, the concept of well-being goes beyond the idea of health segments with respect to an absence of illness or psychopathological symptoms, but more to the concept of optimal mental and emotional well-being. In actuality, junior leaders strive to execute orders and maintain harmony while having fewer opportunities to exercise their own power (Wong, 2011; 2017). As a result, highlighting these junior leaders' psychological well-being challenges will be an important first step in managing their psychological well-being for actual optimal utilisation.

## **2.2 PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING**

### **2.2.1 Conceptual foundation of psychological well-being amongst junior leaders in the SANDF**

Research on the attributes of psychological well-being has attracted and gained many contributions in the promotion of positive and healthy life styles. To contribute further, the current study was based on the development of a psychological well-being profile that can be used to organise and guide the future investigations of junior leaders, with the aim of helping them to flourish in their career life. Additionally, Cooper (2014) and Rothmann and Cooper (2015; Yildirim & Alanazi, 2018) steered forth the psychological well-being concept as a contributor to overall human flourishing. Seligman (2011) and Wong (2017) also found that psychological well-being contributes immensely to positive psychology, and that positive-minded junior leaders would flourish in their workplaces. Seligman and Csikzentmihaly (2000) and Serinikli (2018) argued that, actually, positive psychology promotes happiness and resilience, which are vital to increasing junior leaders' psychological well-being.

The research was confined to the overall well-being for junior leaders. Since most of these junior leaders show signs of not being well, the study explored the process whereby unresolved mental morbidity and low mental concentration of junior leaders should be considered for, in order to increase their positive psychological functioning (Keyes, 2002; Mensah, 2018; Ryff, 2018). Accordingly, in the current workplace settings, many of the junior leaders show indications and signs of being less positive about their current organisations and further that they often felt that their organisations do not care about their psychological well-being (Worral & Cooper, 2014; White, 2017).

It is important to note that many of the junior leaders who were exposed to excessive stressful conditions, tend to report symptoms of poor mental health, including depression, unsatisfactory performance, and exposure to dangerous situations (Williamson & O'Hara, 2017). As Cooper (1998) indicated, stress is a big contributor to many of the ill conditions. The study by Awan and Sitwat (2014) and Williamson and O'Hara (2017) also found that, in terms of combatting the many stressful events many stressful events, the emergence of workplace spirituality has added and direct positive implications for psychological well-being. In their study, it was found that workplace spirituality can significantly predict psychological well-being.

Psychological well-being has been identified as a broad positive mental state which includes people's emotional reactions, judgement, and satisfaction with life events, which ultimately contributes to positive psychological functioning (Akhtar, Ghufuran., & Fatima, 2017; Wang et al., 2018). In view of the current study, positive psychology was regarded as a scientific study that would enable junior leaders to flourish, while re-focusing more on the expression of their potentials through positive well-being, relationships, traits, and positive organisational commitment postures (Seligman & Csikszentimihaly, 2000; White, 2017). While Ryff (1989; 2018) defined psychological well-being as a state of positive psychological functioning which is actually related to a person's positive affect, the WHO (2003; 2019) has defined well-being as an aggregate of a person's own health assessments in relation to their job satisfaction and happiness about life in general.

Since the literature has found out that many of the SANDF junior leaders were being exposed to an extreme environment and conditions that were unbearable and emotionally straining, traumatic and stressful events, and sufferings from casualties (Marx & Liebenberg, 2019), it was critical to adopt a psychological well-being constructs for junior leaders within the SANDF. At certain times these junior leaders were expected to perform rescue operations while caring for the wounded, while at the same time watching fellow soldiers dying (Van Dyk, 2009; Milan et al., 2017). The literature showed that many of these junior leaders were exposed to very dangerous situations such as planted land mines and abandoned ammunition, while also working with sophisticated weapons, infrastructure, and equipment (Van Dyk, 2009; Marx & Liebenberg, 2019).

Currently, most organisations have realised that their personnel's well-being continuum is very important for optimal performance and growth and, in most instances, organisations are studying and implementing many measures to address the conditions that meet their personnel's psychological well-being (Cilliers, 2011; Wang, Zhao, Liu, An, & Pan, 2019). In the process of promoting psychological well-being, Bass (1990) revealed that the UK defense health systems concentrate on developing junior leaders in a wide range of military attributes that responded to their well-being. In addition, Adair (2002) purported that the UK defense model in Defense Strategy Leadership Programme (DSLPL) values self-awareness as a contributor to the well-being of its junior leaders. The self-awareness concepts aimed to further explore the junior leaders on the DSLPL programme of contemporary leadership paradigms, ethics, leading change, leadership derailment, strategy fellowship, and the psychophysiology of leadership.



Generally, the nature of the military environment entails some psychological challenges. Apart from the basic military training and knowledge extracted, junior leaders are confronted with some mental challenges facing their subordinates (Kennedy & Zilmer, 2006; Sheldon et al., 2019). As Harry (2014) and Myers and Diener (2018) stated, the effective management of well-being, psychological traits, and the strengthening of psychological capabilities would automatically inspire some improvements in all organisational performances. Cilliers (2011) and later on Goller and Paloniemi (2017) indicated that the movement towards health, well-being awareness, and screening is strengthened by positive organisational outlooks. However, Myers and Diener (2018) and Wang et al. (2018) found that, in addition to the organisational outlook, psychological well-being is an important construct and enhances both work and personal resource management.

Most subordinates tend to regard their junior leaders as genuine when they indicate some interest in their development and show considerations in their positive life challenges (Goleman, Boyatzis, & Mckee, 2002; White, 2017). Moreover, Keyes (2002) opined that being psychologically unhealthy might be a reflection of high levels of mental morbidity and low mental concentration levels. Accordingly, psychological well-being contributed immensely to positive psychology, and it has been reported that psychological well-being assisted many junior leaders in thinking and acting positively about mental agility and about life events that affect them most (Seligman, 2001; 2011; Myers & Diener, 2018).

It was Diener, Lucas and Oishi (2005) who contemplated that well-being is an important factor that can help people to think carefully and develop a deep understanding while reflecting more on themselves and contentment with their interpersonal relationships, and is also associated with cognitive functioning. Moreover, Ryff and Keyes (1995) and Wang et al. (2019) contended that the concept of well-being has been under-studied and has also been addressed inadequately by certain organisations. Junior leaders should be innovative, passionate, energetic, effective, and positive when approaching their work; and they should participate fully in capacity building, career development, and psychological health awareness initiatives and training that enhances their thinking capabilities and improves their overall well-being (Maladzi, 2013; White, 2017).

The study found that low job satisfaction and counter-productive behaviour are contributing factors of many unbearable psychological conditions among junior leaders (Bokti & Talib, 2009; Serinikli, 2018). Junior leaders' senses of belonging, self-development, and career adaptability were important in helping them to cope and adapt well to workplace events

which are triggered by external forces (Savickas & Porfelli, 2012; Sheldon et al., 2019). In relation to the enhancement of productive behaviour, the concept of adaptability relates to psychological well-being in that many of the junior leaders who adapted to changing careers tend to be more concerned about their future careers, while also being positive about their future lives (Ferreira, 2012; White, 2017). It is reported that junior leaders would carry the given responsibilities of managing their subordinates, while at the same time executing given instructions from senior leaders (Defence Review, 2013). Therefore, addressing the psychological well-being of SANDF junior leader may create a positive relationship between juniors and seniors, and also enhance a positive climate such as one of warmth and satisfaction and trusting relationships with other personnel at different work stations (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Ryff, 2018).

Certainly, there are other factors that impact heavily on junior leaders' psychological state and their ability to interact with fellow workers at work stations, in ways that may either bring harmony or harm other junior leaders' psychological well-being (Sheldon et al., 2019). The factors which may bring harmony include social adjustment, relaxation, and a positive mental state, while those that are destructive to well-being include alcohol and substance abuse (Serinikli, 2018). Consequently, junior leaders should develop the ability to cultivate, establish, and reward empathy at all levels, whilst also processing ideas and some of the messages that would generate excitement and increase subordinates' and their seniors' expectations (Schotanus-Dijkstra et al., 2019; Milan et al., 2017). Due to the lack of in-depth literature, it seems to be necessary to conduct the study on the psychological well-being of junior leaders.

#### *2.2.1.1 Approaches to psychological well-being*

Ever since the construct of psychological well-being became prominent in the field of positive psychology and wellness, and since more attention has been paid to junior leaders' quality of work life and well-being, there has been an increased interest in attempts to find holistic approaches and combinations of related constructs that embrace psychological well-being (Voyer & Boyer, 2001; Ryff, 2018). In an attempt to harness and define the concept of psychological well-being, Steptoe, Deaton, and Stone (2015) and Sheldon et al. (2019) approached psychological well-being from three distinctive approaches. The identified approaches are evaluative well-being (an indication of junior leaders' satisfaction with life), hedonic well-being (junior leaders' feeling of happiness or sadness about their life events), and eudaimonic well-being (which indicates the purpose and meaning of junior leaders' life

circumstances (Ryff, 2018; Steptoe et al., 2015). Figure 2.1 illustrates these three approaches.

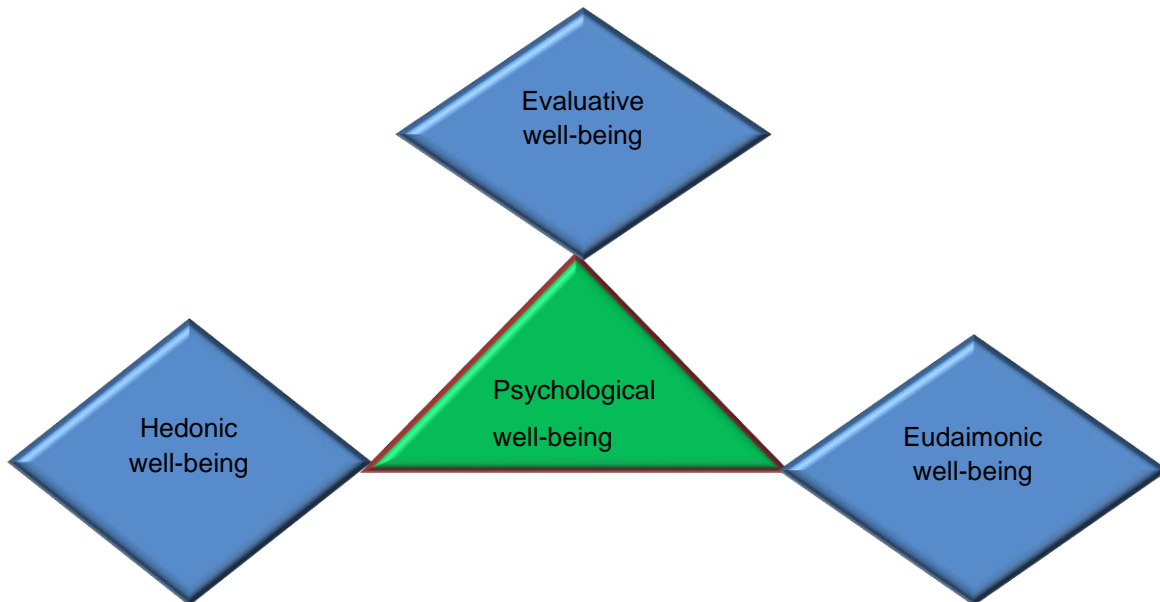


Figure 2.1: Dimensions of psychological well-being

In the context of the current study, figure 2.1 illustrates the element of evaluative well-being, which commensurate the thought processes and their quality and goodness, and how these junior leaders would feel satisfied with their life in general (Steptoe et al., 2015; Sheldon et al., 2019). Harry and Coetzee (2014) and Schotanus-Dijkstra et al. (2019) pointed out that, in most instances, organisations tend to sacrifice their staff's life satisfaction and well-being in order to increase the level of efficiency and maintain high performances. The junior leaders' cognitive and emotional stability may be greatly affected when an organisation pursues their return on investment (Consiglio, Borgogni, Allesandri, & Schaufelli, 2013; Sheldon et al., 2019). Most organisations are now constantly evaluating their junior leaders' psychological states and allocate required resources to enhance their psychological well-being (Castensen, Pasupathi, Mayr, & Nesselroade, 2010; Yildirim & Alanazi, 2018).

Furthermore, junior leaders may also be able to treat their life-threatening diseases effectively and increase their life expectancies, while employment conditions and available resources would assist junior leaders to enhance their psychological well-being (Daton, 2008; Schotanus-Dijkstra et al., 2019). However, specifically for the SANDF, Van Dyk (2015) found that factors such as catastrophic events, peacekeeping or conventional warfare operations, stress, depression, inconsistency in career management amongst junior leaders,

post-deployment stress and suicidal thoughts were particularly disturbing trends that affect well-being. Figure 2.1 illustrates that the hedonic well-being approach indicates the unique way in which junior leaders show affection towards others, while also responding to certain life events. Most junior leaders tend to respond to their life situations and general life circumstances either positively (satisfaction, happiness, love) or negatively (sadness, anger, stress) (Steptoe et al., 2013; 2015; Sheldon et al., 2019). Therefore, exploring the state of affect and well-being concept was important for the developing junior leaders and could enhance their mental state and ability to take over instructions, command, and subsequently face any enemy in military operations (Van Dyk, 2015; Ibeaheem, Elawady, & Ragmoun, 2018).

Hedonic well-being and its attributes of health in the workplace derived from the positive affect and also from good interaction with the surroundings and health (social, psychological, physical) factors (WHO, 1986; 2017; 2019). Generally, most junior leaders were faced with either positive or negative feelings regarding their overall well-being and the influence of some environmental factors, which may be an impediment to their overall psychological conditions (Hatting & Cutt, 2009; Ryff, 2018). It is in this regard that Worrall and Cooper (2014) stated that, in many instances, junior leaders develop tendency and become less positive towards the organisations and also less interested about their work conditions in the organisations.

Frustrated and discounted junior leaders often resorted to an autocratic leadership style to manage the situations (Bell, 2017). The autocratic style has been shown to have a negative impact on junior leaders' morale, especially at lower levels (Bell, 2017; Wang et al., 2018). Meanwhile, the eudaimonic well-being approach indicates that junior leaders possessed greater ability in making sound judgments at work, during military operations (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Steptoe et al., 2015; Van Dyk, 2015; Sheldon et al., 2019). Overall, junior leaders were expected to command authority, control military forces, and coordinate and direct tasks to manage human and physical resources (Hatting & Cutt, 2009; Ryff, 2018). In fact, the imbalances between psychological, physical, and available resources may pose cognitive processing or mental health challenges to most junior leaders (Hatting & Cutt, 2009; Bell, 2017).

Most of the junior leaders' levels of uncertainty, anxiety, and possible loss of control over situations may lead to stress and depression, an inability to deal with unbearable life and health effects, and their decision-making abilities (Fried, 1982; Hatting & Cutt, 2009; Wang et al., 2019). Most junior leaders need to understand and be knowledgeable about their life and

the amount of risk they need be aware of when making proper future health and career preparations (Hatting & Cutt, 2009; Van Dyk, 2015; Joshanloo, 2017).

### 2.2.1.2 *Key elements of psychological well-being*

Previously, Bertolotti, Di Norcia and Vignoli (2018) study of psychological well-being showed that this construct was motivated by two important points: firstly, that well-being is not supposed to be circumscribed to medical or biological descriptions, but that it should be a philosophical question about the meaning of a good life. Secondly, previous psychological well-being concepts lacked empirical rigor in that they were not and could not be tested. The current literature indicated that Ryff's (2014; 2018) model of psychological well-being differed from other models in an important way: well-being is supposed to be a multidimensional term, and not merely one bringing forth aspects of satisfaction, happiness, or positive emotions.

In light of the above definitions, Keys (2002) and Seligman (2011) proposed a six-facet model of psychological well-being that contributed immensely to the improved human performance and growth of personnel. The envisaged model consisted of self-acceptance, personal growth, purpose in life, environmental mastery, positive relations with others, and autonomy (Bertolotti et al., 2018). Psychological well-being has a tremendous impact personal life, growth and job satisfaction (DeBord, 2009; Baumeister & Landau, 2018). The psychological well-being resources provided the basis for effective promotion of well-being amongst junior leaders. As Huppert (2009) illustrated, that the six identified key elements that make up psychological well-being framework. Meanwhile, Keyes and Annas (2009) and Ryff (2018) added that, in structuring the key elements, it is important to explain these elements together with their strength and weakness. These key elements of psychological well-being are outlined below in table 2.1.

Table 2.1

#### *Key Elements of Psychological Well-being*

<b>Element</b>	<b>Explanatory</b>
<b>Self-acceptance</b>	Self-acceptance indicated that junior leaders' positive attitudes towards themselves, their acknowledgement of the current and past life, and their acceptance of the good and bad things. Consequently, junior leaders with low levels of self-acceptance felt dissatisfied with themselves, not appreciate their being, and in most instances be disappointed with their

	past life experiences.
<b>Personal growth</b>	Personal growth indicated that junior leaders have intent to continue with their development and, for the most part, view themselves as flourishing, while also improving on their current behaviour. However, a junior leader with weak personal growth would feel stagnated and may feel bored and not interested in his or her life circumstances.
<b>Purpose in life</b>	Purpose in life is an indication that junior leaders have life goals, direction, and a belief that life will be meaningful. However, a weak purpose in life indicates the person's lack of a sense of meaning in life, with no outlook or beliefs which provide meaning to their life in general.
<b>Positive relations with others</b>	On the positive relations dimension, junior leaders created warm, satisfying, and trusting relationships, while showing concern for the welfare of those around them such as their family, subordinates, friends, or senior leaders. Furthermore, junior leaders would indicate a strong sense of empathy, affection, and intimacy and understand that, as a leader, they must give and take. The challenge regarding this element is that the junior leader would have few close, trusted relationships and may find it difficult to be warm, open, and more concerned about others.
<b>Environmental Mastery</b>	In this regarded, that the junior leader would display a sense of personal mastery and competence in managing the military operations, environment, and resources. He or she may take control of the complex array of external activities and choose or create contexts that are suitable to their personal needs and values. However, having low levels of environmental mastery may be problematic, in that the junior leader may have difficulty in managing everyday military activities, be unaware of the surrounding opportunities, and demonstrate a lack of control over the activities outside of their work context.
<b>Autonomy</b>	Autonomy indicated the extent to which junior leaders need freedom and the ability to choose how and when tasks are handled. Further, in this aspect, the junior leader would then be self-determining, work independently, and able to resist any pressures to think and act outside of the military scope, as well as regulate his or her behaviour to conform to the military standards and procedures. Without autonomy, junior leaders would be concerned with expectations, continuously evaluate people around himself/herself, and conform to external pressures to think and act in a certain ways.

### 2.2.1.3 Effects of psychological well-being

As indicated earlier, psychological well-being has been associated with many positive conditions, as well as work, family, social, and economic benefits. According to Ariza-Montes et al. (2018) some of the positive effects are decreased instance of disease, health risks, stress, and illness, as well as increased optimism, happiness, and joy. Ariza-Montes et al. (2018) stated that psychological well-being integrates aspects of mental health and is valuable in disease prevention. There are also positive effects derived from psychological well-being, such as decreased stress and risks and increased happiness and joy (Bell, 2017). When there is no psychological well-being, there are also negative effects such as increased threats, resistance, and detachment (Baumeister & Landau, 2018). Figure 2.2 below depicts a balanced overview of the effects of psychological well-being.



Figure 2.2: Effects of psychological well-being

In figure 2.2, there is strong evidence that psychological well-being triggered both positive and negative effects and in some way provide health benefits (Cilliers, 2011; ávila-Pérez, Longoria-Gándara, García-Rosales, 2018). In light of the above, Hofstede, Hofstede Insights (2018) and Rothmann (2009) agreed that both work-related well-being effects and attributes are important contributors in guiding a person's positive or negative concentration of energy at work and, subsequently, may increase their organisational commitments. Moreover, Ariza-Montes et al. (2018) conceded that certain personal factors such as ill health, physical and poor psychological health are contributors to many poor organisational results.

Coetzee and Rothmann (2008) as well as Bozionelos and Singh (2017) discovered that many ill health and psychological well-being problems result from negative organisational influences. Quite often, junior leaders who consider their conditions and social welfare and

that of their followers tend to benefit from a wide variety of well-being determinants (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Ryff, 2018). Hefferon et al. (2017) and Voyer and Boyer (2001) posed that psychological well-being is actually an indication of the positivity that is meaningful to people. In fact, many of the imbalances between psychological, physical and avoidance resources may pose health challenges for junior leaders (Hattingh & Cutt, 2009; Ariza-Montes et al., 2018). Consequently, a level of uncertainty, anxiety, and lack of internal locus over many challenges and setbacks in the workplace may lead to stress and possibly depression in junior leaders (Hattingh & Cutt, 2009; Hefferon et al., 2017).

Many junior leaders tend to position themselves to understand, and probably know the mechanisms that are needed to manage their life and key risks, which will enable them to manage their general well-being (Ariza-Montes et al., 2018). Importantly, many junior leaders have acquired the responsibility to manage themselves and others' well-being, guide their career aspirations, and influence their level of commitment to their organisations (Borgogni, Consiglio, Allesandri, & Schaufelli, 2012; Hefferon et al., 2017). Generally, junior leaders would need the personal resources of expressive, career orientation, and organisational commitment strategies, and the flourishing attributes, to be able to manage their life and career circumstances in order to flourish in their particular life and intended career and roles (Savickas & Porfelli, 2012; Bertolotti et al., 2018). Moreover, junior leaders would utilise their personal resources and experience to manage work and personal stressors which impeded on their development constructively (Savickas & Porfelli, 2012).

Currently, many organisations are increasingly assisting their junior leaders to strive to improve their overall health and well-being (Coetzee & de Villiers, 2009; Bozionelos & Singh, 2017). Similarly, junior leaders understand the psychological nature and covert behaviour surrounding subordinates and their organisations, while also creating a path for their own developments (Zander, 1993; Bozionelos & Singh, 2017). The approach to healthy and balanced life styles, working conditions, organisational values, and conduct is very important, as these could pose a threat to the state of psychological well-being (WHO, 2008; 2019). Resources available (and their allocation) play a crucial part in helping junior leaders to maintain their health and well-being (Mokgele & Rothmann, 2014; Bozionelos & Singh, 2017). Therefore, any imbalances that occur between junior leaders and their life situations may give rise to risky conditions that affect their psychological well-being (Hefferon et al., 2017).



#### 2.2.1.4 *Junior leaders in the SANDF*

In the context of this research, the concept of junior leaders was encapsulated in the construction of a psychological well-being framework (Diener et al., 1999; 2010; Keyes, 2007; 2018). It was therefore necessary to explore junior leaders' psychological well-being, as well-being elements and resources can assist junior leaders to manage, improve, and flourish in their lives, as well as to manage unpleasant conditions and work experiences. Furthermore, it allowed them to reduce the effects of stressful feelings, conditions, events, ill health, and depression caused by unpleasant work, and the stressful and life experiences of military operations (Keyes, 2007; Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Marx & Liebenberg, 2019).

Junior leaders need the psychological well-being attributes to be able to lead and command subordinates and to control human and physical resources that increase optimal functioning in their workplaces (Van Dyk, 2009; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2014; Young & Burton, 2018). Furthermore, it is widely accepted that, in the military environment, junior and senior leaders are expected to be aggressive thinkers, always anticipating and analysing situations in order to make good, solid, tactical assessments and exceptional judgements (Vos, De Vries, Celant & Veenkamp, 2017; Marx & Liebenberg, 2019). Since most junior leaders in the military develop an understanding that nothing will replace another human being, they have increased their adaptive and resilience mechanisms to be able to cope and also manage their overall psychological well-being (Van Dyk, 2015; Young & Burton, 2018).

Junior or senior leaders are also responsible for instilling discipline and maintaining trust, psychological bonds, and connections with the subordinates (Adams & Bloom, 2017). These subordinates are required to obey orders and carry out instructions from the junior leaders diligently, completely, consciously, immediately, and to the best of their ability within the framework of the law and chain of command. This would require strong psychological functioning (Defence Act, 2002). Many junior leaders in the military environment tend to endure trauma and stress every day as a result of witnessing certain circumstances which can destroy their mental well-being, as well as that of the community and their subordinates (Van Dyk & Van Dyk, 2010; Kaplan, 2017). Perry (2006) defined trauma as a psychologically distressing occurrence outside of normal adjustment and human experiences.

Moreover, Castro and Adler (2011) and Adams and Bloom (2017) found that, in most instances, junior leaders in the military who are highly engaged in operations tend to experience high levels of stress. In addition, Britt, Greene, Casto and Hoge (2006) revealed

that there are many junior leaders who are in need of mental health treatment and counselling after military combat operations. Mental health is an important part of junior leaders' career and personal resource management (Rothmann, 2015; Adams & Bloom, 2017). Being psychologically well permitted junior leaders to be autonomous thinkers and to be part of the change, while managing their careers well and increased optimal functioning (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Zhang, 2018). Many of the junior leaders are experiencing stress, depression, and burnout when performing their jobs (Bokti & Talib, 2009; Cook & Geldenhuys, 2018). Burnout and stress have been found to be the most common disturbances to well-being (Rothmann, 2008).

Furthermore, Adams and Bloom (2017) found that, among the national forces members, police officers who encountered dangerous actions from criminals are most prone to stress, depression, and burnout, in a way similar to that experienced by members of the national defence force. As reported, the threats of weapons of mass destruction and terrorist attacks have increased the psychological impacts of discomfort, anxiety, stress, and decline in cognitive functioning (Oodt, 2001; Marx & Liebenberg, 2019). However, many of the junior leaders' levels of uncertainty, anxiety, and possible loss of control over the situations have led to stress, depression, an inability to deal with unbearable life and health effects, and negative affect on proper career decision making (Fried, 1982; Ibeaheem et al., 2018).

At certain times, junior leaders in the SANDF are faced with situations in military operations and certain missions that force them to make difficult tactical military decisions (Van Dyk, 2009; Adams & Bloom, 2017). Some of these situations involve junior leaders witnessing some day to day catastrophic or military attacks, which may plunge their psychological states and lives into ill conditions, and subsequently affect their entire lives and those of their colleagues (Bokti & Talib, 2009; Van Dyk, 2009; Cook & Geldenhuys, 2018). In the context of the current study, junior leaders' stress and burnout resulted from the imbalances between strong capabilities and the pressure to meet certain given targets (Eggerth & Cunningham, 2012; Marx & Liebenberg, 2019). Very importantly, preparation and planning for aspects of war, terrorism, and military invasions can be serious health distractions and, subsequently, be a threat to the emotional and psychological life of junior leaders (Van Dyk, 2009; Marx & Liebenberg, 2019).

The imbalances occurring between people and their lives may breed negativity and resentment sentiments, which ultimately affect their psychological well-being (Rothmann, 2015). Study by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) and later on Cook and Geldenhuys (2018) indicated that higher job demands and responsibilities tend to become stressors, while

positive responses and high resources tend to increase well-being. Furthermore, junior leaders need to approach and assist co-workers to break free of their comfort zones, forge new relationships, and become visionaries and emerging leaders (Cascio & Boudreau, 2014; WHO, 2008; 2017; 2019). Most junior leaders possess the ability to engage the minds, hearts, and lives of their followers, and understand well which buttons to press to stimulate their immediate action, pride, joy, faith, hope, and perseverance to increase loyalty and commitment to the organisational goals and objectives (Sloane, 2006; Maladzi, 2013; Adams & Bloom, 2017). Furthermore, junior leaders understood that the task of the soldier is to defend and protect the country's territorial integrity and its people (Defence Act, 2002). Therefore, many junior leaders are obliged to render service at any given time of the day or any day of the year (Defence Act, 2002).

Overall, SANDF junior leaders know that they are expected to execute all legal orders and instructions given, and to execute these given duties during normal or abnormal work periods (more than what can be prescribed for normal official workdays or weeks) (DODI, 2002). When these extensions and conditions of military service are levelled against the junior leaders, and depending on the nature of the activities or operations, these leaders tend to experience excessive amounts of stress or anxiety and excessive job over- or under-loading (Defence Review, 2013; Van Dyk, 2009; Marx & Liebenberg, 2019). Meanwhile, Gray (2018) pointed out that poor leadership contributed to high stress levels among many subordinates. Bass (1990) then argued that many of the military structures are, by their very nature, valuing autocratic behaviour.

Gray (2018) agreed with Ledimo (2012) that autocratic leadership behaviour tends to breed resentment and negativity. Generally, junior leaders' issue is well enshrined in the SANDF policy doctrine and its structures (Defence Act, 2002). In short, the chief of the armed forces stressed that junior and senior leaders' capacity development should include an acquisition of knowledge and skills and the sustainability thereof, as well as the ability to shape thoughts processes (Defence Review, 2013). Moreover, Shoke (2010) emphasised that most of the subordinates expected their junior and senior leaders to speak out on matters of values and inner feelings so that they can stabilise their emotions and feelings and increase their energy and mental well-being.

Therefore, these junior leaders need to continue to self-develop their personal value and, assess their inner selves through the discovery of fundamental beliefs which guide their decisions and actions (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Gray, 2018). Basically, it is understood that junior leaders, irrespective of their level of service and functional responsibilities, should

be able to perform planning, leading, controlling, and organising responsibilities (Cascio & Boudreau, 2014). ávila-Pérez et al., 2018). Essentially, a good junior leader should be able to inspire people to optimise their organisational successes, as well as sound business financial returns (Lewis, 2011; Cascio & Boudreau, 2014; Zhang, 2018). Many of the social supports that are derived from colleagues, supervisors, and family members are important as they provide opportunity for junior leaders to be able to deal with life setbacks and possibly remain well (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006; Ibeaheem et al., 2018).

Most of the junior leaders' social support may be influenced by the degree of social support gained from family, colleagues, peers, seniors or their subordinates, self-efficacy, and social support structures (Mensah, 2018). Self-efficacy entails an exposure or perception that an individual holds, cares for and values most, but also being ready to be guided by fellow employees, colleagues, and family members (Cook & Geldenhuys, 2018; Taneva & Arnold, 2018). Geh (2009) and Jit, Sharma and Kawatra (2017) found that self-esteem also enhances workplace spirituality and contributed positively to psychological well-being. In turn, self-esteem would enhance positive thinking. Many careers consist of both positive and negative life experiences and good or bad life responses (Hall & Herass, 2012; Wong, 2017).

There is a view that if junior leaders are more supportive and less controlling, their subordinates' well-being will automatically be enhanced (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Zhang, 2018). There is a serious need for junior leaders to learn to interact, build trust, be supportive, and not to exploit others, so that they will be appreciated and respected more (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Mueller, Wolfe, & Syed, 2017). Ascending to the junior leader position would require psychological or emotional resilience, cognitive resources, a high level of endurance, and sharp thinking (Rothmann & Buys, 2011; Mensah, 2018).

#### *2.2.1.5 Conclusion*

In conclusion, the experiences of the 21<sup>st</sup>-century world of work produced overwhelming levels of stress, caused by high demands for new leaders, continuous change, transformation, complexity, uncertainty, and alienation (Bennis, 2007; Botha & Mostert, 2014; Jit et al., 2017; Ibeaheem et al., 2018). The literature indicated that junior leaders' well-being is a crucial ingredient to getting workplace efficiency in place. As Keyes (2002) and Mensah (2018) elaborated, the concept of well-being goes beyond health as an absence of ill health, to optimal physical and psychological strength. The current study stressed the need to shape the behaviours and characters of junior leaders to help them live

and work in a meaningful manner which leads to well-being. Table 2.2 outlines the various approaches that define psychological well-being.

Table 2.2

*Defining Psychological Well-being*

Ryff (1989; 2018)	Defined psychological well-being as a broad concept which embraces good health and psychological functioning. Psychological well-being is a reflection of junior leaders' overall satisfaction, his or her positive affect, and happiness with life.
Voyer and Boyer (2001)	Defined psychological well-being as an indication of the positivity that is meaningful to junior leaders.
Voyer and Boyer (2001)	Psychological well-being integrated the mental strength, physical, and healthy life style of a junior leader.
WHO (2004; 2017; 2019)	Psychological well-being refers to junior leaders' capacity to live creative, purposeful, and productive lives, while also dealing with life's inevitable adversities.
Westaway and Maloka (2005)	Psychological well-being refers to a subjective well-being which consists of cognitive (individual's life satisfaction), attentive, and emotional well-being components.
Diener, Lucas, and Oishi (2005)	Psychological well-being is the result of junior leaders' thought processes, immediate behaviour, emotions, and external life experiences.
Diener et al. (2010)	Psychological well-being focus primarily on the way in which junior leaders would value the quality of their life experiences.
Diener et al. (2010)	Psychological well-being included relatedness and human connections, self-assurance, self-acceptance, and self-confidence.
Akhter (2015)	Psychological well-being is a broadly positive mental state which included emotional reactions, and satisfaction with life events, which may ultimately contribute to the positive psychological functioning of a junior leader.
Akhter (2015; Akhter et al., 2017)	Psychological well-being is defined as a junior leader's broad positive mental state, which includes emotional reactions, judgement, and satisfaction with life eventualities.

ávila-Pérez, Longoria-Gándara, García-Rosales, (2018)	Psychological well-being is highly regarded as the most important health contingency construct to overcome the 21 <sup>st</sup> -century health challenges.
---	---

In summary, psychological well-being would then be regarded as a positive indication resulting from many social and economic hardships, and threatening conditions, all employed in the pursuit of a comfortable life. Furthermore, psychological well-being is an indication and sign of positive outcomes after stressful life events, as well as of hardiness, making the correct life choices, and the resilience testing elements endured during the process of securing a comfortable life and career satisfaction and development.

### **2.3 PSYCHOLOGICAL DISPOSITIONAL ATTRIBUTES**

This section elaborate on the constructs of psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment).

#### **2.3.1 Conceptual foundation of psychological dispositional attributes**

The research focused on developing a psychological well-being profile for junior leaders. In view of the above, junior leaders need a psychological well-being consisting of relatedness and human connections, self-assurance, self-acceptance, and self-confidence to increase their overall well-being (Diener et al., 2010; Tufail et al., 2017; Hofstede, Hofstede Insights, 2018). Subsequently, the junior leaders tend to develop close ties with their family, colleagues, and co-workers in order to enhance their overall positive self-image or outlook (Diener et al., 2010; Alghamdi, Aslam, & Khan, 2017; Tufail et al., 2017). The current construct of psychological well-being is based in the positive psychology field and integrated many aspects of wellness, positive health, and social well-being (Diener et al., 2010; Faircloth, 2017).

##### *2.3.1.1 Conceptualisation of emotional affect*

Even though positive psychology advocates for a positive outlook and healthy living, it is important to study the negative aspect indications of well-being, as negative emotional experiences motivated junior leaders to deal with their current and future life and health setbacks (Fredrickson & Losada, 2005; Niemiec, 2018). In essence, emotional affect can be an indicator of positive health and enhanced psychological well-being (Coetzee et al., 2015; Alghamdi et al., 2017). The literature indicates that positive emotions, healthy, and well-

functioning junior leaders would flourish (possess high energy/vitality) because their social and career needs would be well catered for (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Alferaih, 2017; Hofstede, Hofstede Insights, 2018). While well-being, attachment, and commitment are the results of many positive health antecedents, Meyer and Malton (2010), Grady and Grady (2013) and Bozionelos and Singh (2017) argued that, in most instances, a loss in organisational attachment contributed to an increase in negative emotional affects, instability, poor performance, and continual ill health factors. In the context of psychological well-being, many junior leaders tend to evaluate their inner strength and capabilities based partly on the state of their emotional arousal, and partly on their emotional experiences of irritation, fear, anger, stress, and tension, all of which tend to influence the manner in which they react to certain occurrences (Bandura, 1982; Alferaih, 2017).

Additionally, emotional affect is best understood as the expressed feelings or emotional actions which may have been triggered by certain events or actions that require responses (Gregg & Seigworth, 2010; Niemiec, 2018). Fredrickson (2000) defined positive affect as the emotional state of feeling joy, excitement, and contentment, while Seligman (2011) and Blount (2017) found that negative affect indicates feelings of sadness, stress, depression, anxiety, and unhappiness. Junior leaders who reported high positive affect tend to be more optimistic and are more likely to maintain a positive posture in hardship. Additionally, higher personal competence and self-esteem would contribute to junior leaders' self-efficacy (Avey, Luthans, Smith, & Palmer, 2009; Hofstede, Hofstede Insights, 2018).

Emotional affect is explained as an expressed emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2001; Akhtar et al., 2017; Goleman, 2018). While emotional intelligence emphasises the ability of junior leaders to monitor their own and others' thoughts and emotions and regulate these emotions, affect entails the expression of the emotions and feelings (Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Bozionelos & Singh, 2017). Emotional affect is a state of physical or mental, positive or negative expression about an event, person, situation, or object (Watson et al., 1988; Benzur, 2003). Overall, emotional affect is classified into either positive or negative experiences encountered by junior leaders (Bergh, 2014; Akhtar et al., 2017; Bozionelos & Singh, 2017). Positive affect focuses on positive feelings, responses, and adaptive functioning, while negative affect is regarded as an evolving, reactive, and automated response which would normally aim to guide the release of action-related tendencies that are likened to a fight or flight response (Bozionelos & Singh, 2017; Fredrickson, 2001). Accordingly, positive affect would provide junior leaders with positive personal resources which may prepare them for long-term well-being and thriving (Fredrickson, 2001; Faircloth, 2017).

Negative emotions evolve over time and restrict thought-action changes (Houdmont, Leka, & Sinclair, 2012; Papadimitriou, Winand, & Anagnostopoulos, 2017). In addition, Fredrickson (2005) developed a broader theory to bring to attention the aspect of positive affect. The broader theory on positive affect advocates that positive emotions postulate a long-lasting effect on people’s personal growth and their development (Fredrickson, 2005; Blount 2017; Papadimitriou et al., 2017). In essence, emotional affect can be an indicator of positive health and can also contribute to the psychological well-being concept. Positive emotions refer to increased feelings of pleasure while a junior leader goes through the experience of positive feelings (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Bozionelos & Singh, 2017). Further, Algoa and Fredrickson (2011) and Kaplan (2017) cautioned that the effects of positive emotions tend to be long-lasting because personal resources, which are gained from positive exposure, buffer energy to succeed in the face of defeats.

In most instances, junior leaders’ emotions (either negative or positive) resemble an idea or circumstance that is, in some instances, causing emotional and psychological discomfort (Faircloth, 2017; Papadimitriou et al., 2017). As a result of this discomfort, junior leaders will always be in conflict with the thought process. Many of the junior leaders experience constant mood swings, irritability, or tiredness, which may hamper their positive functioning within an organisation (Rothmann, 2009; Ariza-Montes et al., 2018). In actuality, negative emotional affect is necessary to guide and motivate junior leaders to be able to deal with certain life setbacks (Fredrickson & Losada, 2005; Bozionelos & Singh, 2017). Figure 2.3 depicts that emotional affect can be expressed positively or negatively.

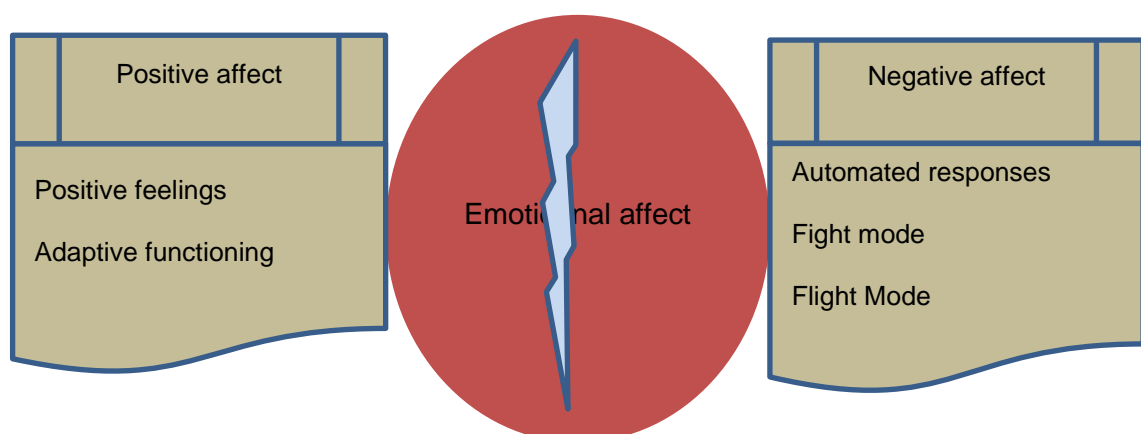


Figure 2.3: Description of positive and negative emotional affect



Earlier, emotional affect (positive and negative) was conceptualised as a motive and driver towards a positive planned goal or an expectation (Watson et al., 1988). Emotional affect is further regarded as a tendency by a junior leader to express his or her positive or negative feelings towards any other person or object (Miyamoto & Chida, 2010; Bozionelos & Singh, 2017). Bozionelos and Singh (2017) argued that emotional response, either negative or positive, is real, and in some instances pointed to the recollection of memories because many junior leaders have a history of inhibiting or advancing either positive or negative emotional experiences. Meanwhile, Seligman (2011) and Erlingsson and Brysiewicz (2017) stated that positive emotions are vital for flourishing. In agreement, it is stated that positive emotions contributed to the psychological well-being of junior leaders and their satisfaction with life (Seligman, 2011; Bozionelos & Singh, 2017; Ariza-Montes et al., 2018).

Fredrickson (2005) postulated that emotional affect is actually a broad reflection of optimal functioning, resilience, and thinking that triggers positive energy. While Lazarus (1991) and Faircloth (2017) explained emotional affect as a systematic review examining the psychological intensions towards a goal or target, Ryff and Keys (1995) and Erlingsson and Brysiewicz (2017) emphasised that psychological well-being should be described in the two primary conceptions of positive functioning and satisfaction. Positive functioning consisted of positive and negative emotional affect functioning, while life satisfaction is regarded as an overall indicator of well-being (Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Erlingsson & Brysiewicz, 2017).

Garland, Fredrickson, Kring, Johnson, Meyer, and Penn (2010) described emotional affect as a systematic, brief, and multi-component response system which is initiated by the conscious and unconscious changes in people's life experiences. Accordingly, positive affect functioning indicates the human functioning side, while flourishing involves the emotional and psychological well-being of a junior leader (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Erlingsson & Brysiewicz, 2017). According to Faircloth (2017) and Fredrickson (2001), emotional affect involves a thought action tendency which is likened to non-threatening situations that contained positive expectancy. Positive affect intensify junior leaders' positive reactions to well-being (Algoe & Fredrickson, 2011; Guest, 2017).

Fredrickson and Losada (2005) and Carragher and Gormley (2017) contemplated that the amount of time spent experiencing the impact of positive emotional affect may be beneficial to the junior leader's mental well-being; while, in general, the negative emotions affect tends to enhance human flourishing. As indicated, in the area of positive and negative affect, negative emotions tend to motivate junior leaders to cope with and manage their lives, careers, and health setbacks well and, at times, these negative emotions may contribute to

the concept of human flourishing (Fredrickson & Losada, 2005; Hu et al., 2018; Van der Walt, 2018). Therefore, positive emotion tends to contribute to the junior leader's health and enhances his or her optimal functioning in the organisation (Algoe & Fredrickson, 2011; Hu et al., 2018; Van der Walt, 2018). Fredrickson and Branigan (2005) and Faircloth (2017) indicated that, generally, negative emotional tendencies tend to be biased and focused on immediate reactions.

Positive emotions tend to focus more on long-term attentions and may present long-term effects, because positive energy and experiences may increase personal resources and contribute to junior leaders' life coping and flourishing (Erlingsson & Brysiewicz, 2017). Kidd (2008) founded that both well-being and positive emotions would be guided by the level of happiness and satisfaction in respect of career aspirations. The SANDF environment tends to be a complicated area that involved the use of emotions in all force preparations and operations. The positive emotion would assist these junior leaders to understand when to express positive expressions that contribute to the success of missions and their overall work performances (Fredrickson & Losada, 2005; Hentschel, Eid, & Kutscher, 2017).

Even though Algoe and Fredrickson (2011), and Hentschel et al. (2017) suggested that negative emotions would motivate and increase ability to cope with setbacks and suddenly improve on psychological conditions and well-being seriously, Hu et al. (2018) and Martínez-Martí and Ruch (2017) are of the view that the negative affect of constant mood swings, irritability, or tiredness may actually hamper positive psychological functioning and the ability to instill hope and positivity in organisational performances (Joshnloo, 2017). Since junior leaders need to flourish, their positive emotions will increase their drive to achieve long-term intentions and life or career targets (Farnia, Nafukho, & Petrides, 2018). Therefore, psychological well-being will empower junior leaders to measure their ideal conception of positive functioning, happiness, and satisfaction in order to thrive in their respective careers and lives (Ryff & Keys, 1995; Erlingsson & Brysiewicz, 2017).

### *2.3.1.2 Conceptualisation of career orientations*

The movement towards boundary-less career initiation requires that many organisations work harder to gain deeper insight into the broader career consciousness of their junior leaders, while also re-considering the methods they can use to motivate them to choose careers while staying within their current organisation (Coetzee, 2012; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2012; Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2012; Cortés-sánchez & Grueso-hinestroza, 2017). Interestingly, career development research has pointed out that in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, many

junior leaders have entered the world of work and have changed how careers are viewed (Marshall, & Bonner, 2003; Abessolo, Rossier, & Hirschi, 2017). Indeed, junior leaders view careers differently from older-generation workers, and they are increasingly seeking lateral careers as opposed to hierarchical career paths (Marshall & Bonner, 2003; Cortés-sánchez & Grueso-hinestroza, 2017; Subrahmanyam, 2017).

Careers are seen as a means to achieve autonomy and the freedom to do certain jobs (Coetzee et al., 2017). The concept of career orientations has been defined as a broad concept which may provide valuable information on what really drives junior leaders' career motives and their choices (Coetzee, 2007; Cortés-sánchez & Grueso-hinestroza, 2017). Career orientations would stimulate junior leaders' thoughts and feelings about their areas of development (Schein, 1996; Nzozzo, 2017). DeLong (2008) defined career anchors as a composite of one's career orientations and self-perceived talents. Career orientations have been described as career anchors (Schein, 1978; Wang et al., 2019). Generally, career anchors consist of a set of self-perceived talents, abilities, basic values, and evolving motives and needs that may influence junior leaders' career decisions (Schein, 1975; 1978; 1996; Zhang, 2018; Wang et al., 2019).

Career anchors are evolving and tend to develop when a junior leader increases his or her life expectations and experiences (Schein, 1978; Glasper & Rees, 2017). In a nutshell, career orientations consist of inner feelings and means of predicting the commitment, satisfaction, motivation, performance, and experience of choices by junior leaders (Schein, 1996; Coetzee et al., 2017). Since career orientations (career anchors) tend to develop while a junior leader's life changes and while life experience is also increasing, career orientations will be classified as an aggregate of the junior leader's total self-concept and abilities (Schein, 1975; 1978). Self-concept is a psychological construct that would indicate a junior leader's overall values and motives, as well as their understanding of themselves and the meaning of life (Subrahmanyam, 2017; Wang et al., 2019).

The literature indicates that, in most instances and around the globe, careers that were regarded as secure are on the brink of collapsing due to changing world of work (Sullivan, 1999; Subrahmanyam, 2017). Basically, career orientations refer to "a set of career anchors", which are based on the premise of the eight career anchors (security/stability, entrepreneurial/creativity, service/dedication to a cause, life style, autonomy, pure challenge, general managerial, and technical/function), according to Schein (1987; 1990; 1996). Butler and Waldroop (1999) indicated that this set of eight career anchors are integrative and very important to individuals' career choices, and would also partly indicate the reason why some

junior leaders would decide to stay committed to their current organisations. Feldman's and Bolino's (1996) and Abessol et al. (2017) studies showed that when junior leaders find the balance between their career preferences, work organisation, and family, they may achieve more positive results.

Junior leaders' career motives, values, and psychological resources impact heavily on their career choices, decision making, and psychological engagement with occupations (Schein, 1996; Feldman & Bolino, 2000; 2006; Kniveton, 2004; Ferreira, 2010; Van Wingerden, Bakker, & Derks, 2017). Junior leaders who demonstrated high career orientation may choose jobs that are challenging because they are opportunities to test competency in relation to peers (Spence & Helmreich, 1983; Gaspard & Rees, 2017). Career anchors consist of non-monetary factors that help individuals to select their most appropriate careers (Hofstede, Hofstede Insights, 2018; Schein, 2000). Since career anchors are operationalised as career orientations, it was measured by the career orientations inventory. The career life of a junior leader in the SANDF is arranged hierarchically and skewed towards military operations (Wang et al., 2019). The literature indicated that a leader showing psychological well-being will be motivated to choose suitable careers that assist their ascension to the next area of responsibility (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2012; Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2012; Wang et al., 2019).

As Marshall and Bonner (2003) and Faircloth (2017) stated, during the 21<sup>st</sup> century, there has been an influx of young people choosing the military as a career and a way of life. For this reason there was a need to research further on the different career orientations that would help leaders prevent stagnation and increase their well-being and flourishing as junior leaders in the SANDF. Importantly, if junior leaders are able to establish career preferences that match the SANDF career management and progressions systems with their family, social life, and interests, they may stay committed and flourish (Feldman & Bolino, 1996; Cortés-sánchez &, Grueso-hinestroza, 2017). Career orientations may stimulate junior leaders to enhance their potential, thoughts, feelings, and motives, which could bring forth a sense of commitment to the course (Schein, 1996; Subrahmanyam, 2017).

### *2.3.1.3 Conceptualising organisational commitment*

The classical study by Porter (1974) conceptualises organisational commitment as a relative strength that can be displayed by a junior leader, and which includes his or her complete identification and involvement within a particular organisation. Earlier, Sheldon (1971) stated that organisational commitment is a positive analysis and decision to stay within the

organisation for a longer period. Moreover, Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) classified organisational commitment into three parts: (i) as a strong belief and acceptance of organisational goals and values, (ii) as a willingness to exert considerable efforts on behalf of the organisation, and (iii) the ability to maintain strong organisational desires to remain within an organisation. Organisational commitment is also regarded as a junior leader's total internal motivation and pressure that compels them to act in a particular manner, which aligned them with the organisational goals and interests and increase their intentions to stay within the organisation (Wiener, 1982; Wu & Cheng, 2018). The literature indicated that there is a direct and positive correlation between junior leaders' commitment and their health and well-being (Meyer, Maltin, & Thai, 2012; Khalili, 2017). Many organisations need to nurture and strengthen their junior leaders' sense of attitudinal and affective behaviour to motivate their intentions to stay within the organisation (Kalleberg & Marsden, 1995; Coetzee, 2017; Hall, Yip, & Doiron, 2018).

The current organisational commitment construct is part of positive psychology and behavioural approaches. The behavioural approach advocates for concrete, objective, observable, immediate, and durable actions in junior leaders' lives (Ivey, Simek-Downing, 1980; Wu & Cheng, 2018). Commitment is thus actually a trade-off happening between the organisation and the junior leader, whereby benefits and opportunities are presented to a junior leader and he/she is also ready to transact (Blau & Boal, 1987; Daka & Tamira, 2019). Organisational commitment is explained further as a psychological connection, which describe how junior leaders are emotionally connected to their current organisations, and also whether they intend to quit or stay (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993; Kozlowski, Hutchinson, Hurley, & Browne, 2018). Importantly, Seligman (2011) and Coetzee (2014) found a strong relationship between the attributes of commitment and flourishing.

In their study, flourishing participants were able to manage their work-related stressors effectively, showed a high level of commitment to the organisation, and, in most instances, conform to the status quo of their workplaces (Coetzee, 2014; Khalili, 2017). There is a tendency and inspiration to remain committed to the current organisation because some of the junior leaders would manage to increase their inner feelings of attachment to the organisational values and its goals (Ferreira, 2009; Khalili, 2017). An increase in psychological attachment and the degree of satisfaction would attract junior leaders to take the decision to remain anchored in their current organisations (Chow, 1994; Kozlowski et al., 2018).

Organisational commitment can also be coined as a force which may bind some of the junior leaders to a course of action relevant to one or more targets, while Miller (2003) and Zysberg and Kasler (2017) also explained organisational commitment as a state in which junior leaders can develop multiple skills that enable them to accomplish set goals, and then choose to remain committed to the mission of that organisation. As part of organisational commitment, the life satisfaction construct also builds on the positive psychology aspects of self-concept and happiness (Maqbool, Sudong, Manzoor, & Rashid, 2017). The building of self-concept is very important in junior leaders' career development because it may increase their psychological well-being (Diener et al., 2010; Faircloth, 2017). Junior leaders experiencing negative emotional affects such as stress and depression would struggle to remain fully committed to the organisation (Magyar-Moe, 2009; Maqbool et al., 2018). The level of mistrust, increasing cynicism, financial pressure, and continuing challenges may adversely impact on the junior leader's level of organisational commitment (Manion, 2004; Kim, Park, & Kim, 2018).

According to Allen and Meyer (1990; 1991) organisational commitment is described by the three valences of normative (evaluation of financial benefits), continuance (awareness in relation to cost of leaving), and affective (feelings toward organisation) commitment. Meyer and Herscoted (2001) postulated that, in essence, organisational commitment included emotions, behaviour, and values which individuals value the most. Therefore, junior leaders who have the will to affectively commit themselves to an organisation will stay within the organisation for longer periods because they tend to perceive their employment conditions as harmonious (Beck & Wilson, 2000; Kozlowski et al., 2018). More lighter, organisational commitment can be regarded as an emotional and psychological contract or psychological obligation that binds junior leaders to a certain noble cause of action related to one or more target or goal (Maqbool et al., 2017). Many factors such as treatment, obedience, job satisfaction, loyal behaviour, and perceptions held by junior leaders have the tendency to trigger certainty or uncertainty about levels of commitment (Coetzee & Botha, 2010; Kim et al., 2018).

Moreover, organisational commitment is regarded as an emotional and/or a moral attachment to a certain organisation or an industry (Mowday et al., 1979; Wiener, 1982; Kaplan, 2017). The moral attachment is actually emotionally motivated and reveals how junior leaders feel obliged; how they feel they owe progress or fortunes to their current organisation (Wiener, 1982; Zysberg & Kasler, 2017). Furthermore, organisational commitment includes attitude and behaviour descriptions that enable junior leaders to be

linked to a specific organisation and, possibly, make proper decisions to stay within an organisation (Ferreira, 2009; Zysberg & Kasler, 2017). Allen and Meyer (1991) defined organisational commitment as an internal and external system that connects personnel to an organisation. Internal systems would be regarded as emotional connection and psychological and behavioural elements, while external systems would include motivational elements, rewards, and material elements (Allen & Meyer, 1991; Nzonzo, 2017). Ferreira (2009) coined organisational commitment as an affection, ethical responsibility, or obligation towards an identified organisation.

Overall, organisational commitment entails perceived organisational support and trusting relationships that would benefit both the junior leader and the organisation (Whitner, 2001; Kim et al., 2018). Organisational commitment is a psychological connection that takes place between a junior leader and his or her organisation of choice, and which has attractive elements such as involvement, belief in, and loyalty towards the current organisation (O'Reilly, 1989; Wu & Cheng, 2018). Furthermore, commitment is actually regarded as an intention to pursue a positive cause of action at all costs, even if it is risky (Pittinsky & Shih, 2005; Maqbool et al., 2017). Generally, organisational commitment should be an emotional and behavioural vow that junior leaders were obligated to accomplish or fulfil within an organisation (Meyer & Herschovich, 2007; Kaplan, 2017). The above indicates that organisational commitment is an emotional attachment and devotion to a cause, as it may allow intrinsic involvement of junior leaders to engage fully in the achievement of their set goals and self-development (Morrow, 1993; Zysberg & Kasler, 2017).

According to Miller and Lee (2001) and Nzonzo (2017), organisational commitment is channelled by certain behaviours, attitudes, beliefs, and values that sustain active participation in set objectives. Therefore, the current study of organisational commitment was relevant to junior leaders in that they are required to indicate certain sets of attitude and behaviour that are aligned with those of a military institution, and most probably make the decision to stay permanently (Ferreira, 2009; Tamira, 2019). In line with Cohen's (2003) explanation, junior leaders will be able to embrace organisational commitment attributes because they are regarded as a force binding them to a particular course of action that may trigger their emotional attachment to an organisation. As Whitner (2001) and Cook and Geldenhuys (2018) elaborated, the current study will be of benefit because organisational commitment would assist junior leaders to establish trusting relationships with subordinates and senior leaders, which would enhance both their well-being and commitment to the missions.

Accordingly, organisation commitment attributed would increase junior leaders' internal pressure and may compel them to commit fully to the activities in line with organisational prerogatives and interests, as well as affect their intentions to either stay within the organisation or leave it (Wiener, 1982; Kozlowski et al., 2018). Normally, junior leaders would need factors such as treatment, obedience, satisfaction, loyalty, and commitment to carry out operations successfully (Coetzee & Botha, 2010; Van Dyk, 2012; Zysberg & Kasler, 2017). Table 2.3 provides a summary of psychological dispositional attributes conceptual definitions.

Table 2.3  
*Summary of Dispositional Attributes Constructs*

<b>Dispositional attributes</b>	<b>Author</b>	<b>Definition</b>	<b>Core definition</b>
Emotional affect	Bandura (1982)	Is based on emotional experiences of irritation, fear, anger, stress, and tension.	Echoed that junior leaders would normally evaluate their inner strength and capabilities based partly on their state of emotional arousal and on their emotional experiences of either irritation, fear, anger, stress, or tension, which tend to influence the manner in which they react to certain occurrences.
	Watson et al. (1988); Benzur (2003)	Is regarded as a physical or mental, positive or negative expression directed towards a person, situation, or object.	Emotional affect is considered to be the physical or mental, positive or negative expressions directed towards junior leaders, situations, or objects.
	Watson et al. (1988)	Is a thought process action that is related to a conducive situation that contains positive expectations.	Emotional affect involves a thought action tendency that is likened to non-threatening situations that contain positive expectancy.



Peter Salovey and John Mayer (1990).	Entails the expression of emotions and feelings.	Emotional affect entails the expression of the emotions and feelings by of junior leaders towards subordinates or senior leaders.
Lazarus (1991)	Is directed towards a person and intended to help achieve a goal or target.	Defined emotional affect as a systematic review examining the psychological intensions towards a goal or target.
Fredrickson (2001)	Is an overall reflection on optimal cognitive positive functioning that activates positive reactions.	Emotional affect is actually a broad reflection of optimal functioning, resilience, and thinking that triggers positive energy.
Fredrickson (2005)		Positive affect provides junior leaders with positive personal resources that prepare them for long-term well-being and thriving.
Ivancevich, Konopaske, and Matteson (2005)	Is an attitude that related to liking or disliking something.	Emotional affect is a combination of learnt behaviour and approaches that is related to expression of liking or disliking something.
Garland, Fredrickson, Kring, Johnson, Meyer, and Penn (2010)	Is a brief, systematic, multi-dimensional response ignited by conscious and/or unconscious action.	Described emotional affect as a brief, systematic, multi-component response systems initiated by conscious and unconscious changes.
Miyamoto and Chida (2010)	Is a positive or negative feeling directed at a person or object.	Emotional affect is the tendency of a junior leader to express his or her positive or negative feelings towards a person or object.
Gregg and Seigworth	Is the positive or negative expressions or	Emotional affect includes the expressed positive or negative

	(2010)	emotional actions.	feelings or emotional actions.
	Delport (2009)	Emotions are felt expressions directed at achieving a goal.	Emotions are directed and goal oriented.
	Rothmann and Cooper (2015)	Reflects pleasure, excitement, and happiness.	Emotional affect refers to the state of having more pleasure when junior leaders go through the experience of positive affection.
	Miyamoto and Chida (2010)	Is considered to be directed emotional expressions.	Emotional affect is regarded as the tendency of a junior leader to express his or her positive or negative feelings towards a person or object.
Career orientations	Schein (1975; 1978)	Is a combination of self-concept, interest, and abilities that develop and allow individuals to develop competencies that enable them to choose certain careers.	Career orientations (career anchors) are classified as an aggregate of junior leaders' self-concept and abilities because they tend to develop while a junior leader's life changes and while his or her life expectation and experience increases.
	Derr (1980)	Career anchors stimulate cognitive intentions to remain committed to a course of action.	Career anchors inspire junior leaders to remain committed to a cause or to an organisation.
	Spence and Helmreich (1983)	It is regarded as an opportunity to choose from a variety of careers.	Highly career-orientated junior leaders tend to choose challenging jobs because they provide them with opportunities to test their competency in relation to their peers.
	Schein (1990; 1996)	Consists of "a set of self-perceived talents, abilities, basic values, and evolving motives	Career anchors consist of a set of self-perceived talents, abilities, basic values, and evolving motives and needs that would

		and needs that influence career choices”.	influence junior leaders’ career choices.
	Schein (1996)	Are thought processes about certain areas of development.	Career orientations stimulate junior leaders’ thoughts and feelings about their areas of development.
	Schein (1996)	Are thought processes about certain areas of development.	Career orientations stimulate junior leaders’ thoughts and feelings about their areas of development.
	Edogmos (2004)	Is a self-discovery process whereby individuals can choose certain careers from multiple career anchors.	Career orientations indicate a junior leader’s sense of self-discovery and sense of worth, which will motivate the junior leader to make certain career choices.
	DeLong (2008)	Is a combination of career preferences and choices that are aligned with individual interests and the organisation.	Defined career anchors as a composite of one’s career orientations and self-perceived talents.
	Coetzee and Schreuder (2009)	Consist of inner feelings and means of indicating commitment, satisfaction, motivation, and career choices.	Career orientations consist of inner feelings and means of predicting commitment, satisfaction, motivation, performance, and experience of choices by junior leaders.
	Cesinger (2011)	Assist an individual to choose a career that coincides with a particular organisation.	Career orientations include junior leaders’ total work-related behaviour and interests, reflected as career preferences in relation to certain jobs.
	Ndzube (2013)	Career orientations are means by which an individual can arrange career preferences.	Career orientations would assist junior leaders to arrange a set of career abilities which allows them to be employable.

Organisational Commitment			
	Sheldon (1971)	Is a positive analysis and decision to stay longer in an organisation.	Organisational commitment involves a positive analysis and decision by junior leaders who intend to stay within the organisation for a longer period.
	Porter (1974)	Is the strength of an individual's complete identification and involvement with the organisation.	Organisational commitment is regarded as the strength of a junior leader and his or her identification and engagement with the organisational mission and values.
	Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979; Wiener, 1982).	Is explained as an emotional and moral attachment to an industry.	Junior leaders develop certain commitments that involve emotions and intentions within a particular industry, and perform optimally to fulfil their dreams and careers.
	Wiener (1982)	Is regarded as individuals' internal pressures to stay with an organisation longer and to act in a positive way towards the organisational goals.	Organisational commitment is regarded as junior leaders' internal pressures that compel them to act in a particular way towards the organisational goals and interests, as well as their intentions to stay.
	O'Reilly (1989)	Is considered a psychological connection between an junior's aspiration and organisational goals and values.	Organisational commitment is a psychological connection between a junior leader's life and goals and his or her organisation of choice, which has attractive elements.
	Allen and Meyer (1991)	Is an internal and external obligation system that connects a	Is a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic factors that connect a junior leader with a certain

	junior leader with a certain organisation.	organisation.
Morrow (1993)	Organisational commitment is an emotional attachment and devotion to a cause of action.	Organisational commitment occurs when a junior leader develops an emotional attachment and moral obligation to pursue his or her careers and devote energy to fulfil his or her cause of action.
Kalleberg and Marsden (1995)	Tends to motivate individuals to stay in a particular organisation for longer with a view to fulfil their goals.	Organisational commitments strengthen junior leaders' attitude, affection, and behaviour, which may motivate their intention to stay within the organisation.
Miller and Lee (2001)	Is actually activated by beliefs and values and by behaviours and attitudes towards an organisation.	Organisational commitment is channelled by certain behaviours, attitudes, beliefs, and values.
Whitner (2001)	Is about perceived organisational support and trusting relationships that benefit both the junior leader and the organisation.	Organisational commitment occurs when a junior leader perceives that the organisation provides support and builds trusting relationships that will benefit both the junior leader and the organisation.
Cohen (2003)	Is an emotional and psychological contract that the individual undertook, binding him or her to a certain noble course of action.	Organisational commitment is an emotional and psychological contract that ties a junior leader to a certain noble course of action that is related to one or more targets or goals.
Pittinsky and Shih (2005)	Is explained as an intention to pursue a positive cause of action	Organisational commitment is regarded as an intention to pursue a positive cause of action

		at all costs within a particular identified organisation.	at all costs.
	Meyer and Herschovich (2007)	Is regarded as an emotional attachment and attitude towards an organisation, as well as a behavioural vow that individuals undertake towards a particular organisation.	Organisational commitment as an emotional and behavioural vow that junior leaders are obligated to fulfill within an organisation.
	Ferreira (2009)	Is explained as affection, ethical responsibility, or an obligation towards organisational goals.	Organisational commitment is an emotional connection and an ethical responsibility held by a junior leader towards an organisation.
	Meyer and Herscovitch (2001; Kaplan, 2017)	Is an aggregate of the behaviour, values, and interests that a person would embrace the most when drafting his or her life, career, and goals in line with organisational values.	Organisational commitment entails emotions, behaviour, interests, and values which a junior leader would embrace the most when crafting his or her life and career, which he or she would then link to an organisation of choice.

#### 2.3.1.4 Conclusion

To conclude on the conceptual definitions of the dispositional attributes, there is a need to infuse knowledge and skills about health living and enhance psychological well-being amongst junior leaders in the SANDF. Various factors such as mistrust, cynicism, financial pressure, and continuing adversities should be challenged effectively to enhance positivity, commitment, and career-oriented, flourishing junior leaders (Manion, 2004; Maqbool et al., 2017). However, there is a possibility that junior leaders who demonstrated high levels of positivity and who are career anchored would prefer jobs that are challenging and which present many opportunities to grow, which leads to the possibility of flourishing (Spence & Helmreich, 1983; Maqbool et al., 2017).

Very importantly, Bergh (2014) and Kim et al. (2018) indicated that positive affect tends to focus on positive feelings towards an event, activity, or object, while negative affect guides the release of action-related tendencies that are likened to a fight-or-flight response. Earlier, it was shown that when junior leaders show admires an organisation they are likely to stay committed and may even increase their emotional attachment, devotion, and self-development (Meyer & Allen, 1991; 1997; Morrow, 1993; Karimi, Leggat, Bartram, & Rada, 2018). Therefore, junior leaders' willingness to stay committed to their current organisation is basically due to their positive affection, internal feelings and motivations, and how the organisation manages their overall psychological well-being (Watson et al., 1988; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Schein, 1996; Ferreira, 2009; Coetzee, 2012; Wu & Cheng, 2018).

## **2.4 THEORETICAL APPROACHES OF PSYCHOLOGICAL DISPOSITIONAL ATTRIBUTES**

Emotional affect was conceptualised in relation to the positive and negative affect theory (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988), while career orientation was conceptualised from the career anchors model (Schein, 1987; 1990). Organisational commitment was conceptualised from the Three-Component Model (TCM) (Meyer & Allen, 1991; 1997).

### **2.4.1 Theoretical model of emotional affect**

There are no definite models that embody the construct of emotional affect. The construct is approached from Watson et al. (1988) positive and negative emotional activation experiences. For the purpose of the current study these two approaches were scrutinised.

#### *2.4.1.1: Positive and Negative Activation Model (Watson et al., 1988)*

The theory around emotional activation and reactions was originally championed by Salovey and Mayer (1990) and Goleman (2001) under the ability models. However, Salovey and Mayer (1990) studied "intelligence" as part of the emotions, and subsequently coined the concept as emotional intelligence. Even though there is a broad explanation of the emotional expressions, the above theory did not address the emotional "affect" concept (Coetzee et al., 2017). While Salovey and Mayer (1990) described emotional intelligence as the ability to perceive, respond to, and manipulate emotional feelings without processing them, as well as the ability to process and manage emotions without perceiving or experiencing them, Goleman's (2001; 2018) model holds the view that emotional intelligence goes beyond

emotional processing and includes self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management as constructs that help us to understand and regulate emotional intelligence in the lighter view (Chang & Chang, 2010; Karimi et al., 2018).

The Goleman (2001; 2018) model provided a fertile area for further understanding the magnitude and impact of emotional affect on junior leaders' psychological well-being. Moreover, the four mentioned descriptions of emotional intelligence reference the affect or feelings one has towards others or towards an object. Emotional affect is therefore regarded as an aspect of emotional intelligence (Lazarus, 1991; Karimi et al., 2018). Emotional affect would further be explained as junior leaders' ability to freely express emotions to an intended person or object (Kaplan, 2017). Kim et al., (2018) contended that while people are able to express their emotional feelings, they can still regulate and control them in demanding situations and make better decisions. Kim et al. (2018) and Rangritz and Mehrabi (2010) notions were that the experience of emotions can be considered and explained in a negative way as disruptive and resulting from an inability to control and manage feelings and making poor judgements.

Chang and Chang (2010) argued that if emotions are handled and managed effectively, they may lead to better psychological and physical health. The research revealed that emotions form part of junior leaders' daily lives and tend to motivate and affirm certain abilities while contributing to organisational performances (Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Rangritz & Mehrabi, 2010; Maqbool et al., 2017). Devonish and Greenidge (2010) hold a strong view that it is important to understand, assimilate, and regulate emotions in order to advocate positive expression and intellectual growth. In light of the above, Watson et al. (1988) model postulated that emotions can therefore be expressed and regulated as either positive or negative. Naturally, people differ in the manner in which they process and express their emotional responses and feelings (Rangritz & Mehrabi, 2010; Kim et al., 2018).

Accordingly, junior leaders who are emotionally capacitated are aware of their own emotions and express them effectively, and also manage some of the dealings and relationships with others (Yu-Chi Wu, 2011; Khalili, 2017). According to Watson et al. (1988) emotional affect is regarded as a positive or negative expression directed at a person, situation, or object. While positive affect is an intention to express positive feelings or responses, negative affect is regarded as reactive and triggers adverse automatic responses towards an object, event, or person (Fredrickson, 2001; Martínez-Martí & Ruch, 2017).



(a) *Positive affect*

Positive affect is linked to better organisational performance results (Trick, Brandigampola, & Enns, 2012; Kozlowski et al., 2018). The positive and negative affect are part of junior leaders' lives and are able to create a sense of awareness, creativity, and consciousness amongst people (Fredrickson, 2001; Khalili, 2017). Actually, positive affect triggers and broadens curiosity, optimism, and patterns of thought that contain spontaneous and energetic behaviour (Fredrickson, 2011; Maqbool et al., 2017).

(b) *Negative affect*

Fredrickson and Losada (2005) revealed that negative affect can motivate junior leaders to progress further in the face of setbacks while coping with life and health challenges. Negative affect can, however, be destructive, and may trigger adaptive responses such as flight, flee or fight (Papadimitriou et al., 2017). Conversely, positive affect would assist junior leaders to build thought processes of survival and manoeuvring (Fredrickson, 2001; Khalili, 2017). Therefore, it would seem that life and health problems are caused by stressors or anxiety and can also increase maladjustment behaviours (Seligman, 2002; Karimi et al., 2018).

The thought action tendencies tend to assist junior leaders to increase their physical and psychological strength and subsequently find the positive meaning in their life, which in turn would relieve stress and tension and provide emotional upliftment, which contributes to building of resilience (Fredrickson, 2011; Karimi et al., 2018). Figure 2.4 depicted the positive and negative affect adjacencies which are vital to emotional experiences. Importantly, none of the adjacencies are superior to others, and all the positive and negative adjacencies reinforced behaviour towards a positive well-being.

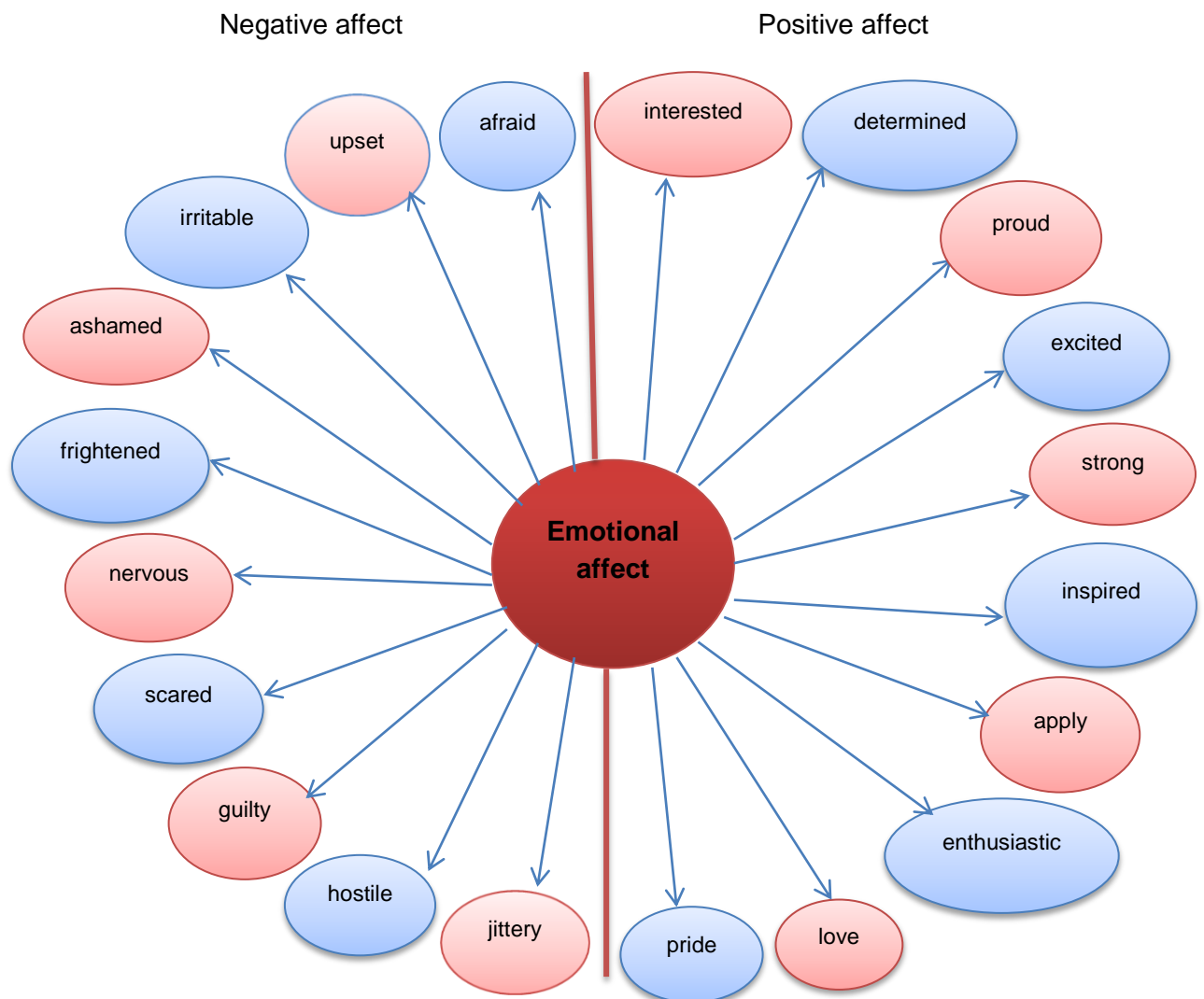


Figure 2.4: Watson et al. (1988) positive and negative activation model.

Moreover, the Watson et al. (1998) model indicated that negative affect tend to be a primary source of psychological and health dysfunctions to many juniours leraders because most these junior leaders tend to express emotions such as anger and fear, which also include neural, cardiovascular, endocrine, and muscular tensions that affect their overall health or well-being (Garland et al., 2010; Kim et al., 2018). According to Garland et al. (2010) research, negative affect often co-occurs with dysfunctional social interactions, which tends to activate psychosocial reactions and antisocial reactions that trigger destructive behaviour that may be associated with uneasiness around these junior leader and others. Conversely, positive affect experiences of joy, amusement, hope, and awe can serve as bulwarks against stress and depression and protect well-being (Garland et al., 2010; Kozlowski et al., 2018).

The study by Cohn et al. (2009) shows that positive affect may broaden junior leaders' thinking and build on their positive thinking, enabling them to reshape who they are and shape their responses. Mitchell, Leachman and Masterson (2017) further established that, generally, life opportunities gave rise to the positive emotional experiences of joy, amusement, and contentment, while life threats gave rise to negative emotional experiences of anger, sadness, and fear. The Watson et al. (1988) positive and negative emotional experience model indicates a strong view that people's emotions tend to be unstable and can be affected by certain environmental and situational factors. It is important to note that the emotional affect will be measured using the Scale for Positive and Negative Activation Experiences (SPAN) (Diener et al., 2010). The current model is the foundation for the SPAN instrument to be used to measure the positive and negative affect construct attributes. Moreover, the model indicates that positive and negative affect tend to be buffers for the psychological well-being of a junior leader.

## **2.4.2 Theoretical models of career orientations**

### *2.4.2.1 The eight career anchors model*

In the field of career psychology, Schein (1990) career anchors contributed immensely to an overview and understanding of how the career of a junior leader is nurtured, managed, and developed to manage employment relations. Many junior leaders have developed different views about the meaning of their careers, and in this regard Schein (1991) also provided a base for understanding and assisting these junior leaders to tackle their careers and make proper decisions which will impact positively on their overall well-being. According to Schein (1990; 2006), a career anchor is derived from combined competencies, motives, values, and talents which are related to work choices. Schein (1990) described career orientations as career anchors. A career anchor is also defined as that element of self-concept which junior leader would not trade or give up easily in spite of difficult choices available to them (Schein, 1987; Coetzee et al., 2017).

In the context of junior leaders' mental well-being, Schein (1990) found that career anchors could help them to predict careers matching their preferences and choices. Wiernik and Kostal (2018) articulated that careers do not just unfold on their own; junior leaders may have to construct their careers based on their life experiences as well as on their well-informed sources. In their study, Usinger and Smith (2010) found that a group of university students who had artistic talents and interests would explore a wide variety of career ideas,

and explore several career alternatives before making their final career choices. Schein (1990; 1996) model of career anchors is important to junior leaders' psychological well-being in that it reveals that many junior leaders would identify their career preferences based on these eight career anchors, in order to flourish in their quest for development. Coetzee and Schreuder (2009; Wiernik & Kostal, 2018) established that the technical/functional anchor is enhanced by the individual's expertise and expectation for further promotions.

The career anchors consist of autonomy/independence (an indication of junior leaders' freewill to use their own initiatives and opinions), the general managerial career anchor (desire to be in a management position and exert control over resources), entrepreneurial/creativity (desire to start own initiatives or use own ways to solve challenges), life style (desire to be manage and been self-concern with own ways of life), pure challenge (ability to challenge opponents and apply own initiatives to solve complicated issues), service dedication/dedication to a cause (ability to align own goals with organisational strategy and remain committed), and security/stability (creating a stable future commitment that is associated with benefits and packages) (Schein, 1990; 1996).

It is understood that the security/stability anchor is maintained through workplace incentives, benefits, and family responsibilities (De Long, 1982; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009; Zysberg & Kasler, 2017). Ross, Reynolds and Genis (2000) and Serinikli (2018) showed that stable economic conditions can lead to stable careers, which in turn tend to contribute to the psychological well-being of junior leaders. Schein (1978) developed a career orientations model, called career anchors, to address the discrepancies between individual career choices and organisation needs. Accordingly, career anchors are grounded on the construct of self-concept (Schein, 1978; Wiernik & Kostal, 2018). Self-concept is an indication of overall meaning in a person including self-conscious, values and motives. In the study, De long (1982) found that the discrepancies between the individual's perceptions about their innate talents, motives, and values and career needs. Junior leaders need to understand that career anchors fluctuate and can be altered or adapted according to economic conditions. Figure 2.5 illustrate Schein (1978; 1990) conceptual framework of the established career anchors.

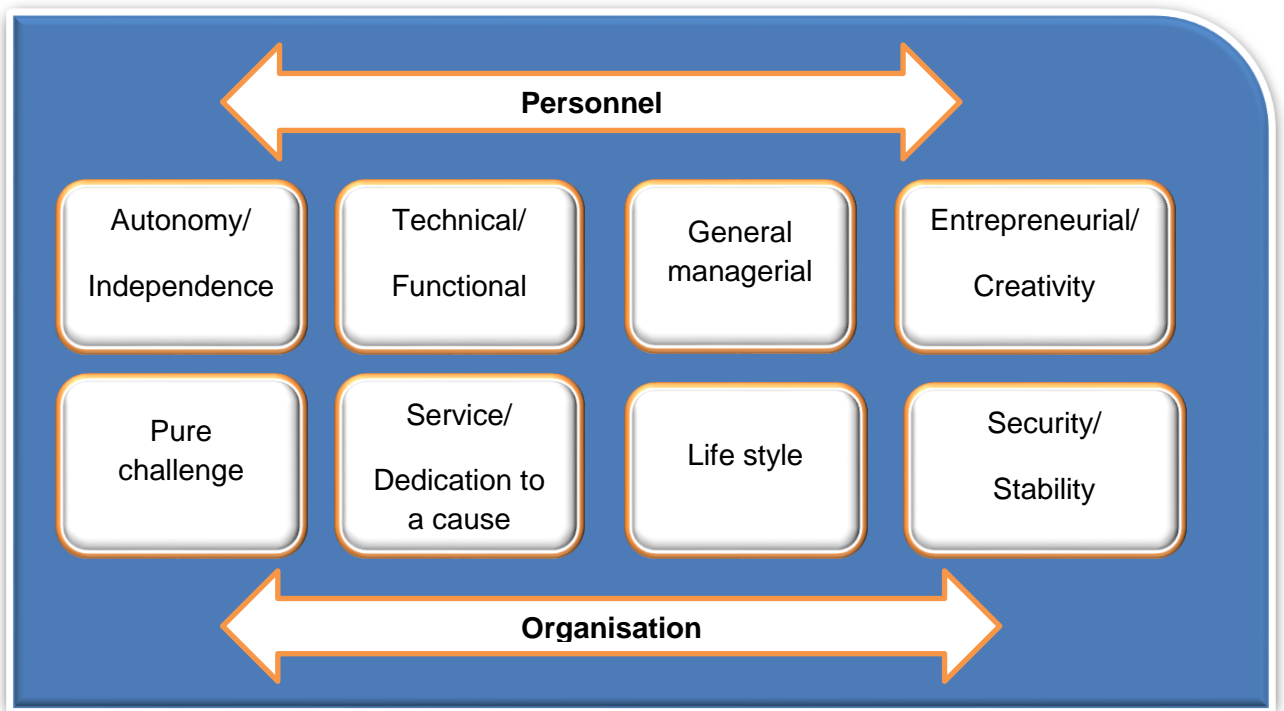


Figure 2.5: Schein (1978; 1990) eight career anchors

Moreover, Suutari and Taka (2004) and Martínez-Martí and Ruch (2017) argued that the misfit between career orientations and the workplace would result in ill health, career misfit, stress, dissatisfaction, or anxiety. Since the study aimed to enhance the psychological well-being of junior leaders, it is important to examine career anchors that would contribute positively to psychological health. The model is the foundation of the Career orientations inventory (COI) scale that will be used to measure the construct of the career anchors attribute (Schein, 1996). Coetzee et al. (2015) found that positive emotions tend to influence an individual's ability to decide on career preferences. Table 2.4 provides the eight career anchors and their explanations.

Table 2.4

*An overview of career anchors*

Career anchor	Explanation
<b>Service/ dedication to a cause (SV)</b>	The strong desire and motivation to serve others well as well as the desire to improve on the workplace or organisation (Schein, 2006). Junior leaders who prefer this career anchor tend to specialise in teaching, nursing, and/or social work services.

<b>Security/stability (SV)</b>	The need for jobs that are secured for a long period of time and accompanied by some benefits.
<b>Autonomy (AU)</b>	The need for freedom from organisational barriers and to make career decisions (Schein, 2006). Junior leaders who prefer this anchor are mostly motivated by a desire to be independent and set their own standard, pace, and goals (Schein, 2006).
<b>Entrepreneurial/creativity (EC)</b>	The need to work in an environment where networking and innovation are encouraged. This career anchor is distinguished from other career anchors in that it is not just about leadership, but also about creating a new venture that is viewed as essential to self-fulfilment (Schein, 2006).
<b>Pure challenge (PH)</b>	The desire to conquer everything in life and at work to prove one's success (Schein, 2006).
<b>General management (GM)</b>	The desire to attain a position of management or the desire for more responsibility or a higher leadership level (Schein, 2006). Junior leaders who prefer this anchor assess the attractiveness and opportunity to ascend in a position based on its importance and role in the organisation (Schein, 2006).
<b>Technical function (TF)</b>	A strong desire for specialisation in one's area of expertise (Schein, 2006). Junior leaders who prefer this anchor are normally motivated to do those jobs that allow them to utilise their unique skills and talents (Schein, 2006).
<b>Life style (LS)</b>	Desire to balance work and life (Schein, 2006). Junior leaders who prefer this career anchor are motivated by a desire to have their careers conform to certain aspects of their lives, and also tend to focus on reshaping their life paths as a whole, rather than only their work (Bailyn, 1989).

In summary, career anchors are then organised in relation to junior leaders' life experiences and insights, which in turn would surface as junior leaders gain more experiences and perform to their utmost best (Schein, 1978; 1996). In relation to the career anchors model, there is a need to articulate the concept further and to find a good fit between juniors' career anchors, abilities, and their conditions of work, as well as with their organisational career paths (Feldman & Bolino, 1996; Wiernik & Kostal, 2018). Any possible misfit between the

person's health conditions, employment status, and his or her feelings or career preferences would result in symptoms of ill health such as stress, anxiety, dissatisfaction, and loss of desire to commit fully to the organisation and tasks (Feldman & Bolino, 1996; Wiernik & Kostal, 2018). Generally, junior leaders' career motives, values, and increased psychological resources would then have an impact on their career decisions and psychological commitments towards an organisation, as well as on when they choose occupations (Schein, 1996; Feldman & Bolino, 2000; Kniveton, 2004; Ferreira, 2010; Wiernik & Kostal, 2018). In their review of Schein's career anchor model, Feldman and Bolino (1996) re-arranged Schein's eight career anchors into three groupings. The three groups are those of need-based, value-based, and talent-based. However, these groupings are not viewed in isolation from individuals' choices and abilities. Feldman and Bolino (1996) main suggestion was that the characteristics of some career anchors can complement each other. Table 2.5 provides an overview of these groupings.

Table 2.5  
*Three Groupings of Career Anchors*

<b>Need-based</b>	<b>Value-based</b>	<b>Talent-based</b>
Security and stability (feeling secured)	Pure challenges (challenging personal endurances)	Managerial competencies (able to solve complex situations and make sound decisions).
Autonomy and independence (able to work independently)	Service and dedication to a cause (maintaining meaningful contributions to work and family)	Technical or functional competencies (development of technical and functional competencies)
Lifestyle motivations (balancing personal, family, and work commitments)		Entrepreneurial creativity (able to innovate and produce products and services)

### 2.4.3 Theoretical model of organisational commitment

#### 2.4.3.1 *The organisational commitments valences (Meyer & Allen, 1997) model*

In addressing the junior leader's level of commitment, the literature indicated that many organisations are competing for scarce resources and also race to penetrate the labour

markets, while most junior leaders compete for limited careers and for recognition as the best performers (Miliani, 2014; Abessolo et al., 2017). Furthermore, many organisations are striving to improve on their returns while at the same time having to meet their junior leaders' needs and career aspirations in order to persuade them to stay committed to their current organisation (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007; 2012; Coetzee et al., 2017). As such, military organisations also recruit and train junior leaders with the view that they will grow, stay on for long, and offer their services to the people for an extended period of time. In this era of turbulent employment and economic turmoil, junior leaders must be assisted to rearrange their careers and adapt quickly to the major labour reforms, while also maintaining their psychological strength, commitment, and health (Savickas, 2012; Abessolo et al., 2017).

Tett and Meyer (1993) argued that both job satisfaction and commitment contribute uniquely to organisational turnovers. Organisational commitment can also be influenced by feelings, values, convictions, and goals that are streamlined towards individuals' current jobs (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009; Kozlowski et al., 2018). The character traits of faithfulness and commitment towards the organisation seem to be directly associated with how well junior leaders will be treated and respond to changes, and also how their aspirations are nurtured within the organisation (Holbeche, 1997; Hughes & Half, 2009; Wiernik & Kostal, 2018).

Meyer and Allen (1997) stated that commitment is normally a force that binds an individual to an identified organisation. Earlier, it was indicated that Meyer and Allen (1997) introduced a three-component model (TCM) to illustrate the synergy and importance of these three components of commitment. Jaros (2007) purported that, at the time, Meyer and Allen (1997) TCM was increasingly being applied to solve workplace career management decisions. Many junior leaders' ability to remain committed to an organisation may bring stability to the organisation (Coetzee et al., 2007 Coetzee et al., 2017). Meyer and Allen (1997) explained organisational commitment in terms of the three valences of normative (evaluation of financial benefits), continuance (awareness in relation to cost of leaving), and affective (feelings toward organisation) commitment.



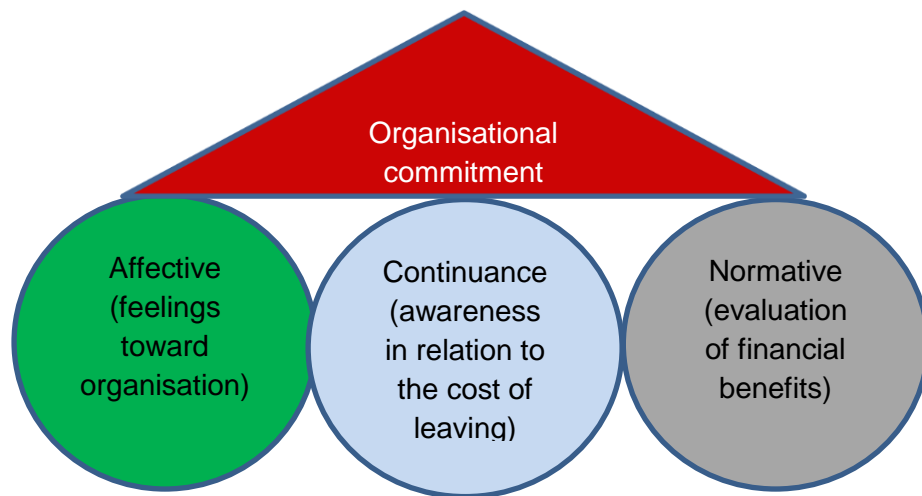


Figure 2.6: Depiction of the three organisational commitments valences (Meyer & Allen, 1997)

Figure 2.6 outlined the three organisational commitments' relationship and indicates that affective commitment will include the junior leaders' affection to the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Affective commitment encompasses individuals' affection, attachment, internalisation, and support of their references towards an organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Moreover, the affective element is indicated by the level of emotional commitment towards an organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Hall, Yip, & Doiron, 2018). The model has been the foundation of the organisational commitment scale (OCS) instrument that was used to measure the construct of organisational commitment attributes (Meyer & Allen, 1993). Organisational commitment is more about how junior leaders devote their energy and loyalty to their respective organisations (Kanter, 1968). Factors such as culture, values, organisational performance, and career orientations also influence junior leaders to remain interactive with and committed to their current organisations (Meyer & Allen, 1990; 1991; 1997; Miller & Lee, 1993; Beck & Wilson, 2000; Hall et al., 2018).

In view of the above explanations, continuance commitment would entail junior leaders weighing up the level of awareness and cost associated with separating from the organisation before making commitment decisions (Wiernik & Kostal, 2018). Generally, it would be beneficial for junior leaders to commit themselves to an organisation, since the decision to stay may be a bonus because their needs may be catered for (Abessolo et al., 2017). Specific fringe benefits such as pensions, insurance savings, and pay-outs may influence junior leaders' decision to stay committed to their current organisation (Kim & Feldman, 2000; Gray, 2018). Since continuance commitment contained the feeling of

entitlement, there is a possibility that any decision associated with this element may pose health risk factors such as anxiety, stress, or feeling secure or insecure (Jaros, 2007; Kozlowski et al., 2018). Meyer and Allen (1990) found that the normative organisational commitment element tends to be influenced by personnel's privilege to remain committed to a particular course. The normative element would typically develop through internal feelings and the socialisation process which junior leaders are accustomed to (Kim & Feldman, 2000). Therefore, it is possible that normative commitment can trigger the positive or negative emotional components which may allow a person to commit to an organisation (Gray, 2018; Hall et al., 2018).

There are other established aspects such as motivation, rewards, and supportive leadership which are the effective elements that would motivate junior leaders to remain committed to the organisation and not think of quitting (Nujoo & Meyer, 2010; Albrecht, Wiernik, & Pelny, 2017). In most instances, junior leaders tend to choose careers which are aligned with their overall life satisfaction, and in turn they tend to be affectively committed to the organisation. Organisations whose junior leaders are showing higher levels of commitment tend to perform optimally and tend to report less turnover (Mitchell et al., 2017). The literature indicated a stronger link between affective commitment and consistent well-being than between continuance commitment and well-being (Meyer & Maltin, 2010; Hall et al., 2018). Even though Feldman and Bolino (2000)'s observation was criticised by numerous studies, it proved that career anchors can be a determiner of junior leaders' levels of commitment to their careers, workplaces, and organisations.

Meanwhile, there is a strong relationship between certainty in terms of the career anchor of stability, and security and organisational commitment (Feldman & Bolino, 2000; Hall et al., 2018). Organisational commitment is elaborated on by Sağlam-Arı (2003) as an identification and integration of the feelings whereby a junior leader can experience involvement and engagement within an identified organisation. In short, commitment describes an emotional or psychological obligation towards certain workplaces (Ölçüm-Çetin, 2004; Wiernik & Kostal, 2018). Commitment is actually regarded as an indication and aggregate of junior leaders' psychological states and feelings of obligation (Meyer & Allen, 1990; Hall et al., 2018). Therefore, in relation to the emotional intelligence background, junior leaders would then display happiness and demonstrate high levels of commitment to their organisations (Goleman, 2005; 2018; Alreshidi, 2018; Kozlowski et al., 2018). When junior leaders become responsible for managing their own lives and careers, many organisations would struggle to motivate them to remain committed to their organisations (Ng & Feldman, 2010; Hall et al., 2018).

## **2.5 DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES INFLUENCING THE PSYCHOLOGICAL DISPOSITIONAL ATTRIBUTES OF JUNIOR LEADERS IN THE SANDF**

This section introduces discussions on the demographic variables of age, race, gender, years of service, and ranks, which may potentially affect emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment. Understanding the demographic variables of junior leaders is important in that they may enhance their flourishing. While psychological well-being enhances health and wellness, flourishing is derived from psychological and social well-being components (Diener et al., 2010; Wiernik & Kostal, 2018). In this section demographic variables affecting emotional affect are first discussed, followed by career orientations and organisational commitment.

### **2.5.1 Emotional affect**

This section discusses the five variables affecting junior leaders' emotional affect

#### *2.5.1.1 Age*

It has emerged that those junior leaders who are 25 years old and younger showed greater self-esteem with regard to their ability to achieve their career plans, and subsequently connect better to their inner emotions than those junior leaders who are 56 years and older (Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010; Evetts, 2017; Kostal & Wiernik, 2017). Older junior leaders tend to avoid being negative, whereas younger junior leaders may prefer to confront any negative emotional experiences (Shiota, 2012; Hall et al., 2018). Meanwhile, junior leaders' emotional feelings can increase much more as they grow older (Khalili, 2012; Kostal & Wiernik, 2017).

#### *2.5.1.2 Race*

Earlier, Robbins et al. (2003) found that different race groups tend to manage and express their emotional feelings differently. While members of the African race group express their emotions outwardly, white and coloured individuals tend to manage their emotions inwardly (Robbins et al., 2003; Alreshidi, 2018). Since there is no significant differences within race groups, it would suggest that junior leaders from different race groups managed their emotions differently.

#### *2.5.1.3 Gender*

Male junior leaders tend to manage their emotions better than female junior leaders (Zijlman, Embrecht, Gertis, Bosman, & Derkson, 2012; Evetts, 2017). Furthermore, female junior

leaders are more aware of their emotional feelings and are more likely to express them any time they wish when compared to male junior leaders (Zijlman et al., 2012; Hall et al., 2018). It has been discovered that female junior leaders would express their emotions than their male counterparts (Lent & Schwartz, 2012). It would seem that male and female junior leaders tend to express their emotional affect differently (Furnham, 2004; Kostal & Wiernik, 2017; Evetts, 2017).

#### *2.5.1.4 Years of service*

Junior leaders performing their duties for a longer period of time tend to experience and express their emotions more often than younger junior leaders serving for shorter periods of time (Cristensen, Isaacowitz & Charles, 1999; Mitchell et al., 2017). It would seem that these long-serving junior leaders are able to express and communicate issues effectively, in contrast with those junior leaders with short-term service records.

#### *2.5.1.5 Rank*

The study indicates that there is a possibility that many senior leaders use fear and threats to intimidate junior leader groups to get performance results (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2013). Short-term service junior leaders seem to be absorbing their emotional setbacks better, than those serving on the long-term service junior leaders (London, 1993; Kostal & Wiernik, 2017). Junior leaders working for short terms may be intimidated and threatened by senior leaders (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2013; Hall et al., 2018).

### **2.5.2 Career orientations**

This section discuss the five variables affecting career orientations

#### *2.5.2.1 Age*

There is a possibility that male junior leaders aged 65 years and above, and who are already in leadership positions, would prefer a variety of possible careers in order to achieve career success. Meanwhile, those junior leaders in the age group of 60 to 64 would preferred the security career anchor due to their years of services, and junior leaders between the ages of 50 and 59 may prefer the career anchors of security, technical or functional competences (Slabbert, 1987; Albrecht et al., 2017).

Furthermore, junior leaders between the ages of 40 and 45 may prefer managerial competence, and junior leaders between the ages of 30 and 39 may prefer managerial competence, entrepreneurship, and autonomy career anchors (Slabbert, 1987; Dahlke & Wiernik, 2018). It would seem that many junior leaders who are in the 26 years and older

age group indicated stronger preference for boundary-less careers that consist of a variety of job opportunities, compared to other age groups (Ferreira & Coetzee, 2004; Albrecht et al., 2017). Young junior leaders tend to search for multiple career anchors in order to secure future employment, while older junior leaders tend to prefer linear and hierarchical pathways (Ferreira & Coetzee, 2004; Kostal & Wiernik, 2017).

#### 2.5.2.2 *Race*

Junior leaders from the white and black race groups seem to not differ in relation to their career orientations preferences (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2008; Hall et al., 2018). More junior leaders from the white race group would prefer the security (tenure) career anchor than those from African/black race groups (Naidoo, 1993; Albrecht et al., 2017). Coetzee's (2008) and Ferreira and Coetzee's (2010) findings suggest that African group may have a significantly stronger to attain managerial level or position of authority which would exposes them to growth and development more often.

Junior leaders from the African race group are more likely to search for greener pastures than those from other race groups (Coetzee & Berg, 2009; Gray 2018). While breaking down the different race groups, Mitchell et al. (2017) and Dahlke and Wiernik (2018) discovered that coloured, Indian, and white race groups tend to be entrepreneurial and demonstrate creativity more than the African race group. Therefore, it would seem clear that junior leaders from the African race group would prefer the security career anchor more than other race groups would (Oosthuizen et al., 2014; Hall et al., 2018).

#### 2.5.2.3 *Gender*

Generally, the research showed that male and female junior leader groups differ in relation to their career preferences (Coetzee & Du Toit, 2012; Kostal & Wiernik, 2017). Moreover, female junior leaders tend to perform better than male junior leaders in relation to career opportunities (Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010; Dahlke & Wiernik, 2018). Therefore, the results indicated that female junior leaders may take career matters and opportunities more seriously than male junior leaders. Ferreira and Coetzee's (2010) results suggested that female junior leaders would seize every career opportunity presented to them. They are also more likely to assign a higher value to the stability career anchor and their career opportunities than males (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009; Kostal & Wiernik, 2017).

Female junior leaders who are single may prefer managerial-type career anchors more than male junior leaders in a group do (Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010; Dahlke & Wiernik, 2018). Female managers experience more responsibilities and job overload than their male counter

part (Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010; Kostal & Wiernik, 2017). Female junior leaders would prefer the technical/functional competence and security career anchors, while male junior leaders may prefer to add the managerial competence and entrepreneurship/creativity career anchors to their development (Greenhaus et al., 2000; Albrecht et al., 2017). Conversely, female junior leaders would prefer the life styles career anchor more than their male counterparts would (Igbaria et al., 1991; Hall et al., 2018).

#### *2.5.2.4 Years of service*

Junior leaders who have a long service record would prefer autonomous career anchors more than young and short-term service junior leaders would (Furnham, 2004; Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004; Dahlke & Wiernik, 2018). Older junior leaders tend to be more loyal and committed than those junior leaders serving for a shorter period of time (Ferreira et al., 2010; Alreshidi, 2018). Additionally, junior leaders serving for more years tend to be more emotionally attached and remain with their current organisation for a longer time (Martin, 2008).

#### *2.5.2.5 Rank*

Junior leaders would spend more time arranging their preferred career orientations and self-development than senior leaders would (Stein & Harold, 1963). Moreover, senior-ranking leaders serving for long in the respective services tend to develop negativity towards their subordinates (Moss & Duffy, 2010; Mitchell et al., 2017). As Pflanz (2001) and Dahlke & Wiernik (2018) pointed out, 75.7% of junior sailors were unsatisfied with their well-being, compared to 42.8% of the senior sailors and 31.8% of other officers. Junior leaders serving on management levels tend to prefer entrepreneurial, pure challenge, and general management career anchors more than junior personnel members do (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2012; Dahlke & Wiernik, 2018).

### **2.5.3 Organisational commitment**

This section discusses the five variables affecting organisational commitment

#### *2.5.3.1 Age*

In their study, Ferreira and Coetzee (2010) established a possibility that older junior leaders would be more normatively committed than young junior leaders. The classical study found that older junior leaders would then tend to be optimistic and would find it attractive to remain loyal and more committed to their current organisations (Cherrington, Condie, & England, 1979; Mitchell et al., 2017). Junior leaders aged 35 and older tend to increase their positive views about their current organisations more than junior leaders from other age groups (Ng

& Feldman, 2010; Hall et al., 2018). Furthermore, older junior leaders would increase their positive emotional balances more than younger personnel would (Ng & Feldman, 2010; Kostal & Wiernik, 2017).

#### 2.5.3.2 *Race*

The study by Ferreira, Schreuder, and Tladinyane (2007) and Coetzee et al. (2017) did not establish any link between race groups in relation to how they are committed to their current organisations. However, it was found that junior leaders from the white race group would not be as committed to their organisation as other race groups, while individuals from the African race group are most likely to remain committed to their current organisations (Lumley et al., 2011; Mitchell et al., 2017). In essence, it was found that junior leaders from the African race group would value a strong attachment to normative commitment more than junior leaders from other race groups would (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Kostal & Wiernik, 2017).

#### 2.5.3.3 *Gender*

In their military careers, male junior officers dominated the military environment more than their female counterparts (Bokti & Talib, 2009; Kostal & Wiernik, 2017). Male junior leaders tend to have more access to work and career opportunities in a male-dominated work station (Lai, Lin & Leung, 1988; Evetts, 2017). Interestingly, male and female junior leaders would be equally committed to their organisations (Marshall & Bonner, 2003; Hall et al., 2018).

#### 2.5.3.4 *Years of service*

Junior leaders with longer service records would indicate that they are more likely to remain committed to their current organisations than those personnel with shorter service records (Jinnett & Alexander, 1999; Alreshidi, 2018). Meanwhile, junior leaders' level of commitment to their organisations may be an incentive to increase their passion to stay committed for longer (Van Dam, 2008; Farnia et al., 2018). Male junior leaders are more committed to their military services and combat activities than female junior leaders (Winsor, 1996).

#### 2.5.3.5 *Rank*

Senior-ranking personnel tend to have strong affective commitment because they are willing to remain committed to their organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Hall et al., 2018). Many unhappy junior leaders would rather leave their current organisation than remain partially satisfied for a long time in their current organisations (Goldstein & Smith, 1995; Kostal & Wiernik, 2017).

Table 2.6

*Summary of the Demographic Variables Affecting Dispositional Attributes*

<b>Psychological dispositional attributes and demographic</b>	<b>Core conclusions</b>
<b>Emotional affect</b>	
<b>Age</b>	Junior leaders' negative or positive emotional experiences would usually increase as they grow older.
<b>Race</b>	Junior leaders from different race groups may develop different ways to express and manage their emotions.
<b>Gender</b>	Female junior leaders would express their emotional experience more openly than male junior leaders.
<b>Years of service</b>	Junior leaders with longer service records would manage their emotions more effectively than junior leaders with short service records.
<b>Rank</b>	Senior-ranking leaders would express and manage their emotional setbacks more effectively than junior leaders.
<b>Career orientations</b>	
<b>Age</b>	There is a probability that older junior leaders prefer single and hierarchically-structured careers more than younger junior leaders, who tend to prefer boundary-less and spiral career patterns.
<b>Race</b>	Generally, there is no significant difference between white and black junior leaders in terms of their career orientations and preferences.
<b>Gender</b>	Female junior leaders would value a stable career accompanied by career opportunities more than male junior leaders would.
<b>Years of service</b>	Long-serving junior leaders would probably be more likely to attach emotions to their current organisations and may find it more difficult to disengage their emotional attachment than those with shorter service records.
<b>Rank</b>	Senior leaders may prefer entrepreneurial, pure challenge, and general management career anchors more than junior leaders.



<b>Organisational commitment</b>	
<b>Age</b>	Older junior leaders may be more optimistic and committed to their current organisations than younger junior leaders.
<b>Race</b>	Junior leaders from African race group would remain committed for a longer time and may also prefer the career anchor of stability, while junior leaders from the white race group would be most likely to leave their current organisations.
<b>Gender</b>	Male and female junior leaders would remain equally committed to the organisational values and missions.
<b>Years of service</b>	There is a high probability that junior leaders who have longer service records will remain committed to the organisation for longer than those with shorter service records.
<b>Rank</b>	High-ranking senior leaders develop stronger affective commitment towards their current organisations than junior leaders do.

## **2.6 IMPLICATIONS FOR PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING AND DISPOSITIONAL ATTRIBUTES FOR JUNIOR LEADERS IN THE SANDF**

A well-constructed psychological well-being profile could be vital to a clear understanding of how junior leaders' well-being is managed, and how they are able to flourish in their lives and careers. This required attention to and integration of the dispositional and positive psychological functioning attributes. The current study contributed to the promotion of positive psychology, human factors, well-being, and growth potential of junior leaders (Diener et al., 2010; Alreshidi, 2018; Farnia et al., 2018). Organisations should take cognisance of the elements and mechanisms that would contribute to the optimisation and effective utilisation of their junior leaders, in order to enhance their potential, positivity, and well-being (Siberhagen et al., 2011; Ali, Lei, Jie, & Rahman, 2018).

Meanwhile, on a cognitive level, emotional affect assist junior leaders to study and understand their own emotional strengths (Van Zyl & De Bruin, 2012). Many junior leaders would learn to manage stressors, distractions, and sudden ill health by connecting socially with colleagues in the workplace (Marx, 2011; Ali et al., 2018). To promote the flourishing of

junior leaders, factors such as well-being, resilience, wisdom, and positivity should be embraced (Diener et al., 2010; Brown, Arnold, Fletcher, & Standage, 2017). As per Cameron's (2008) findings, there are four attributes that may be crucial for junior leaders to impart to their subordinates in order to create a positive climate in the workplace, which ultimately enhances their overall well-being. These are: creating a positive climate where positive emotions rule over negative emotions, and which is characterised by optimism, compassion, love, and gratitude; creating positive relations that build synergy and networking energy that increase personal resources; enhancing constructive feedback and positive communication amongst people; and increasing the positivity in junior leaders.

The literature showed that junior leaders' social support can be enhanced by positive or negative feelings and has an impact on their subordinates' psychological and social well-being (Yurur & Sarikaya, 2012; Taneva & Arnold, 2018). Generally, the nature of the military environment give rises to psychological challenges. Apart from the basic military training and knowledge, junior leaders in the military are confronted with many mental challenges (Kennedy & Zilmer, 2006; Taneva & Arnold, 2018). There is other command-specific information or instructions that tend to trigger health and mental challenges (Kennedy & Zilmer, 2006; Jacobs & Van Niekerk, 2017). Seligman (2002)'s positive psychology model emphasised building positive mental strength and the development of positive psychological well-being. Positive emotions and psychological well-being contribute to the current positive psychological functioning attribute of flourishing in the workplace (Jacobs & Van Niekerk, 2017; Taneva & Arnold, 2018). Figure 2.7 indicated the integration of junior leaders' psychological well-being and dispositional attributes in relation to flourishing.

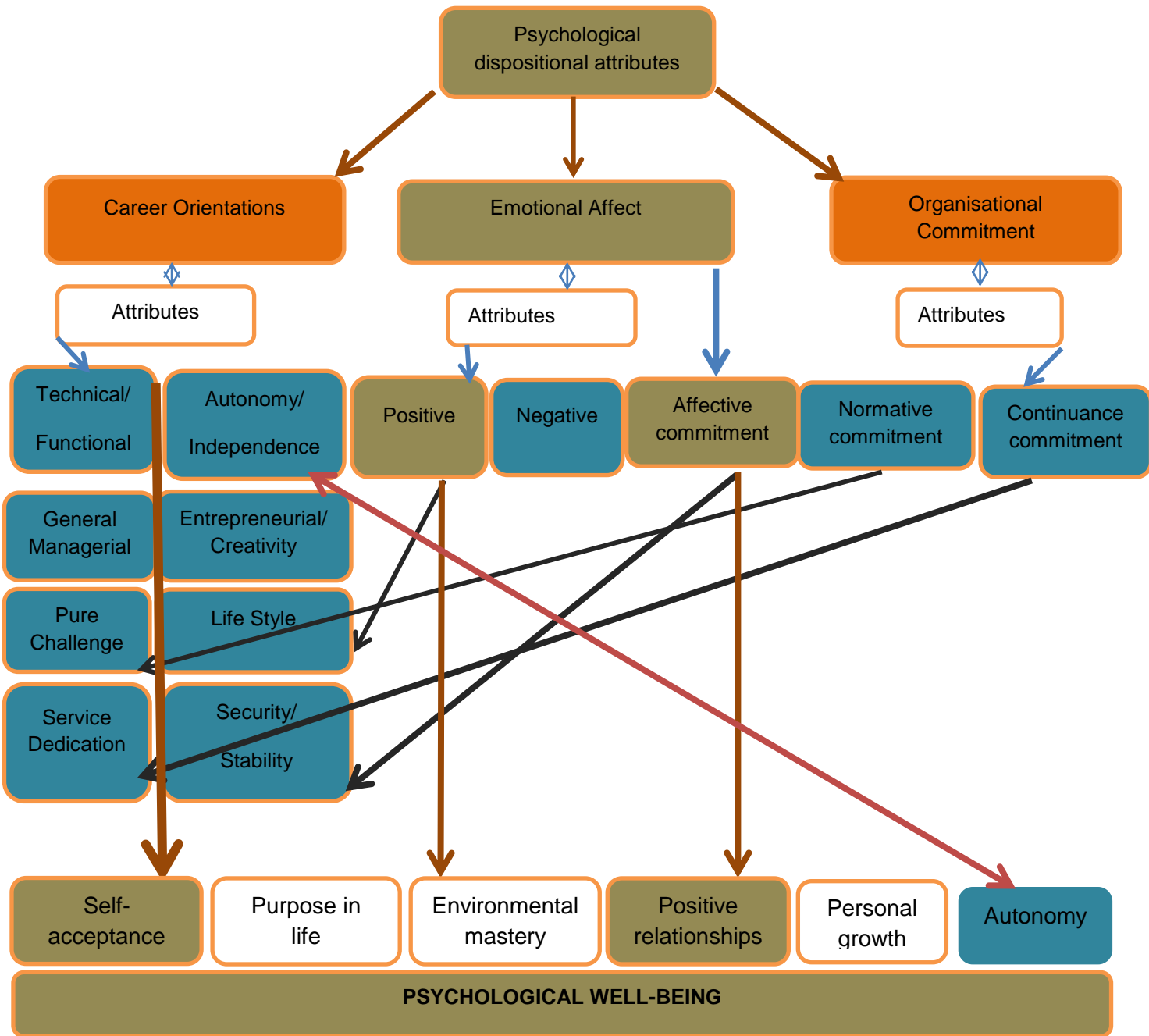


Figure 2.7: Integration of dispositional attributes and psychological well-being attributes

Figure 2.7 indicates how dispositional attributes (namely emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) are integrated. Brief discussions on the core construction in relation to psychological well-being follow below.

### **2.6.1 Emotional affect**

In relation to figure 2.7, emotional affect consists of positive affect and negative affect attributes. Junior leaders would use their own and others' emotions to plan, motivate, and archive the set priorities (Colfax, 2010; Nzonzo, 2017). The literature also provided a clear understanding of how emotions play a big role in building healthy and well-adjusted junior leaders. Rangritz and Merabi (2010) agreed that, in most instances, people are aware of their emotions and when to use them, and are able to regulate them.

Emotional affect is relevant to this study in that Seligman (2011) stated that positive emotions are vital for flourishing. Emotionally assertive junior leaders would be able to express their affect towards certain careers and their current organisations (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012; Khoreva, Wechtler, & Kostanek, 2018). However, it must be stressed that emotional feelings, either positive or negative, are influenced by the manner in which junior leaders perceive emotions, manage their own emotions, monitor and manage others' emotions, and how they express or use these emotions (Goleman, 2001; Rangritz & Mehrabi, 2010; Van der Walt, 2018).

Furthermore, figure 2.7 indicates that the junior leaders' positive feelings towards certain job performances tend to increase their levels of commitment and satisfaction, as does being in an organisation which fits their values and goals. These feelings may influence junior leaders' intentions to either stay in or leave a particular organisation (Bashir & Ramay, 2008; Khoreva et al., 2018). Generally, emotional affect can be viewed as a collection of emotional efforts, as well as perceptions and expressions of emotional experiences (Creed, Hood, & Hu, 2017).

### **2.6.2 Career orientations**

Career orientations consisted of eight career anchors (Schein, 1990). These career anchors are technical/functional, service dedication, autonomy/independence, life style, pure challenge, entrepreneurial/creativity, general managerial, and security/stability. Figure 2.7 indicated that positive emotional affect relates to junior leaders' career anchor of living a positive life style. Junior leaders who experienced positive energy tend to live differing life styles (Nzonzo, 2017). Figure 2.7 indicates that junior leaders who experience affective commitment to their current organisations may prefer the career anchor of security or

stability. In turn, junior leaders who are contending with their current career choices are establishing themselves well in their organisations (Rozkwitalska, 2018).

### **2.6.3 Organisational commitment**

Organisational commitment consists of three elements, namely affective, normative, and continuance commitment. Affective commitment is linked to positive and negative emotional affect variables. The junior leader's decision to remain committed to the objectives may be determined by the level of satisfaction and feelings towards an organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1990; Van der Walt, 2018). Furthermore, the feeling of obligation towards the current organisation and to fulfill certain performance outputs seems to be influenced by the career anchor of security or a stable environment (Nzozzo, 2017). Furthermore, normative commitment is linked to the career anchor of pure challenge (Meyer & Allen, 1990; 1991; Wiernik, Brenton, Kostal, & Jack, 2018). Junior leaders would develop a habit of looking for challenging jobs (Rozkwitalska, 2018). Additionally, continuance commitment is linked to the career anchor of dedication to service of the organisation.

The level of a junior leader's commitment to a particular organisation is linked to the junior leader's level of maturity and service dedication (Riechers, 1985; Creed et al., 2017). Therefore, organisational commitment tends to be linked to the element of continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Khoreva et al., 2018). Furthermore, junior leaders who tend to be affectively and normatively committed to their current organisations are more likely to remain with them (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Van der Walt, 2018). Organisational commitment is important to junior leaders in that it will encourage them to weigh the risks associated with leaving the organisation (Nzozzo, 2017).

## **2.7 PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING AND DISPOSITIONAL ATTRIBUTES PROFILE OF JUNIOR LEADERS IN THE SANDF**

### **2.7.1 Constructing a psychological well-being profile: Emotional Affect, Career Orientations, and Organisational Commitment**

In this section, the contextual integration of emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment (psychological dispositional attributes) of junior leaders is outlined and discussed in view of constructing a psychological well-being profile.

### 2.7.1.1 *Psychological dispositional attribute: Emotional Affect*

Emotional affect assists junior leaders to uphold certain fundamental values and set goals (Crum & Salovey, 2013; Janse van Rensburg et al., 2017). It has been indicated that the junior leader's emotional experience would then consist of positive affects such as pride, joy, gratitude, and hope, and negative affects of fear, sadness, anger, guilt, anxiety, envy, and hatred (Watson et al., 1998; Bell, 2017). Junior leaders' negative experiences promote their tendency to express negative emotions of anxiety, depression, or frustration (Chen & Spectra, 1991; Ateş & İhtiyaroğlu, 2019). Moreover, negatively-affected junior leaders would learn to recall negative events more often than positively-affected individuals (Wiernik et al., 2018). Affect is described as an indication of emotional expression (Akhtar et al., 2017). Emotions stimulate thought processes and also activate actions (Creed et al., 2017).

Junior leaders' positive emotions assisted them to broaden their ideas and to be geared towards certain actions, as well as opening a wide range of thoughts and intentions (Akhtar et al., 2017; Bell, 2017). Emotions tend to motivate junior leaders to think actively, in a way that can be articulated well within the organisation (Fredrickson & Losada, 2005; Rozkwitalska, 2018). In most instances positive emotional behaviour would allowed junior leaders to embrace a sense of respect and recognition while motivating followers (Griffith, 2002; Öznurt et al., 2019). Meanwhile, emotions normally motivate and activate junior leaders' feelings (Rangritz & Merabi, 2010; Wiernik et al., 2018). In line with Ng and Jeffery (2003) articulation, emotional dispositions appear to have a direct impact on junior leaders' well-being.

Bracket and Mayer (2003) found that emotional experiences are actually associated with physiological functioning, improved social awareness, and achievements. Positive emotions tend to promote overall human well-being (Diener, Napa-Scollon, Oishi, Dzokoto, & Suh, 2000; Wiernik et al., 2018). Kelloway and Day (2005) agreed that positive emotions, behaviour, and positive-minded interventions may result in healthy living and well-being of junior leaders. Rothmann and Cooper (2015) suggested that individuals tend to view life threats and challenges differently, and would react physically or emotionally to such situations.

### 2.7.1.2 *Psychological dispositional attribute: Career Orientations*

Career orientations of a junior leader are related to the original definition by Schein (1987; 1990; 1991) and later to that of Feldman and Bolino (1996), as a person's overall core values, abilities, talents, and attributes. In view of the above, career orientations are anchored in a core of eight career anchors (security/stability, entrepreneurial/creativity, service/dedication to a cause, life style, autonomy, pure challenge, general manager, and technical/function) (Schein, 1987; 1990; 1996). The career anchors are non-monetary values which individuals consider when opting for certain careers (Coetzee et al., 2017; Schein, 2000). The study by Feldman and Bolino (1996) showed that there is a possibility that junior leaders may also develop preferences for multiple career choices. Therefore, it is necessary to stress that junior leaders may have both primary and secondary career anchors (Feldman & Bolino, 1996; Martínez-Martí & Ruch, 2017).

In contrast to Schein (1990) career anchors model, Feldman and Bolino (1996) concluded that the characteristics of certain career anchors could indicate that some career anchors complement one another, which may benefit the current research on junior leaders who are in pursuit of their career aspirations. Earlier, it was pointed out that junior leaders who value career orientations highly, view jobs as opportunities to test their competencies in relation to their co-workers' performance (Spence & Helmreich, 1983; Öznur et al., 2019). Super (1990)'s study indicated that it is very important to find a fit between junior leaders' career choices and the organisation.

In agreement, Coetzee (2008) and Savickas et al. (2009), Martínez-Martí and Ruch (2017) indicated that forged relationships between junior leaders' career choices and their work creates a desire to craft career interventions that respond to development, allowing them to flourish in their careers. Overall, career anchors will assist junior leaders to unearth their abilities, competencies, adaptability, and overall psychological career resources that may impact on their career choices (Savickas, 2005; Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee et al., 2017; Janse van Rensburg et al., 2017).

### 2.7.1.3 *Psychological dispositional attribute: Organisational Commitment*

Organisational commitment has been coined by Mowday et al. (1979) as a relative strength of junior leader's affection within an organisation. Organisational commitment is viewed from the three valences of Affective, Normative, and Continuance commitment (Morrow, 1983;

Meyer & Allen, 1991; Breitsohl & Ruhle, 2016). Organisational commitment can be a good predictor of junior leaders' turnover if it is compared to overall job satisfaction (Manetje, 2005; Janse van Rensburg et al. 2017). Morrow (1993) and Nzonzo (2017) emphasised that the benefit of organisational commitment is that it can lead to a steady and productive workforce. Furthermore, organisational commitment can be described as an emotional attachment which is associated with a particular organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Junior leaders' lower scores on organisational commitment may be an indication that they are less creative or unproductive (Morrow, 1993; Nzonzo, 2017).

In their study, Irvine and Evans (1995) and consequently Jaros (1997) established that both job gratification and obligations are dispositional constructs, and are significantly related to positive emotions and satisfaction at work, and that both tend to reduce turnover. Meanwhile, junior leaders' intention to stay or leave is normally one of the career movement decisions in their career lives (Cho, Johanson, & Guchait, 2009; Martínez-Martí & Ruch, 2017). Moreover, organisational commitment can assist junior leaders to develop positive thinking about themselves and their current organisations (Janse van Rensburg et al., 2017; Niemiec, 2018). Mowday et al. (1979) agreed that organisational commitment can be arranged into three main factors.

These three factors are; (i) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values, (ii); a willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organisation, and (iii) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation. Suutari and Taka (2004) and Niemiec (2018) found that while organisational commitment can benefit organisations in the long run, it can also be impeding individuals' growth and movement to the external environment. Furthermore, Suutari and Taka (2004) and Nzonzo (2017) emphasised the fact that a fit between the personnel's career and the work environment can be beneficial to organisational performances.

### **2.7.2 Constructing a psychological well-being profile: Integration of Emotional Affect, Career Orientations, and Organisational Commitment (psychological dispositional attributes) and flourishing (positive psychological functioning attribute)**

The central hypothesis is that the relationship dynamics between the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning) would constitute a psychological well-being profile for junior leaders, which can be used to inform organisational career and



psychological well-being practices. Junior leaders' biographical characteristics (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) significantly moderate the relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning). Additionally, junior leaders from different age, race, gender, years of service, and rank groups differ significantly in relation to their flourishing (positive psychological functioning).

According to Keyes (2002) and Rothmann and Cooper (2015), psychological well-being embraces a situation where there is a purpose in life and been autonomous; environmental mastery, increased personal growth; enhanced positive relationships; and self-acceptances that support positive psychological functioning (flourishing) attribute. In line with junior leaders' flourishing, these elements are arranged accordingly as evaluative well-being (individual satisfaction with life), hedonic well-being (happiness or sadness in life events), and eudaimonic well-being (junior leaders' purpose and meaning of life circumstances (Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Steptoe et al., 2015). Therefore, most organisations tend to organise their resources, including personal resources, in such a manner that it would attract junior leaders to stay for long in their current organisations (Ng & Feldman, 2010; Myers & Diener, 2018).

Diener et al. (2010) and Jacobs and Van Niekerk (2017) stated that well-being is associated with positive or negative feelings: positive feelings include joy, pride, love, and satisfaction, while negative feelings included sadness, anger, hatred, and hostility. Well-being tends to contribute to junior leaders' career goals, aspirations, and career commitments (Ryff, 2014; 2019). Moreover, well-being tends to encourage healthy behaviour (Ryff, 2014; 2019). Coetzee et al. (2017) showed that organisational commitment is linked to certain career orientations and career motives. Understanding that psychological well-being is an indication that junior leaders function optimally and satisfactorily in relation to their required adjusted emotional and behavioural standards is crucial for optimal performance (Patel & Prince, 2010; Janse van Rensburg et al., 2017).

As Chen and Bliese (2002) argued, it is vital to study and understand that the tasks associated with maintaining junior leaders' well-being in the military are demanding, as junior leaders need psychological and social support to enhance their flourishing. Several studies have also indicated that character strength tends to contribute to positive thinking and stable emotions (Boe, 2015; 2017; Jacobs & Van Niekerk, 2017; Niemiec, 2018). In addition, Chen and Bliese (2002) found that character strength increases resilience and adaptation. More specifically, psychological well-being contributes to junior leaders' happy and positive mental

states, and good personal character that are geared towards optimal functioning (Luthans, 2002; Boe, 2015; 2017; Jacobs & Van Niekerk, 2017; Niemiec, 2018). Zwotslot and Pot (2004) and later on Niemac (2018) also found that psychological well-being is vital for good mental health and contributed extensively to organisational and junior leaders' personal strength. Emotional affect indicates positive or negative reactions towards a person, event, or object (Watson et al., 1998).

Importantly, Norman (2004) and Ryff (2018) further acceded that emotional affect indicates "emotional reactions of either positive-sympathetic or compassionate, or negative-exhausting or resentment which have a strong probability of incurring certain awareness and leading to behavioural changes". Both positive and negative affects contributed to junior leaders' well-being and inculcate flourishing at workplaces (Nelson & Cooper, 2005; Young & Burton, 2018). It has been indicated that people with positive emotions and those who are functioning well psychologically and socially are complete in their mental health and in terms of flourishing. The study by Alreshidi (2018) and Barrett, Adolphs, Marsella, Martinez and Pollak (2019) proved that successful emotion regulation can often be a reflection of high levels of positive, rather than negative, emotional experiences. Generally, emotions elicit experiential, behavioural, cognitive, and physiological responses that trigger reactions such as confronting, fighting, or fleeing (Fredrickson & Losada, 2005; Goleman, 2018a; Plate et al., 2018).

Career orientations were originally defined by Schein (1990) as a pattern of self-perceived talents, abilities, basic values, evolving motives, and needs. Career orientations have been introduced to measure career anchors (Schein, 1987; 1990; 1991). Because Briscoe and Hall (2006) and Coetzee et al. (2017) indicated that, due to the decline in the traditional hierarchical careers, many junior leaders would strengthen their career aspirations and resort to boundary-less careers which involve both physical and psychological resources. The concept of career orientations was highlighted by the notion that junior leaders' internal values, urges, and drives are the main drivers of their career choices (Goller, Steffen, & Harteis, 2018). Certainly, career orientation is grounded on the eight career anchors of autonomy/independence, general managerial, technical functional, entrepreneurial/creativity, life style, pure challenge, service dedication/dedication to a cause, and security/stability (Schein, 1978; 1990; Coetzee et al., 2017).

In line with Super's (1990) career stages model, many junior leaders may need the psychological career resources of adaptability, hardiness, resilience, and job embeddedness that fit organisational values and the new world of employment. Career orientations

contributed positively to the psychological well-being of junior leaders (Alreshidi, 2018). There is a view that healthy and positive personnel will be able to choose careers that bring prosperity and growth to an organisation (Khoreva et al., 2018; Mensah, 2018). Junior leaders who are unhealthy may be costly to the organisation, as they could reduce their labour, incur unnecessary costs, and have a high turnover and levels of absenteeism (Sieberhagen et al., 2011; Rausch, Seifried, & Harteis, 2017).

In particular, junior leaders need to be healthy to be able to motivate their subordinates and monitor their performance (Ahmed, & Bashir, 2017; Ryff, 2018). The literature revealed that junior leaders who ignite their career aspiration in the early stages of their careers tend to develop a positive view about future jobs and tend to be happier and experience more pleasure in their workplaces (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2006; Duffy, Dik, Douglass, England, & Velez, 2018). Kniveton (2004) and Ferreira (2010) found that career motives and values can add value to junior leaders' organisational commitment (Schein, 1996; Feldman & Bolino, 2000; Jordan, Gessnitzer, & Kauffeld, 2017). Furthermore, it was established that values embodied a general belief about certain careers. Career values are a set of underlying criteria for determining career preference and which are in line with certain work values (Duffy et al., 2018; Woodson & Harris, 2018).

According to Schein (1990; 1991), a junior leader may have one career anchor. However, according to Feldman and Bolino (1996) and Coetzee et al. (2017) there is a possibility that a junior leader can possess multiple career preferences, known as career anchors. Organisational commitment is defined as an individual's emotional contract with and moral obligation to an organisation (Mowday et al., 1982; Wiener, 1982; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Mensah (2018) further established that an individual with a high level of organisational commitment often tends to strengthen his or her positive attitude towards organisational goals and may also feel a sense of belonging. In fact, organisational commitment comprised the three valences of affective, normative, and continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Morrow, 1983; Ahmed & Bashir, 2017).

Lowman (1993) found that organisational commitment increases neurotic compulsion to succeed and negative life instances of chronic and persistent under achievement. Organisational commitment is linked to retention strategy. In this regard, retention would refer to an initiative taken by the organisation to keep certain employees, including rewarding their performances and motivating them so that they do not leave the organisation (Duffy et al., 2018; Niemac, 2018). Furthermore, Holtom and O'Neill (2004) seems to be in agreement with the study that was initiated in the health-care field, in which both job satisfaction and

organisational commitment have been found to be the predictors of turnover (Ingersoll, Olsan, DrewCates, DeVinney, & Davies, 2002; Nzozzo, 2017). Organisational commitment can be viewed as an emotionally-regulated function that relies on the extent to which the environment presents factors that would inspire a junior leader to activate certain thoughts (Akhtar et al., 2017).

Therefore, understanding how the organisational commitment attributes function helped to construct a psychological well-being profile that informs junior leaders' decisions to stay with or leave an organisation (Janse van Rensburg et al., 2017; Khoreva et al., 2018). Many junior leaders would orientate themselves to their inner and outer environmental resources, since it has been established that they contribute to their overall well-being (Bezuidenhout & Cilliers, 2010; Nzozzo, 2017; Mensah, 2018). The study found that there was a strong connection between junior leaders' inner factors (emotions) and their psychological health (Latif, 2010; Mensah (2018). Table 2.7 is an integration summary of the psychological dispositional attributes.

Table 2.7

*Psychological Well-being Profile Integrating Emotional Affect, Career Orientations, and Organisational Commitment*

<b>Psychological well-being profile dimensions</b>	<b>Psychological well-being</b>	<b>Emotional affect</b>	<b>Career orientations</b>	<b>Organisational commitment</b>
Affective	Self-acceptance Autonomy Purpose in life	Positive affect Negative affect	Life style Service/ dedicated to a cause Security Autonomy	Affective
Cognitive	Personal growth	Personal strength Hardiness	Technical General managerial competencies	Normative
Conative	Positive relationships	Negative affect Resilience	Pure challenge Entrepreneurial/	Continuance

	Environmental mastery		creativity	
Implications for psychological well-being of junior leaders	Psychological well-being may create a positive atmosphere that enhances overall well-being	Emotional affect may contribute to a positive atmosphere that enhances overall well-being	Career orientations may contribute to a career-conscious situation that enhances overall well-being	Organisational commitment may increase attachment and belonging to an environment that enhances overall well-being
Implications for junior leaders' careers and flourishing	-Enhance personal accountability – Increase positivity -Increase potential and health awareness -Development of stress management, Self-esteem -Assist with flourishing.	-Emotional awareness -Managing emotions -self-management -emotional regulation -resilience	-Career conscious -ability to choose suitable career -development of person environment fit -management of career goals and aspirations -alignment of career with personal effectiveness and outcomes.	-Junior leaders develop positive feelings and an obligation to stay at their current organisation -Junior leaders increase their psychological attachment to and cooperation with the organisation. -Alignment of career with organisational goals.

### 2.7.3 Hypothesised theoretical psychological well-being profile for junior leaders

The main purposes of introducing psychological well-being practices in the military workplace are to build and instil a spirit of caring, create awareness, and encourage the development of junior leaders (Marx & Liebenberg, 2019). The dispositional interventions strategies aimed to promote and facilitate the health and well-being of junior leaders at their workplaces (Bartz, Thompson, & Rice, 2017; Wong, 2017). Not paying attention to the well-being of junior leaders can have a devastating impact on the current and future healthy and strong leaders. Sudden changes and general turbulence around the globe are disturbing trends for human resources acquisition and organisational survival (Adams & Bloom, 2017;

Gray, 2018). For this reason, a positively-orientated mind will help personnel to stay healthy and psychologically fit, free from stress and anxiety, and committed to the organisation (Latif, 2010; Daubner-Siva, Ybema, Vinkenburg, & Beech, 2018). As Bartone (2006) and Adams and Bloom (2017) indicated, there is a need for a practical approach which affects how junior leaders view and respond to self (self-confidence and self-efficacy), others (vertical and horizontal cohesion), work (unit performance), and even the operational environment. The complexity and nature of the military environments around the world currently require junior leaders who are healthy and both physically and psychologically prepared to withstand major challenges (Marx & Liebenberg, 2019).

The literature indicated that there was a general view that psychological well-being tends to contribute to junior leaders' positive and healthy behaviour, and also enhances developmental capabilities (Avey et al., 2009; Bartz et al., 2017). The current study attempted to construct an empirically tested psychological well-being profile for flourishing junior leaders. Based on the current literature and hypothesised relationships between dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment), a psychological well-being profile for junior leaders was proposed below. Figure 2.8 depicted the elements of the emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment that embody the hypothesised psychological well-being profile.

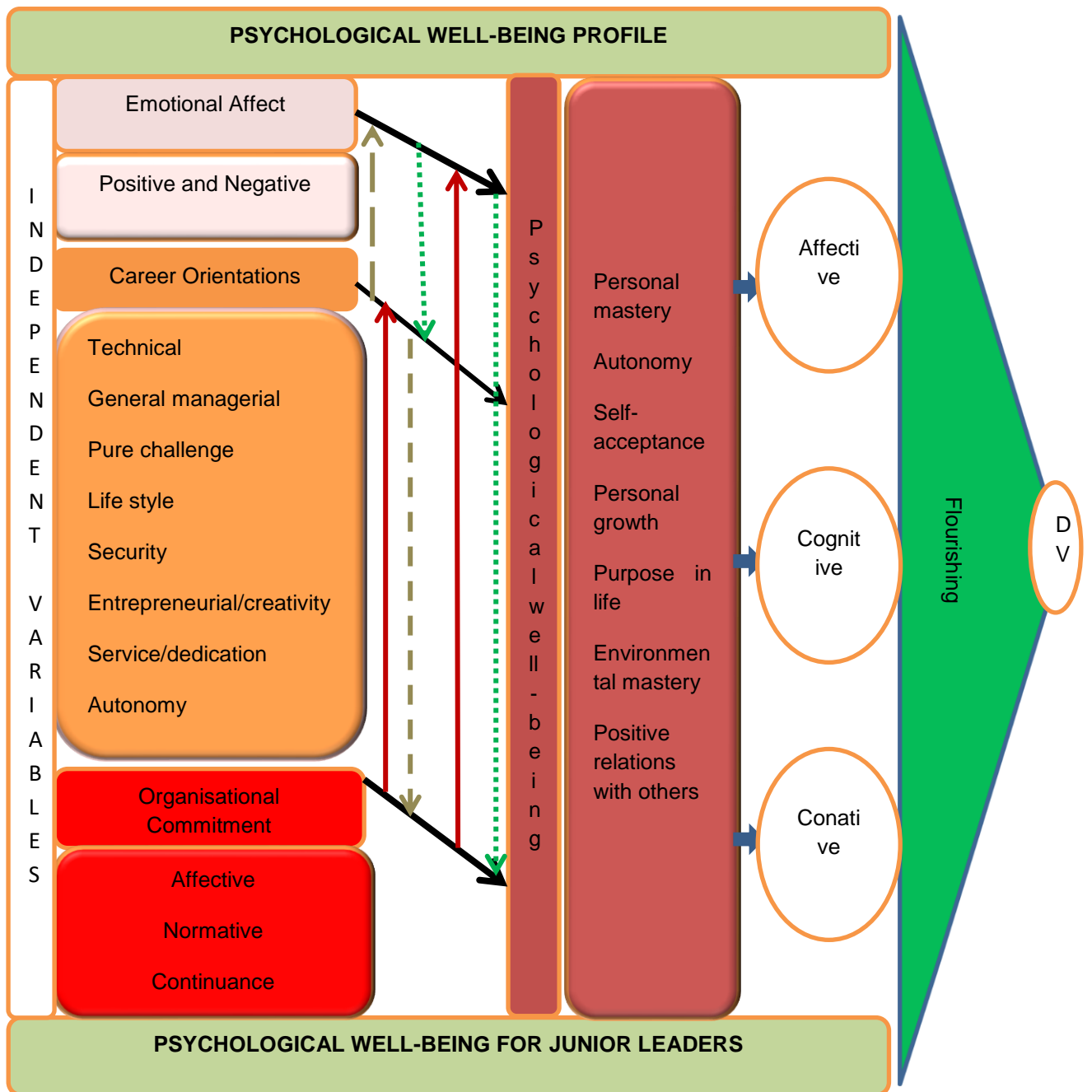


Figure 2.8: Hypothesised psychological well-being profile for junior leaders

IV - independent variables: emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment  
 DV- dependent variable: flourishing

Figure 2.8 indicated the elements of the hypothesised theoretical psychological well-being profile. The elements of the dispositional variables were regarded as independent variables

(IV). They were regarded as emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment. The emotional affect consisted of positive and negative affect. Career orientations consisted of the aspects of technical, general managerial, pure challenge, life style, security/stability, entrepreneurial/creativity, service/dedication to a cause, and autonomy. Organisational commitment consisted of affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment.

The overall psychological well-being profile consisted of personal mastery, personal meaning, self-acceptance, personal growth, purpose in life, environmental mastery, positive relations with others, and autonomy components. The dispositional attributes result in affective (emotional), cognitive (behavioural) and conative dimensions that enhance well-being. The hypothesised profile was a starting point for addressing the health and well-being of junior leaders. Furthermore, to advance the dispositional attributes, the profile integrated psychological well-being attributes. The profile indicated that positive and negative emotional affect have a direct impact on how junior leaders orientate themselves to their destined career orientations, which enables them to either stay or not stay committed to their current organisations and in turn flourish, as discussed below.

#### *2.7.3.1 Affective functioning dimension*

The positive and negative affect, life style, service/dedication to a cause, and autonomy career anchors, as well as the affective and normative commitments of junior leaders, were considered affective behaviour components (Ferreira, 2012; Mróz, Szufa, & Frontasyeva, 2018). On this affective component, junior leaders would learn to manage and use emotions positively, while also using negative emotions as a source of resilience to back up their coping and character strength (Bailey et al., 2011; Van Zyl & Du Bruin, 2012).

At this level, junior leaders would build on their personal and physical resources to explore different life styles and careers on selves and their organisations for optimal utilisation (Bezuidenhout & Cilliers, 2010; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2012; ávila-Pérez et al., 2018). The proposed interventions would then assist junior leaders to manage felt emotional expressions and build on and improve personal resources worthy investing of investing in. The junior leaders tend to develop ways to improve their health life styles and pursue their career aspirations (Schein, 1990; Savickas & Porfelli, 2012).



### 2.7.3.2 *Cognitive functioning dimension*

It is evident that the aspects of technical, general managerial competencies, and continuance commitment were cognitive components that would allow junior leaders to make certain life and career decisions, and excel in the execution of given tasks (Ali et al., 2018). In this cognitive component, junior leaders would then use all physical and emotional resources available to carry out organisational goals, and also use skills and abilities to manage work and personal developments (Bezuidenhout, 2010, 2011; Savickas & Porfelli, 2012; Ahmed & Bashir, 2017). High levels of technical and general managerial competencies are highly-regarded personal resources which are vital for junior leaders' development (Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee & Bergh, 2009; Coetzee et al., 2017).

In relation to continuance commitment, junior leaders tend to feel obliged to offer personal resources and meet organisational demands and challenges to commit fully to the course of action within an organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Marx, 2010; Taneva & Arnold, 2018). Furthermore, many of the junior leaders exert more pressure and showed consideration to enhancing their career capabilities to meet the next global century demands (Bezuidenhout & Cilliers, 2010; Savickas & Porfelli, 2012; Gray, 2018). On the cognitive dimension, proposed interventions should assist junior leaders to enhance and manage their career orientations and commitment strategies and identify health and well-being mechanisms (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Seligman, 2011; Ryff, 2018). Junior leaders who have equipped themselves with these competencies would carry out their responsibilities and organisational performances effectively, while managing their well-being (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Strauss et al., 2017).

### 2.7.3.3 *Conative behaviour dimension*

In the conative behaviour dimension, junior leaders would identify and prioritise resources that are needed to boost their confidence in order to manage situations. As with emotional affect, negative affect assists junior leaders to find resilience factors that motivate them to continue with efforts despite setbacks or negative reports. Moreover, junior leaders develop strong and hardy characters to manage negative emotions and career setbacks (Ferreira, 2012; Coetzee, et al. 2015; Niemiec, 2018). In terms of career orientations, individuals would use the pure challenge and entrepreneurial/creativity aspects to pursue certain career ambitions (Feldman & Bolino, 1996; Schein, 1991; Coetzee et al., 2017).

There are close links between career anchors and continuance and normative commitment (organisational commitment) (Savickas, 1997; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Coetzee, 2008; Nzozzo, 2017). Junior leaders would continue to network and seek information that will shape their behaviour towards certain career aspirations for security or to secure commitments (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Ferreira, 2012; Savickas & Porfelli, 2012; Segura-Camacho et al., 2018). Junior leaders who seek pure challenging situations pursue careers and lives that are genuine and challenging while seeking opportunities for growth (Latif, 2010; Martínez-Martí & Ruch, 2017). The proposed interventions in the conative dimension are those that would energise junior leaders to network more often and flourish (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015, Seligman, 2011; Creed et al., 2017). This will allow them to explore their careers, themselves, and future prospects that will enhance their overall well-being.

*2.7.3.4 The influence of age, race, gender, years of service, and rank on emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment*

Table 2.8 illustrates how demographic variables influenced the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment). The research was valuable in that it indicates how psychological well-being containing demographic variables will be constructed to inform well-being practices and flourishing of junior leaders.

Table 2.8  
*An Overview of the Influence of Age, Race, Gender, Years of Service, and Rank on Emotional Affect, Career Orientations and Organisational Commitment*

Demographic variables	Psychological dispositional attributes		
	Emotional affect	Career orientations	Organisational commitment
<b>Age</b>	Junior leaders who are 25 years old and younger tend to show greater self-esteem in their ability to achieve career plans and connect better with their inner emotions	Male junior leaders in the age group of 65 and above, and who are in leadership positions, tend to explore a variety of careers in order to achieve career success. Junior leaders between	Older junior leaders tend to develop normative commitment more than younger junior leaders do. Older junior leaders are optimistic and find it

	<p>than junior leaders in the 56 years and older age group. Older junior leaders tend to avoid negative emotions more than younger junior leaders, who may prefer to confront any negative emotional experiences.</p>	<p>the ages of 60 and 64 may prefer the security career anchor due to their years of service. Junior leaders between 50 and 59 years old may prefer service, technical, and functional competences. Younger junior leaders would seek more career anchors than older personnel would.</p>	<p>attractive to remain loyal and more committed to their current organisations than younger individuals, who would prefer to change careers rapidly.</p>
<b>Race</b>	<p>Junior leaders from different race groups tend to manage and express their emotional feelings differently.</p>	<p>White and black junior leaders may differ in terms of their career orientations preferences. Coloured, Indians, and white junior leaders tend to prefer the entrepreneurial/creativity career anchor more than African junior leaders do.</p>	<p>Junior leaders from the white race group may not be as committed to their organisation as junior leaders from other race groups, while leaders from the African race group are likely to remain committed.</p>
<b>Gender</b>	<p>Male junior leaders tend to manage their emotional expressions better than their female counterparts. Female junior leaders are aware of their emotional feelings and express them more freely than male leaders do.</p>	<p>Male and female junior leaders differed in terms of their preferred career orientations. Female junior leaders tend to assign a higher value to the stability career anchor and their career opportunities than male leaders do.</p>	<p>Female junior leaders have more access to work and career opportunities than male-dominated work stations do.</p>
<b>Years of</b>	<p>Junior leaders with</p>	<p>Longer-serving junior</p>	<p>Male junior leaders</p>

<b>service</b>	longer service records tend to express their emotions more often than younger and short-service junior leaders.	leaders may prefer the autonomous career anchor more than young and short-serving junior leaders do. Older personnel tend to be more loyal and committed than new junior leaders.	tend to be more actively committed to their military occupations, environment, and combat activities than female junior leaders.
<b>Rank</b>	Senior-ranking individuals tend to use elements of fear and threats to intimidate junior leader groups to get better performance results.	Junior leaders may arrange their preferred career orientations and self-development more perfectly than senior leaders.	Senior leaders may show that they have strong affective commitment because they are more willing to remain committed than junior leaders.

## 2.8 EVALUATION AND SYNTHESIS

In essence, the study of positive psychology provides an overarching premise of maintaining junior leaders' well-being and their potential optimisation. The literature indicates that positive emotional affect is related to career anchors and the affective and continuance commitment attributes of junior leaders. Although negative affect plays a significant role in building resilience and therefore normative commitment, it fails to optimise junior leaders' potential (Alreshidi, 2018). Further, junior leaders tend to develop negative attitudes towards other personnel who are not well (Lauer, 1992; Ahmed & Bashir, 2017). As emphasised, self-concept would then enhance junior leaders' positive psychological functioning in that self-esteem can enhance junior leaders' personal growth and feelings of being socially connected (Owens, Sheldon, & Goodman, 2001; Farnia et al., 2018).

When junior leaders live purposeful and meaningful lives, there is a possibility that their well-being will be enhanced (Leung, Cheung, & Liu, 2011; Bell, 2017). The study suggested that junior leaders who are well and healthy tend to avoid stressful situations and are able to cope with the normal stressors of life (Roberson & Cooper, 2011; Nzonzo, 2017). According to Roberson and Cooper (2011) and Rothmann and Cooper (2015), positive emotions

related significantly to psychological well-being. In turn, junior leaders' positive emotions broadened their understanding and range of possible responses and emotional reactions (Duffy et al., 2018). Goleman's (2001) and Creed et al., (2017) argued that emotional intelligence models indicated that junior leaders who are emotionally competent would control their emotions through self-awareness, improved self-management, understanding of the thought process, and relationship management, while developing their behaviour management.

Since positive emotions can assist junior leaders to handle their stress and cope better with difficult health and life challenges, positive affect would be beneficial to junior leaders who are mid-career and need to choose future careers. Bartone (2005) study showed that positively-inclined and competent junior leaders would increase their motivation and also their subordinates' morale. Junior leaders are learning about and understanding how to manage their co-workers' and subordinates' emotional affects (Gray, 2018). The literature indicated that the psychological well-being of junior leaders would embrace both the hedonic and eudaimonic perspectives on well-being (Seligman, 2011).

While the hedonic perspective refers to the affective or 'feeling good' aspect of well-being (happiness, life-satisfaction, and positive affect), the eudaimonic perspective refers to the positive psychological functioning or 'living well' dimension of well-being (social contribution, positive relationships with others, and personal growth) (Steptoe et al., 2015; Strauss et al., 2017). Moreover, due to the fact that there was increasing evidence showing that junior leaders' emotional abilities are linked to pro-social behaviour factors such as stress management and management of physical health problems, this current study indicated that an effective junior leader can reinforce the importance of emotional strength to their leadership capacities (House & Aditya, 1997; Richards, Campania, & Muse-Burke, 2010; Yildirim & Alanazi, 2018).

Recently, the aspect of emotional intelligence has emerged and proven to be an important characteristic of developing junior leaders (Bass, 1990; Bell, 2017). However, as Fiedler and Garcia (1987) and Cook and Geldenhuys (2018) pointed out, many junior leaders would then be responsible for the tasks of developing strategies, solving problems, motivating employees, and monitoring the environment. Cognitive resource theory has suggested that when junior leaders are under a great deal of stress, their intellectual abilities are diverted from the real missions. In this context, Ryff (1989; 2018) defined the six core dimensions that embrace the psychological well-being of junior leaders as self-acceptance, purpose in life,

environmental mastery, positive relationships, personal growth, and autonomy, based on an extensive review of humanistic, existential, and developmental theories.

Emotional affect consists of positive and negative affect (Watson et al., 1988). In line with positive affect functioning literature, Fredrickson and Losada (2005) and later on Duffy et al. (2018), found that negative emotional experiences can motivate junior leaders to deal with current and future life and health setbacks. Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) showed that most subordinates tend to regard their senior and junior leaders as genuine when they show an interest in their development and show further considerations in their life challenges. Overall, human well-being would increase psychological well-being attributes and, in turn, psychological well-being contributed to the overall health and positive emotions of junior leaders (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Yildirim & Alanazi, 2018). Lauer (1992) warned that if the construct of psychological well-being is not addressed well, it may result in it being wrongly labelled and stereotyped.

The central tenet of any military junior leader is their ability to set up career orientation that are strong, progressive, and which possess undisputed personal exposure and command subordinates' capabilities (Stander & Latif, 2015; Bell, 2017). Career orientations are important to junior leaders in that these junior leaders would be able to choose the careers that suit their life styles (Schein, 1990). Coetzee and Schreuder (2009) indicated that career orientations are made up of inner feelings and means of predicting commitment, satisfaction, motivation, performance, and experience of choices by individuals. Even though junior leaders tend to be strategic and possess good character strength, there is a paucity of literature and programmes that address their psychological well-being extensively.

Junior leaders in the military are actually supposed to self-develop on the formal tactical capabilities and leader development capabilities career orientations (Coetzee et al., 2017; Niemac, 2017). Furthermore, psychologists in the military are confronted with most of the junior leaders' career development involving leadership and tactical proficiencies, and instill a warrior ethos or refusal to accept failure, and remain loyal to the course (Stander and Latif, 2015; Wiernik et al., 2018). In fact, literature indicates that the imbalances between psychological, physical, and available resources tend to be a source of ill health and lack of well-being to most junior leaders (Hatting & Cutt, 2009; Strauss et al., 2017). Psychological well-being has positive relations with job satisfaction and satisfaction in junior leaders' personal lives (DeBord, 2009; Kim, Lim, Kim, Yoon, Kim, Ryu, & Kim, 2017).

Career anchors are central to career and personnel psychology. Since Schein (1978; 1990; 1991) showed the importance of career orientations, many junior leaders would then take their careers seriously. Very importantly, Bass (1990) found that the UK defence force develops its junior leaders in a wide range of attributes, which enables them to find suitable careers. According to Adair (2002) these attributes are embraced in the defence model of Defence Strategy Leadership Programme (DSLPL) which values self-awareness. Self-awareness explores junior leaders on the DSLPL programme in terms of contemporary leadership paradigms, ethics, leading change, leadership derailment, strategy fellowship, and the psychophysiology of leadership (Marx & Liebenberg, 2019). According to Quinn (1988), the Canadian model pointed to the challenges facing their junior leadership development. These challenges include rigid mind-sets, denial (very arrogant, negative reporting) awareness, and command and control. In line with the Australian Defense College (ADA), junior leaders' development training is contributed to by junior leaders' familiarisation with their subordinates' levels and their ability to extend their own leadership development (Horn & MacIntyre, 2006; Strauss et al., 2017).

Further, Cook and Geldenhuys (2018) found that the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment is positive and statistically significant. Further, junior leaders' levels of satisfaction and positive affect would indicate how they are feeling about their current organisation and their intention to stay committed (Rothmann, 2013; Cook & Geldenhuys, 2018). Therefore, organisational commitment and positive emotions are strongly related to psychological well-being (Rothmann, 2013). Generally, positive relations contribute to organisational commitment and healthy living (Seligman, 2011). Moreover, committed junior leaders tend to be more valuable than those with weak commitment levels (Dessler, 1999; Marx & Liebenberg, 2019).

## **2.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

Chapter 2 addressed and conceptualised the constructs of dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment). First, the conceptual foundations and understanding of psychological well-being and junior leader attributes within the military environment were discussed, followed by conceptual definitions of the dispositional attributes. Furthermore, the theoretical approaches of dispositional attributes, models, and variables influencing psychological well-being were elaborated on.

Finally, the implications of the dispositional attributes and proposed psychological well-being profile are indicated and evaluated. Based on the current literature review, a theoretical

psychological well-being profile (incorporating dimensions such as affective, cognitive, and conative) for junior leaders is proposed. The chapter concluded with syntheses and evaluations. Herewith the following literature research aims 1, 2, 4, and 5 were achieved; however, literature aim 3 is addressed in the following chapter 3.

**Research aim 1:** To conceptualise junior leaders and their psychological well-being in the military environments.

**Research aim 2:** To conceptualise the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) as explained by theoretical models in the literature, and how the biographical variables (age, race, years of service, and rank) influence these dispositional attributes.

**Research aim 3:** To conceptualise the nature of the theoretical relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological function), and to explain this relationship in terms of an integrated theoretical model in the literature.

The study also investigates the implications of the biographical characteristics (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) on psychological dispositional attributes. The implications of emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment, and flourishing variables for the IOP field were discussed and evaluated.

**Research aim 4:** To evaluate how biographical characteristics influence the development of the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).

**Research aim 5:** To critically evaluate the implications of a psychological well-being profile of junior leaders within the SANDF.

**It is considered that these literature research aims were achieved.**



## **CHAPTER 3: FLOURISHING**

This chapter addressed part of the third research aim – to conceptualise the flourishing (positive psychological functioning) construct, and determine how this construct was conceptualised and explained by the theoretical model. In addition, variables influencing flourishing were elaborated on. Finally, the implications, evaluation, and synthesis of an intended psychological well-being profile for junior leaders were assessed. The chapter ended with a hypothesised psychological well-being profile incorporating psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and flourishing (positive psychological function), as well as a chapter summary.

### **3.1 FLOURISHING**

#### **3.1.1 Conceptual background of flourishing**

The tenet of the current chapter was the set of dispositional constructs and flourishing as a positive psychological functioning attribute. While psychological dispositional constructs (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) advocated for a positive life, good mental conditions, well-being, and flourishing (positive psychological functioning) aimed to increase optimal utilisation and good mental health of junior leaders. Currently, there is a flow of new ideas that assist junior leaders to build their positive climate experiences and enhance their chances of cohesiveness in their organisations, which would sanction them to explore more about themselves and flourish within their organisations (Schultz & Schultz, 2014; Adams & Bloom, 2017).

According to Diener et al. (2010) and Akhtar et al. (2017) positive affect and flourishing constructs have a purpose of building shared ideas, humanity, and dignity, which are considered to be the long-term medication for psychological well-being. Earlier, Maslow (1971) showed that when junior leaders' physiological self-actualisation is successfully satisfied, they flourish and would engage in any aspects of their career and life. In support of Maslow (1971) and McClelland's (1987) classical theory of needs indicated that the motivated junior leader would set up challenging goals and aim to achieve them within a reasonable period. However, junior leader need high drive and intrinsic motivation in order to flourish entirely (Bartz et al., 2017). As stated, junior leaders need to accomplish the psychological and physiological needs and be intrinsically motivated when they intend to

increase their optimal functioning and psychological well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Hefferon et al., 2017).

Although a body of research exists on psychological well-being, it has not actually indicated how psychologically well-being junior leaders would flourish. Flourishing is viewed as a psychological functional behaviour through which junior leaders develop their positive thoughts, build resilience, and strengthen their characters (Daubner-Siva et al., 2018). These junior leaders would be able to choose their careers and protect their potential further, while maintaining their mental health balances in order to reach their objectives (Gray, 2018; Ryff, 2018). In pursuit of conceptualising the flourishing (positive psychological functioning) of junior leaders, Rothmann (2013) also developed a multi-dimensional model that inculcates human flourishing, which consisted of emotional and psychological well-being dimensions. For instance, it is indicated that flourishing should indicate a stage whereby a junior leader's self-perceived successes are detected (Rothmann, 2013; Woodson & Harris, 2018).

This included important areas such as self-esteem, positive relations with others, autonomy, personal growth, purpose, environmental mastery, and optimism, with a view to become a potential leader who inspires followers to lead a purpose-filled life (Diener et al., 2010; Myers & Diener, 2018). Meanwhile, the literature revealed that a strong relationship between flourishing and well-being tends to be a contributor to the positive psychological functioning state of many junior leaders in their workplaces (Gray, 2018). As per Kidd's (2008) and Khoreva et al. (2018) study, well-being, emotions, and career satisfaction played a crucial role in identifying how well junior leaders react to their unfolding careers, new jobs, and personal aspirations that would enable them to flourish.

So far, the literature showed that there was a paucity of research on exactly how flourishing is part of positive psychology and contributed to junior leaders' health and psychological well-being. Positive psychology has been regarded as a scientific paradigm that enables junior leaders and to flourish more by dedicating energy to the expression of emotions, strengths, virtues, and values, all of which are geared towards optimal functioning (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Mensah, 2018). Therefore, studying flourishing was an important practice for learning about junior leaders as people who are striving, who are proactive organisms and hold meaning, and who are actively facing and solving the challenges of their lives (Janse van Rensburg et al., 2017; Ryff, 2018).

The current literature revealed that flourishing embrace the characteristics of resilience, striving and thriving, well-being, and strength, with the aim of reducing life risks, poor health

and diseases, and prolonging life (Meng, Fleury, Xiang, Li, & D'Arcy, 2018). Negative life events such as unemployment, widowhood, long-term disabilities, and unstable employment trends such as labour migration, unstable salaries, and low worker benefits, and as well as the deterioration of junior leaders' health (which stems from the broad changes across many parts of junior leaders' total life) prompted the current studies on the promotion of human flourishing in general (Ryff, 2015; 2018).

### 3.1.1.1 *Conceptualisation of flourishing of junior leaders*

The views of explaining flourishing arise from conceptual origins during the formulation theory around the question of how significant flourishing is related to well-being and health factors (Ryff, 2015; 2018). Flourishing is part of positive psychology and would enable junior leaders to focus on the optimal expression of their potential through positive traits and approaching wellness with vigour (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Woodson & Harris, 2018). Keyes (2005) defined flourishing as a psychological syndrome of well-being which combines a good feeling (emotional well-being) and positive functioning (psychological and social well-being). In the context of a mental health continuum, Seligman (2011) and Nzonzo (2017) established that psychological well-being and flourishing are related constructs, due to the fact that both of them advocated for good mental health and positive psychological functioning, which enhanced the well-being of junior leaders.

In addition, flourishing contributed to a positive psychological functioning state and the development of the potential of junior leaders (Seligman, 2011; Coetzee, 2014; Ariza-Montes, et al., 2018). In agreement with this, Seligman (2011) and Khoreva et al. (2018) stressed that flourishing is aimed at managing work-related stressors effectively, demonstrating high levels of commitment to the organisation, performing at a high level, and being happier in life. Many organisations have realised the importance of psychological well-being in improving the lives and overall psychological health of their junior leaders, and this is contributing to the flourishing of the organisation and junior leaders (Janse van Rensburg, et al., 2017; Sieberhagen et al., 2011). Cilliers (2011) further purported that well-being is an integral component of flourishing.

Savickas (2012) and Creed et al. (2017) cautioned that turbulent employment and economic turmoil are challenging many junior leaders and organisations to adapt urgently to these major reforms while also maintaining their psychological strength and level of commitment. The literature further indicated that flourishing, as an embodiment of positive psychological functioning and thought process, assists junior leaders to prosper and utilise and unleash

their potential. While Keyes (2007) defined flourishing as a pattern of positive feelings and positive functioning in life, Rothmann and Cooper (2015) and further on Ariza-Montes et al. (2018) purported that flourishing consisted of emotional well-being (positive emotions/feeling), psychological well-being (positive psychological functioning), and social well-being (positive social functioning) attributes.

Flourishing is regarded more as an accumulation of coherent aspects than as a stand-alone expression that addressed just a single part of a junior leader's life (Myers & Diener, 2018). Flourishing is a positive psychology construct and relates squarely to the psychosocial, psychological, and social well-being perspectives (Diener et al., 2010). Howell (2009 and Yildirim and Belen (2018) postulated that most of the junior leaders with high flourishing attributes possess a positive outlook and achieved positive work results. Some of these results included lower levels of absenteeism, and a higher level of self-determination and satisfaction (Myers & Diener, 2018). Meanwhile, Keyes (2010) and Ryff (2018) argued that flourishing junior leaders would recover faster from any medical conditions or life setbacks.

The studies by Ryff and Singer (2008) and Diener et al. (2010) identified six (6) aspects of psychological well-being: autonomy, personal growth, self-acceptance, purpose in life, environmental mastery, and positive relations with others. These embodied flourishing. These aspects enhanced junior leaders' psychological functioning in order to help them achieve planned goals (Ryff, 2018). The literature also indicated that flourishing may result in good mental well-being and the positive health of junior leaders (Seligman, Steen, Park, & Peterson, 2005). Generally, flourishing measures overall human functioning which may include human potential development (Diener et al., 2009; Myers & Diener, 2018).

In a nutshell, positive life experiences contributed to junior leaders functioning well and to their flourishing, while flourishing at work is enhanced by emotional well-being and psychological well-being (Schotanus-Dijkstra, et al., 2019). While Keyes and Annas (2009) purported that persistent psychological well-being contained the two components of feeling good and functioning well, it appeared that these two components further denote overall human flourishing. Coetzee and Schreuder (2012) and Coetzee et al. (2017) showed that junior leaders need career drivers that enabled them to flourish in their determination for purposeful careers and self-fulfilment. Flourishing is also defined by Seligman (2011) as a pattern of positive psychological states which was described by positive emotions, engagements, positive relationships, meaning, and accomplishments with other various positive work/life results. Therefore, flourishing contributed to optimal functioning which included personal growth and development (Schotanus-Dijkstra et al., 2019).

The concept of building positive thoughts was important in that it allowed individuals to embrace relationship management and teamwork (Ryff, 2018). Since most junior leaders are increasingly feeling that they are unable to cope, experience difficulty in making life decisions, and are of the opinion that their organisations do not care about their well-being, they struggled to flourish (Worrall & Cooper, 2014; Sheldon et al., 2019). Boe et al. (2015; 2017) Marx and Liebenberg (2019) pointed out that, because military is a high-risk environment which required a strong character and personality, it is important that junior leaders expose themselves to the developments that allowed them to flourish in their career and life. To summarise, table 3.1 encapsulates the various definitions that detail flourishing.

Table 3.1  
*Summary of flourishing attribute definitions*

Author	Definition	Core definition
<b>Ryan and Deci (2001); Seligman and Csikzentmihalyi (2000)</b>	Flourishing contributed to optimal functioning, personal growth, and developments.	Increased junior leaders' optimal positive functioning, including growth.
<b>Keyes (2005)</b>	Flourishing is defined as a psychological syndrome of well-being that combined feeling good (emotional well-being) and positive functioning (psychological and social well-being).	Is indicated as a product of the junior leader's feeling emotionally satisfied (emotional well-being) and positive functioning (psychological and social well-being).
<b>Seligman, Steen, Park and Peterson (2005)</b>	Flourishing resulted in good mental well-being and positive health.	Is the outcome of junior leaders' efforts to pursue well-balanced lives and careers.
<b>Keyes (2007)</b>	Flourishing is regarded as a pattern of positive feelings and positive psychological functioning in general life.	Is regarded as a pattern of positive expressions and psychological functioning.
<b>Howell (2009)</b>	Flourishing assisted people to accomplish positive life and work results, such as lower levels of absenteeism, increased satisfaction,	Assist junior leaders to accomplish positive life and work goals.

	and higher levels of self-determination.	
<b>Diener et al. (2009)</b>	Flourishing resulted in total human functioning and fulfils requirements such as the need for competence, relatedness, and self-acceptance.	Entail fulfilling junior leaders' cognitive needs such as competence, relatedness, and self-acceptance.
<b>Seligman (2011)</b>	Flourishing is indicated as a positive psychological state described by positive emotions, engagements, positive relationships, meaning, and accomplishments with various positive work/life results.	Is regarded as a junior leader's positive psychological state with various positive work/life accomplishments and high-quality performance.
<b>Seligman (2011)</b>	Flourishing is used to describe positive psychological functioning.	Entailed the junior leader's positive mental functioning
<b>Rothmann and Cooper (2015)</b>	Flourishing consisted of emotional well-being (positive emotions/feeling), psychological well-being (positive psychological functioning), and social well-being (positive social functioning) attributes.	Integrated positive (emotions/feeling), psychological well-being (positive psychological functioning), and social well-being (positive social functioning) attributes that will enhance junior leaders' cognitive processing.
<b>Rothmann and Cooper (2015)</b>	Flourishing involved emotional well-being and psychological well-being employed at work.	Integrated junior leaders' emotional well-being and psychological well-being valences employed at work with the aim to enhance positivity towards life.
<b>Ryff (2018)</b>	Flourishing inculcated resilience, striving and thriving, and reduced life risks, ill health, and diseases.	Resulted from junior leaders' resilient and healthy mental processing state.

### 3.2 THEORETICAL MODEL OF FLOURISHING

In the current study, flourishing was explained in the context of Seligman (2011) PERMA theory.

### 3.2.1 PERMA Model for flourishing (Seligman, 2011)

The components that made up the PERMA model were useful for this study as they brought more insight into the significance of these components to junior leaders' way of flourishing. The current model was the foundation of the instrument that was used to measure the flourishing construct (Diener et al., 2010). Seligman (2011) described the PERMA's five components as Positive emotions, Engagement, Relationships, Meaning in life, and Accomplishments. Figure 3.1 indicated that junior leaders tend to have positive attitudes towards flourishing when their psychological well-being has been described by each of the attributes. If the junior leaders believe that equipping themselves and enhancing psychological well-being led to positive functioning, they are likely to flourish (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Hofstede, Hofstede Insights, 2018).

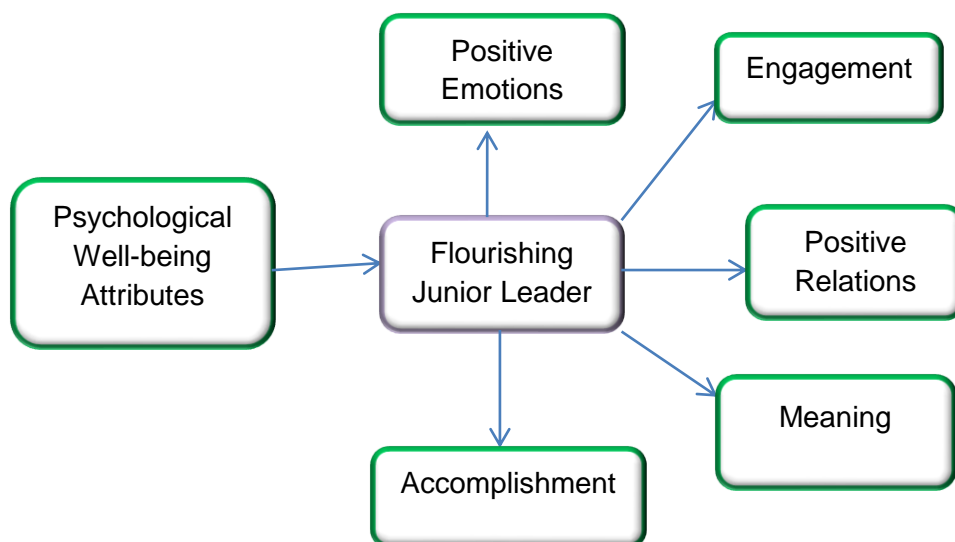


Figure 3.1: Seligman (2011)'s PERMA's five components Model

#### 3.2.1.1 Positive emotions

Positive emotions are contained within the positive psychology spectrum with the aim of promoting a conducive and positive-thinking atmosphere in terms of human functioning (Fredrickson & Losada, 2005; Jit et al., 2017). In the context of this study, positive emotions embraced the aspects of goodness, generosity, growth, and resilience that may contribute to the flourishing of junior leaders (Fredrickson & Losada, 2005; Bell, 2017). Positive emotions motivated the junior leaders and their endeavours to grow potential and lead a purposeful and meaningful life (Meng et al., 2018). Moreover, junior leaders who experienced complete

psychological health tend to experience positive emotions and function well, and those junior leaders with poor mental health tend to languish (Seligman, 2011; Nzonzo, 2017; Wong, 2017).

### 3.2.1.2 *Engagements*

Flourishing junior leaders who were more engaged and interested in their life and daily activities and involved their emotions when carrying out responsibilities (Butler & Kern, 2013; Ariza-Montes et al., 2018). Furthermore, junior leaders who related well to the external demands and who displayed satisfaction with social environments flourish better than those who are negative and display anti-social behaviour towards people and their external or internal environment (Tufail, Bashi, & Shoukat, 2017). The external environment consisted of those factors that are beyond junior leaders' control and are imposed by outside forces, while the internal environment contains those factors that junior leaders can manipulate and control (Larson, 1996; Akhtar et al., 2017). Junior leaders who were flourishing were fully engaged internally and externally, and remain committed to their respective organisations, and are resilient in the face of hardships and setbacks (Rothmann & Buys, 2011; Adams & Bloom, 2017).

### 3.2.1.3 *Positive relationships*

Keyes' (2002) and Segura-Camacho et al. (2018) views indicated that the ability to build and maintained conducive and positive relations and subsequently build intimate trusting relationships with fellow workers contributed to the overall flourishing of junior leaders. In this instance, the current study indicated the importance of enhancing relations and cooperation with others, which lead to health and well-being. Flourishing junior leaders contributed immensely to the happiness and well-being of their subordinates and others at work stations (Bartz et al., 2017) and Mensah (2018) indicated that most of the organisations that promoted psychological well-being and also created mechanisms that increased positive relationships amongst their junior leaders have the ability to flourish (Myers & Diener, 2018). Moreover, Ryan and Deci (2001) emphasised that cognitive needs such as autonomy, competence and relatedness are closely connected to psychological growth, life satisfaction, and psychological health.



#### 3.2.1.4 *Meaning*

Junior leaders tend to function optimally when they realised that the society and co-workers view their lives as meaningful and understandable, are also experiencing growth potential, feel a sense of belonging, are accepted within an organisation, and see themselves as contributing to the overall well-being of others (Daubner-Siva et al., 2018). Many junior leaders felt that they were flourishing when they realise that they lead a purposeful and meaningful life (Khoreva et al., 2018). Furthermore, junior leaders who viewed their lives as valuable and worthwhile were likely to increase their prosperity and chances to flourish in their career and life experiences (Seligman, 2011; Myers & Diener, 2018).

#### 3.2.1.5 *Accomplishment*

Accomplishment means the ability to pursue life success, achievement, and personal mastery (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Goller & Paloniemi, 2017). For junior leaders to feel that they are flourishing, it is important for them to timeously check how they are making progress towards the accomplishment of the set goals and plans (Strauss et al., 2017). In this relatively new information on flourishing, aspects of fulfilment, self-actualisation, and personal accomplishment were central themes for the well-being and flourishing of junior leaders (Niemic, 2018). This means that many junior leaders were increasingly thriving in life by following their own career and life ambitions, while also trying to fulfil the needs that would lead to their personal satisfaction and feeling positively towards their life, enabling them to flourish (Segal, Williams, & Teasdale, 2012; Becton, Carr, Mossholder, & Walker, 2017).

### **3.3 BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES INFLUENCING FLOURISHING**

#### 3.3.1 Age

Junior leaders between the ages of 45 and 54 have lower levels of flourishing (Steptoe et al., 2015). Moreover, junior leaders who are older and suffering from illnesses such as coronary heart disease, arthritis, and chronic lung disease showed lower levels of both psychological well-being and flourishing (Steptoe et al., 2015; Sullivan & Willis, 2018). Junior leaders who were in a better mental health state flourished more than the older junior leaders (Steptoe et al., 2015; Baumeister & Landau, 2018). Flourishing junior leaders between the ages of 45 and 54 demonstrated positive affect and flourishing more than junior leaders 16 years and

older do. Junior leaders with complete psychological well-being were experiencing positive emotions and flourished (functioning positively) more than those junior leaders with incomplete psychological well-being and poor mental health, who are languishing (Ryff & Keyes, 2005; Taneva & Arnold, 2018). The study indicated that junior leaders who are in their 25<sup>th</sup> years old and younger age group, seemed display potential and energy and accomplish more, than junior leaders in the 56 years and older age group (Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010; Erlingsson & Brysiewicz, 2017).

### 3.3.2 Race

Junior leaders from different race groups differ in how they flourish (Marijke, Pieterse, Drossaert, Westerho, de Graaf, Have, Walburg, & Bohlmeijer, 2016; Van Erp et al., 2018). Junior leaders from the black race group in the military environment seek opportunities to increase their flourishing chances more than other race groups do (Chan, 2006; Rozkwitalska, 2018). Meanwhile, junior leaders from the white race group have more opportunities to flourish than leaders from other race groups (Steptoe et al., 2015; Stoermer, Hitotsuyanagi-Hansel, & Froese, 2017).

### 3.3.3 Gender

The study indicated that male and female junior leaders differ in relation to how they flourish (Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010; Steptoe et al., 2015; Woodson & Harris, 2018). Male and female junior leaders differ significantly in relation to their satisfaction levels with life and how they flourish (Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010). Female junior leaders have a significantly stronger need for career opportunities that would enable them to flourish compared to their male counterparts (Woodson & Harris, 2018). Moreover, female junior leaders placed a higher value on steady and stable work opportunities that assisted them to flourish (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009; Hall et al., 2018).

### 3.3.4 Years of service

In relation to years of service, junior leaders who flourished tend to have greater emotional attachment, work longer hours, have more years of service, and lived a positive personal and social life (Keyes, 2002; Martínez-Martí & Ruch, 2017). Junior leaders working longer hours than other junior leaders tend to have positive organisational behaviour and embrace organisational citizenship behaviour, which contributes to their psychological well-being and flourishing (Ng & Feldmann, 2008; Creed et al., 2017). Flourishing junior leaders need more

years of experience and stronger positive affect than negative affect to prosper in life and career (Larsen & Prizmic, 2008; Alreshidi, 2018; Gray, 2018).

### 3.3.5 Rank

Junior leaders who were supportive towards and less controlling of their subordinates tend to have higher chances of flourishing (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010; Marx & Liebenberg, 2019). Junior leaders who were compassionate enhance their emotional well-being and contentment in life and also foster positive mind states such as happiness and optimism, which in turn builds on their psychological well-being and flourishing aspects (Neff, 2011; Daubner-Siva et al., 2018). Junior-ranking leaders in the military environment monitored their professional and performance targets as well as their personal developments, while in turn changing these developments into potential opportunities for flourishing (Marx & Liebenberg, 2019).

Table 3.2

*Summary of the Flourishing Biographical Variables*

Flourishing biographical variables	Core conclusion
<b>Age</b>	Younger junior leaders showed significant differences in terms of confidence in their ability to achieve career goals that enabled them to flourish, when compared to older junior leaders.
<b>Race</b>	Junior leaders from different race groups differed in how they build personal resources that enable them to flourish in life.
<b>Gender</b>	Male and female junior leaders differed in terms of how they intend to flourish.
<b>Years of service</b>	Junior leaders with long service records differed on how positive organisational behaviour and organisational citizenship behaviour contributed to their psychological well-being and how they flourish.
<b>Rank</b>	Junior leaders from different ranks differed in how they use dispositional resources to flourish in their lives and careers.

### 3.4 IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

A psychological well-being profile is importance and contributed to the understanding of junior leaders' well-being at work places. This required assimilation and integration of flourishing attributes into well-being interventions (Mróz, Szufa, & Frontasyeva, 2018). The current study pointed to the practical implications of junior leaders' positive or negative emotional experiences, careers, and psychological well-being on their ability to flourish. Specific characteristics that embodied flourishing were specified as the creation of positive emotions, engagement, personal relations, meaningfulness, and the accomplishment of set goals (Ryff, 2018; Myers & Diener, 2018). The SANDF should invest in flourishing practices, to assist junior leaders to realise their potential, and fulfil their optimal functions to flourish. There should be interventions that address the cognitive, affective, and conative experiences, as well as their relations and psychological well-being, so that junior leaders can flourish in the SANDF.

Flourishing occurs when junior leaders realised that their potential, overcame challenges, and optimised their resilience and abilities factors (Vallerand, & Rapaport, 2017). Flourishing has its roots in the positive psychology that advocates for positive thinking and increases overall well-being. The study contributed to a clear understanding of the practices of well-being and has arranged psychological well-being profile elements that were suitable for flourishing junior leaders. To do this, a thorough integration of the flourishing attributes and the dispositional attributes was required. Furthermore, the study indicated that well-being is a psychological state, rather than a physical state, that contributed to flourishing (Seligman, 2011; Hefferon et al., 2017).

In most instances, junior leaders inspire positivity in their subordinates and followers, and motivated them to lead a purposeful and engaged life (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Ariza-Montes et al., 2018). Most organisations were increasingly addressing psychological well-being seriously and integrating it into their strategic and well-being interventions activities (Sieberhagen et al., 2011; Ariza-Montes et al., 2018). Junior leaders' approach to psychological well-being and healthy life style and their work conditions (including organisational values and conducts) contributed to their overall psychological well-being (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Baumeister & Landau, 2018; WHO, 2019). In most instances, illness increased due to the fact that many junior leaders were unable to take time off from work, even if they experience ill health (Worrall & Cooper, 2014; Woodson & Harris, 2018). Junior leaders have a positive emotional point, and were also capable of self-inducing joy,

happiness, and sadness (either temporary or short lived) and to build on their psychological well-being (Seligman, 2011; Baumeister & Landau, 2018).

Flourishing was defined as an indication of junior leaders' self-appraisals regarding their positive living and organisational functioning (Ariza-Montes et al., 2018). Flourishing embraces the two dimensions of feeling good and functioning well. Accordingly, when these two components combined, they indicate human flourishing (Keyes & Annas, 2009). Therefore, flourishing junior leaders showed hope, optimism, positivity, and resilience, and are engaged in their work (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Woodson & Harris, 2018). Junior leaders also need to accumulate personal drivers to increase their motivation and inspiration to flourish in their determination for self-fulfilment and goal achievement (Baumeister & Landau, 2018). Coetzee et al. (2017) and Coetzee (2008) emphasised that career harmonisers are important in organisations as they contribute more to the flourishing of people.

The current study was conducted within a typical high-risk military environment which directs risky occupations. Van Erp et al. (2018) argued that, normally, high-risk occupations were those jobs where junior leaders may encounter unpredictable, difficult, and stressful situations when executing their tasks, and include things such as military operations and drill settings. In these high-risk situations, individuals may struggle to flourish effectively. The study highlighted the most important elements that support the flourishing of junior leaders; namely happiness, healthy life style, coping resilience, adaptation, and satisfaction with life (Seligman, 2011, Ryff, 2015; 2018; Marchiondo, Cortina, & Kabat-Farr, 2018). As Hackman (2009) and Ariza-Montes et al. (2018) indicated, flourishing junior leaders tend to embrace overall well-being and are inclined to positive organisation functioning prospects. Furthermore, positive organisational functioning and positive constructs such as hope, optimism, and life satisfaction contribute well to positive emotional experiences (Brown et al., 2017).

Overall, there were significant individual differences in how fast and how much junior leaders adapted to the negative life events that impeded on their flourishing and life satisfaction. In relation to the above, life satisfaction included the sum of individuals' emotional well-being experienced over a period of time, such as habitual happiness, satisfaction with the overall career, positive feelings and conditions, and changes that are needed in life (Seligman, 2011; Strauss, Parker, & O'Shea, 2017). Resilience was defined as the ability to forge different pathways despite any life setbacks or adversity (Seligman, 2011; Meng, et al.,

2018). Figure 3.2 is a depiction of the integration of flourishing (positive psychological functioning) and the psychological well-being dimensions.

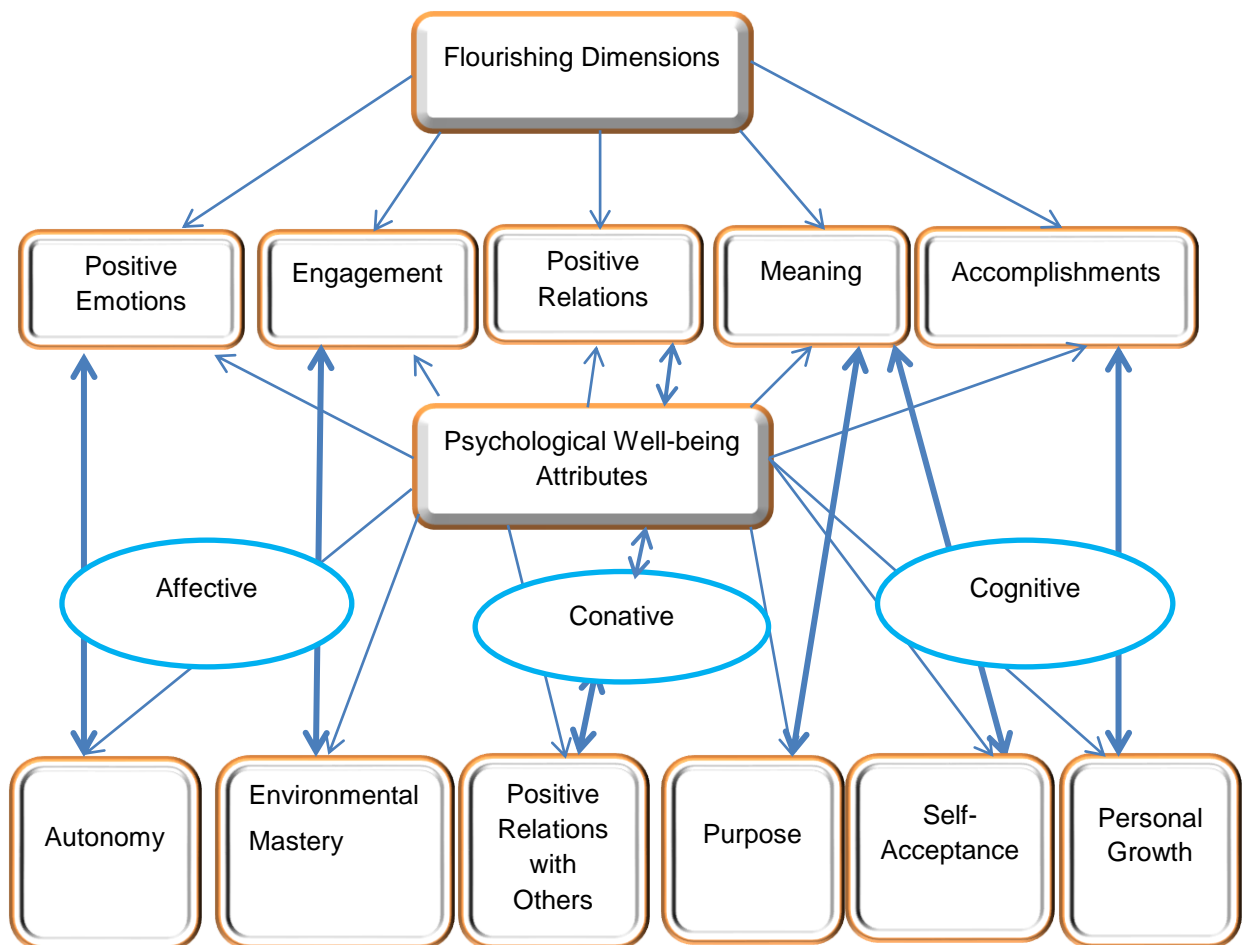


Figure 3.2: Illustration of the integration of flourishing into psychological well-being dimensions

Figure 3.2 is discussed in detail in the next sections. It provided an integrated overview of the flourishing dimensions and psychological well-being attributes underpinning the intended psychological well-being profile.

### 3.4.1 Flourishing

The current literature pointed out that flourishing comprised aspects of emotional well-being (positive emotions/feeling or expressions), psychological well-being (positive psychological functioning), and social well-being (positive social functioning) attributes (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Ryff, 2018). Overall, flourishing consisted of positive emotions, engagement, positive relations, meaning, and accomplishments. Importantly, figure 3.2 indicated that well-

being contains the two components of feeling satisfied and functioning well. When these two components are combined they indicated flourishing (Keyes & Annas, 2009; Sheldon et al., 2019). The feeling of satisfaction relates to the cognitive dimension that aims to enhance positive thinking and engagement (Van Erp et al., 2018). In relation to the affective dimension, junior leaders would explore career and life development possibilities that would empower them to flourish further (Ryff, 2018). These may include vigour, commitment, choosing certain career anchors, creating positive relations with others, and gaining an understanding of the military environment surrounding them (Schotanus-Dijkstra et al., 2019).

On the conative dimension, junior leaders would be inspired and motivated to be independent and to engage with the sophisticated areas of learning and growing (Myers & Diener, 2018). The study indicated that positive emotions facilitate good relationships with others and increase cohesion (Ryff, 2018; Schotanus-Dijkstra et al., 2019). Therefore, the study would indicate how the relations management dimension is vital to a psychological well-being profile.

### **3.4.2 Psychological well-being**

Until now, psychological well-being has been operationalised and studied in the positive affective states and optimal cognitive and positive psychological functioning. In relation to the above, psychological well-being consists of autonomy, which refers to junior leaders' independent judgements and their internal locus of control in terms of their actions and not seeking approval from others; environmental mastery, which refers to junior leaders' ability to engage, manage, and understand what is happening around themselves; and positive relations, which relate to the importance of creating trusting, satisfactory, and interpersonal relationships with seniors and subordinates (Myers & Diener, 2018; Schotanus-Dijkstra et al., 2018).

Additionally, purpose in life (which refers to planning and creating meaning and purpose in life) and self-acceptance (which indicates junior leaders' self-introspection and evaluation about their past and future life experiences) are paramount to well-being (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Kenny & Vachhani, 2017). Personal growth refers to junior leaders' personal development and continuous learning experiences, which are embarked upon to allow them to flourish (Maslow, 1968; Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Ryff, 2018). According to figure 3.2, psychological well-being relates to flourishing junior leaders and how well they cognitively

process information affectively. As Huppert (2009) and Hefferon et al. (2017) indicated, psychological well-being indicates that everything in life is going well.

Furthermore, psychological well-being combined feelings of positivity and positive optimal psychological functioning (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). The affective dimension is influenced by positive emotions and expressed feelings, such as the frequency with which junior leaders experience pleasant or unpleasant expressed feelings in reaction to their life circumstances (Diener, 1997; Myers & Diener, 2018). On the conative dimension, junior leaders thrive to fulfil career and life aspirations to increase their personal growth. As indicated, Bozionelos and Singh (2017) found that attributes of personality and well-being enhance the building of positive relations with others and are essential to junior leaders' flourishing.

In summary, psychological well-being is theoretically rooted in the models of positive psychology that seek to assist junior leaders to optimise their potential to flourish (Cilliers, 2011; Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Schotanus-Dijkstra et al., 2018). Overall, a positive emotional states is regarded as that in which junior leaders experience optimal happiness and satisfaction with life (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Myers & Diener, 2018). The aspects of environmental mastery are broad and entail junior leaders' capacity to choose and manage surrounding environments that are suitable to personal meaning (Ryff, 1989; 2018; Keyes, 2002) The cognitive, affective, and conative dimensions require appraisals of positive emotions, positive relationships, and personal growth that are important for flourishing (Keyes, 2002; Bartz et al., 2017).

### **3.4.3 Flourishing of junior leaders**

The flourishing interventions should aim to address the practice of well-being in junior leaders. The chief aims of developing flourishing practices in the SANDF were to create awareness on psychological and psychosocial well-being strategies and to introduce personal resources management that will enhance flourishing among junior leaders (Diner et al., 2010; Rothmann, 2013; Ryff, 2018). The study highlighted the importance of the SANDF in creating an environment that supports the flourishing of junior leaders through many activities and initiatives, allowing them to innovative different ideas, presenting them with opportunities to choose careers orientations, being responsive to differing opinions, and promoting learning, hygiene and a conducive atmosphere (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Ryff, 1989; 2018; Daubner-Siva et al., 2018).



Therefore, if the junior leaders are not adapting to some of these psychological and emotional demands, they may experience negativity, stress or distress, deterioration in mental health, poor decision-making, emotional alienation, poor people management, and the emergence of an autocratic and bureaucratic leadership style (Worrall & Cooper, 2014; Ali et al., 2018). In actuality, developing junior leaders who will flourish would require maintaining social ties and identities and allowing them opportunities to develop their own decisions and do things themselves, and building trust relations (Helliwell, 2011; Farnia et al., 2018). Furthermore, there is a view that if junior leaders experienced positivity and greater congruence between their role expectations, as well as strength and self-concept, there is a possibility that they will commit their personal efforts to achieving their personal and organisational goals and, in turn, will flourish more (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Bartz et al., 2017).

Flourishing junior leaders are able to lead and provide feedback to subordinates and their senior leaders while maintaining their psychological strengths (Seligman, 2011; Rothmann & Cooper, 2015). The literature indicated that, in most instances, junior leaders gain their personal strength and confidence from their personality and character strength attributes (Nemac, 2018). In view of the above, personality and character strength would then contribute to junior leaders' positive traits, such as overall thoughts, feelings, and behaviours about certain jobs and the type of organisation they intend to serve (Martínez-Martí & Ruch, 2017).

Positive emotional experiences increased junior leaders' thinking capabilities and attention to details and played a role in flourishing, while the negative emotional experiences narrowed thinking capability and attention, thereby increasing the chances of these junior leaders languishing (Fredrickson, 2001; Bozionelos & Singh, 2017). Very importantly, if junior leaders function well and experienced positive emotions but also experienced conditions that make them dissatisfied or experience negative emotions, either in the organisation or in their personal life circumstances, they would not flourish (Rothmann, 2013; Miao, Humphrey, & Qian, 2017). Therefore, the current research aimed to develop a psychological well-being profile for junior leaders in the SANDF to streamline well-being and advocate for psychological fitness and positive thinking.

### **3.5 EVALUATION AND SYNTHESIS OF RESEARCH LITERATURE**

Psychologically healthy junior leaders are likely to be resilient and build on their positive emotions to flourish (Keyes, 2002; Seligman, 2011; Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Gray, 2018).

Resilience is part of positive thinking and is defined as a capacity to preserve or regain well-being in the face of setbacks (Zhai, Wang, & Weadon, 2017). In addition, flourishing has been contextualised as a positive psychological functioning factor. Psychological well-being was seen as a predisposition or propensity to sustain the integration of the junior leaders' flourishing in the organisation (Bell, 2017; Jordan, Gessnitzer, & Kauffeld, 2017). Psychological well-being was regarded as a personal engagement with the real and existential challenges of life, with the aim of achieving optimal functioning (Van der Walt, 2018). According to Bakker and Demerouti (2018) and Ryff (2018) flourishing encapsulated how well-being changes during development and later in life, how personality correlates with well-being, how well-being is linked to family life experiences, how well-being is related to work and environmental activities, and finding the connections between well-being and overall health.

Generally, flourishing consisted of positive emotions, engagement, positive relations, meaning, and accomplishment (Keyes, 2002; Myers & Diener, 2018; Ryff, 2018). Together, these dimensions illustrated how flourishing can be approached and understood that it is a positive contributor to a positive and healthy psychological state. Junior leaders who were free of any psychological disorders and moderately mentally healthy were flourishing (Keyes, 2002; Yang, Li, Zhongqiu, Liang, Zhang, & Xue, 2019). Furthermore, there is a general view that many junior leaders joined the organisation with the aspiration of ascending from being merely an employee, to becoming either a junior leader or general manager of the organisation, and with the hope that the organisation would also take care of their social and psychological well-being.

Furthermore, in the process of ascending to a junior leader position, many junior leaders are confronted with the negative process of cognitive decline and socio-emotional losses, which may impact on their prospect of flourishing as the result of psychological disturbances, negativity, stiff organisational regulations, and flat career mobility paths (Craig, 1996; Bakker & Demerouti, 2018; Kleine, Rudolph, & Zacher, 2019). Therefore, Schwartz, Koen, & Vignoles, 2011) showed that, in essence, junior leaders' career flourishing would derive from the cognitive processes between their formation of self-discovery, synthesis; and self-concept, and social, economic, culture, and workplace realities. In summary, the study showed that on the cognitive dimension, flourishing junior leaders would feel satisfied and express positive thinking while growing competencies.

These junior leaders tend to feel actively engaged, thereby creating a purpose for their lives. On the affective dimension, junior leaders would feel involved, engaged, and

accommodated, and create positive relationships with others committed to the organisation. On the conative dimension, junior leaders would view careers and adversities as challenges that must be overcome in order to flourish. Junior leaders would feel the need to modify their behaviour in a manner that propelled them to think positively, promote self-acceptance, and enable them to thrive and accomplish set targets. The aspect of relations management entails junior leaders building cooperation and teamwork to accomplish tasks. Therefore, in terms of relations management, junior leaders learned how to interact and build strong and positive interpersonal and positive relationships, allowing them to flourish (Adams & Bloom, 2017; Bozionelos & Singh, 2017; Wong, 2017).

Overall, there seems to be a lack of research on flourishing junior leaders. The current research filled the gap regarding the way in which junior leaders flourish in the military environment. Although there was a body of research on flourishing and psychological well-being in many organisations, there was a need to research further on junior leaders' psychological well-being in relation to flourishing. This research intended to add more knowledge on the way in which psychological well-being was related to flourishing on a developed psychological well-being profile. It is opined that research aim 3, namely to conceptualise flourishing (positive psychological functioning) by means of a theoretical model in the literature review, was achieved.

### **3.6 THEORETICAL INTEGRATION TOWARDS A PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING PROFILE**

This section addressed the following literature research aims:

**Research aim 3:** To conceptualise the nature of the theoretical relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological function), and to explain this relationship in terms of an integrated theoretical model in the literature.

**Research aim 4:** To evaluate how biographical characteristics influence the development of the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).

**Research aim 5:** To critically evaluate the implications of a psychological well-being profile of junior leaders within the SANDF. In this section, the study discussed the contextual integration of the dispositional (emotional affect, career orientations, organisational

commitment) attributes and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning), as well as the theoretical relationships between the constructs of dispositional attributes and flourishing with a view to developing a psychological well-being profile for junior leaders.

### **3.6.1 Constructing a hypothesised psychological well-being profile for junior leaders**

Keyes (2005) and Ahmed and Bashir (2017) distinguished between two types of flourishing: the aspects of feeling good (emotional well-being) and positive functioning (psychological and social well-being). Feeling good encompassed those factors that supported junior leaders' positive emotional well-being and positive emotional expressions, which enhanced optimal effectiveness and feelings of satisfaction (Wang et al., 2018). Positive functioning was seen as those cognitive resources that assisted junior leaders to think positively and solve complex challenges while increasing their potential (Yildirim & Alanazi, 2018).

While dispositional attributes consisted of emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment, it refers to all internal resources that assisted junior leaders to pave a path to their self-development and personal meaning (Goller and Paloniemi, 2017). Positive psychological functioning consisted of flourishing resources that assisted junior leaders to grow out some limitations and self-actualise themselves to their utmost potential. Optimism also contributed to flourishing (Ahmed et al., 2018). Furthermore, optimism plays a role in successful positive functioning and psychological well-being (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015). Junior leaders tend to experience a wide range of challenges such as career plateaus, military deployment and operations stressors, family and organisational limitations, and limitations, psychologically maladjusted emotions, and behavioural experiences (Van Dyk, 2009; Marx & Liebenberg, 2019).

It is evident that junior leaders who felt satisfied with their life circumstances and conditions tend to create and experience positive emotions and were also psychologically and socially well (Diener et al., 2010; Seligman, 2011; Barkhuizen et al., 2013; Ryff, 2018). For junior leaders to flourish, they have to focus on their energy, psychic ability, ego power, self-confidence, self-efficacy, and hardiness, and should cope well with their daily work and operational challenges (Jacobs & Van Niekerk, 2017). The study by Barkhuizen, Rothmann, and Van de Vijver (2013) founded that many personnel who flourish are more likely to have been engaged at work effectively.

### 3.6.1.1 *Flourishing*

Flourishing contained the universal psychological needs of growing competence, increasing relatedness, and self-acceptance (Diener et al., 2010; Daubner-Siva et al., 2018). Flourishing included building positive relations, engaging and building supportive relationships, and creating purpose and meaning (Diener et al., 2010). Flourishing junior leaders have vigour, enthusiasm, and autonomy, and were actively involved in creating and nurturing their potential for future life and career outlooks (Daubner-Siva et al., 2018). Both Seligman (2011) and Ryff (2018) established that psychological well-being and flourishing were related constructs because they advocate good mental health and positive psychological functioning, which enhanced the well-being of junior leaders.

In addition, flourishing contributed to a positive psychological functioning state and the development of the potential ability of junior leaders (Seligman, 2011; Coetzee, 2014). Flourishing was defined better by Seligman (2011) as a positive psychological state that entails positive emotions, engagements, positive relationships, meaning, and accomplishments on various personal levels. Additionally, most organisations need to increasingly rely on the potential, intellectual, and personal strengths of their personnel to be able to flourish (Daubner-Siva et al., 2018). Flourishing indicated junior leaders' self-perceived success in many positive areas, according to Diener et al. (2010), while Coetzee (2008) and later on Hefferon et al. (2017) also indicated a strong relation between flourishing and well-being.

### **3.6.2 Towards developing a psychological well-being profile: integration of the dispositional attributes and flourishing attributes**

The central hypothesis of the current study was that the relationship dynamics between the psychological dispositional attributes (experiences of emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attributes (positive psychological functioning) constituted a psychological well-being profile for junior leaders, which can be utilised to inform organisational career and psychological well-being practices. Furthermore, junior leaders' biographical characteristics (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) significantly moderated the relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).

It also suggested that junior leaders from different age, race, gender, years of service, and rank groups differed significantly in relation to their flourishing (positive psychological functioning) state. The approach by Diener et al. (2010) and Ryff (2018) established that psychological well-being was characterised by the feeling of functioning well and positive or negative emotional experiences. As indicated earlier, the two aspects of work and environment were likely to affect junior leaders' psychological and emotional well-being (Bakker & Demerouti, 2018). This meant that optimal utilisation of junior leaders' abilities and nurturing their potential competencies was essential, in that life experiences in the workplace play a crucial role in the flourishing or languishing of these junior leaders (Rothmann, 2013; Zhai et al., 2017). Junior leaders who gained vast experience in work and organisational processes also gained useful knowledge about their well-being and maintain their psychological state, and are likely to flourish more than those who do not (Rothmann, 2013; Segura-Camacho, García-Orozco, & Topa, 2018).

As Boe (2015) and Niemiec (2018) highlighted, junior leaders who are emotionally and psychologically strong have the vigour to face any challenges or life setbacks, and are not easily shattered when tackling military operations. Currently, there are many organisations that were increasingly assisting their junior leaders to strive and to maintain their health and psychological well-being (Coetzee & de Villiers, 2009). Similarly, many junior leaders who also learnt to interact, build trust relations, and are leading a purposeful and progressive life were developing positive thinking and engage others more (Cook & Geldenhuys, 2018). In many instances, junior leaders who ascended to leadership positions need to strike a balance between their psychological or emotional resilience and cognitive resources, and also ensure that they maintain a high level of endurance and sharp thinking to prosper going ahead (Rothmann, 2010; Bakker & Demerouti, 2018).

The study was conducted to assist junior leaders to maintain their well-being, and also to equip them with the necessary competencies to enhance their flourishing capabilities during the early stage of their leadership development. In relation to the above, Coetzee et al. (2015) specifies that career harmonisers were significant contributors to competencies and flourishing. In addition, it is important to note that psychological well-being takes account of cognitive and affective competency development because it was referred to as the capacity to live a creative and productive life, feeling positive and involved, and also dealing with life's inevitable setbacks, while enhancing relationship management (WHO, 2019).

In their study, Van Zyl & Stander (2015) found that flourishing leaders had high levels of self-control and strong characters, and adopt a mastery-approach towards their targets or goals. As indicated earlier, the concepts of character strength and life satisfaction are both positive traits that support overall well-being and contributed greatly to flourishing (Parker et al., 2004). Prior, Peterson and Seligman (2004) and Niemac (2018) defined character strength as a tendency to act in a particular way, or desires and feelings to exercise certain prerogatives that elicit certain reactions towards an event, position, and organisation in pursuit of flourishing. Since emotional experiences played a critical part in junior leaders' positive thinking, behaviour adjustments were also critical in career-decision architects (Bergh, 2014; Becton et al., 2017).

Coetzee, Bergh, and Schreuder (2010) and Strauss et al. (2017) found that life satisfaction also enhances happiness, job satisfaction, and the good perception of jobs, characters, and working together with fellow workers enhances relationships and managing dynamics which were important for psychological well-being and flourishing. The literature indicated that most junior leaders have the ability to set their emotional experiences and was capable of self-inducing happiness or sadness, which would build or distract from their psychological well-being. Martínez-Martí and Ruch (2017) argued that the positive thinking of junior leaders facilitated positive leadership abilities and self-efficacy of subordinates by focusing on their strengths and capabilities, so that they function well. Self-efficacy was important for flourishing junior leaders to develop the capacity to control and manage their emotional expressions and enhance their positive relations (Bandura, 1993).

As Bandura (1993) highlighted, there was also a need to have strong self-efficacy to deal with certain life setbacks. Overall, there was a strong positive relationship between psychological well-being and flourishing (Kim et al., 2018; Ryff, 2018). In summary, the study emphasised that positive thinking, well-being, and flourishing indicated the presence of high levels of positive functioning (Farrand, Matthews, Dickens, & Woodford, 2015; Creed et al., 2017; Segura-Camacho et al., 2018). The study also unearthed that junior leaders' cognitive impairment is likely to increase depression, anxiety, psychological distress, and poor mental health-related quality of life.

There was also a lack of research examining the evidence base for psychological well-being practices and interventions intended for junior leaders. Furthermore, the study envisaged the interventions that targeted psychological dispositional attributes that were arranged within the elements of cognitive functioning, affective functioning, relations management,

behavioural factors, social factors and relationships functioning. The proposed interventions aimed to improve psychological well-being as directed by the junior leaders' depression, anxiety, psychological distress, or mental health-related quality of life, with the aim that junior leaders could flourish in future.

### **3.6.3 Hypothesised theoretical psychological well-being profile for junior leaders**

Based on the current literature, a hypothetical psychological profile with relationships between dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning) was envisaged. Based on the theoretical argument, the following psychological well-being profile emerged: Figure 3.3 indicated the elements that constitute a psychological well-being profile. These elements were arranged into the four dimensions of cognitive processes, affective functioning, conative, and formation of relations management which enhance flourishing.



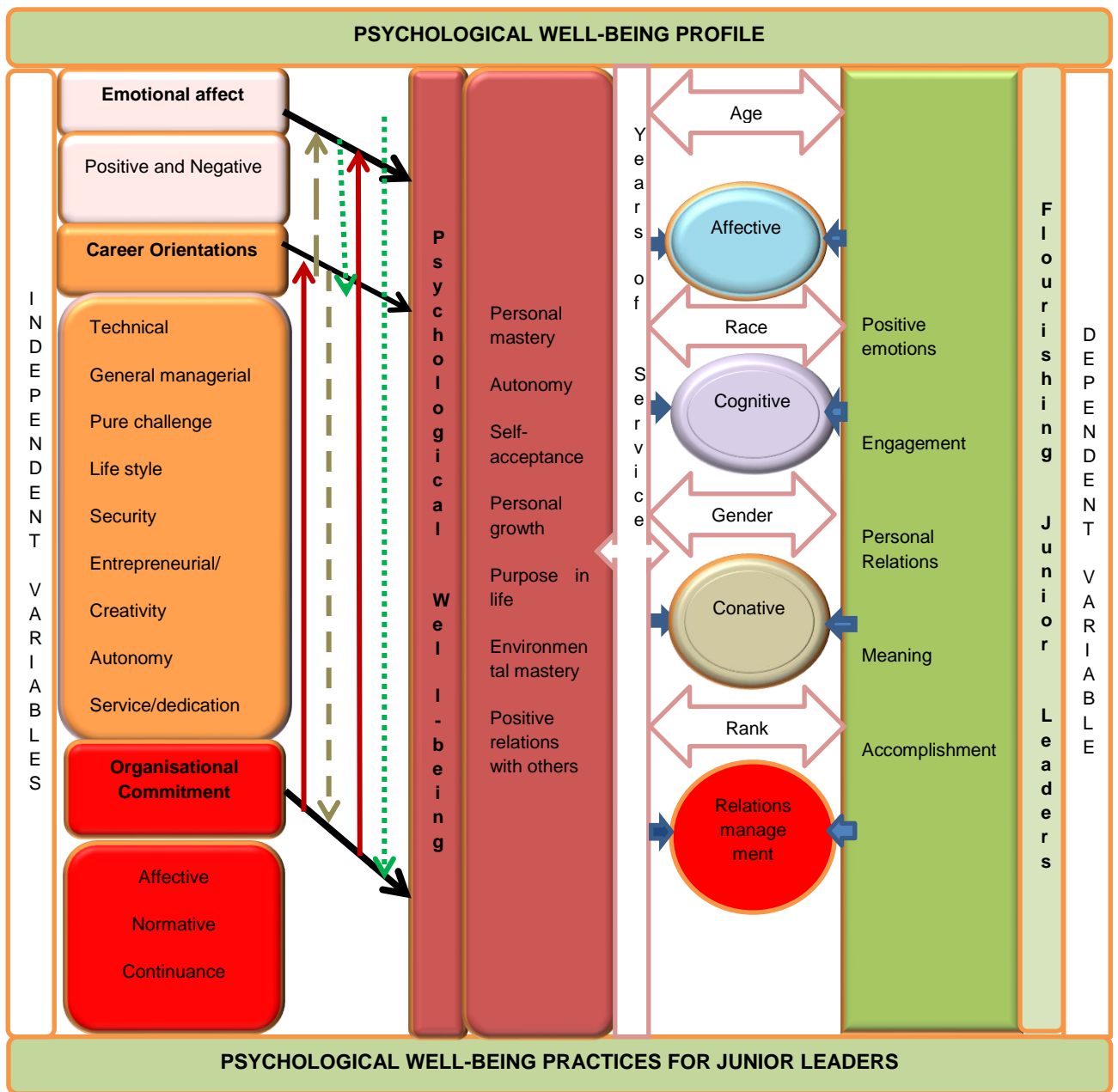


Figure 3.3: Hypothesised psychological well-being profile for junior leaders

IV - independent variables: emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment  
 DV- dependent variable: flourishing

As illustrated in the theoretical psychological well-being profile in figure 3.3, the envisaged profile was split into four dimensions: affective, cognitive, and conative and relations management. The dispositional attributes were independent variables and consisted of the

three constructs of emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitments, while the positive psychological functioning attribute (flourishing) was the dependent variable. The emotional affect consisted of two factors, namely positive and negative affect. The career orientations aspects consisted of the eight career anchors of autonomy, service/dedication to a cause, security/stability, entrepreneurial/creativity, pure challenge, technical/function, general managerial, and life style. Organisational commitment consisted of the three valences of continuance, normative, and affective commitments. The envisaged psychological well-being profile consisted of the six characteristics of personal mastery, autonomy, self-acceptance, personal growth, purpose in life, environmental mastery, and positive relations with others.

The biographical information consisted of the five groups of age, race, gender, years of service, and rank details. Furthermore, figure 3.3 indicated that the elements were interrelated and that repeated exposure to various positive experiences and positive relations increased the level of personal resources, well-being, and emotional resources, which will in turn assist junior leaders to flourish well and stay committed to their respective organisations (Goleman, 2001; Seligman, 2011; Ryff, 2018; Taneva & Arnold, 2018). Overall, deliberations on the dispositional and flourishing attributes discussions were arranged from the affective, cognitive, conative and relations management as follows:

#### 3.6.3.1 *Affective functioning dimension*

Figure 3.3 indicated that on the affective functioning dimension junior leaders would express their emotional affect of either positive or negative feelings to others and within the organisation. The junior leaders would show affective functioning, which will assist the creation of a passage of livelihood for them to maintain their psychological well-being. Positive experiences allowed junior leaders to take responsibility for their own career developments and engaged in activities that promote their overall psychological well-being (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012; Ahmed & Bashir, 2017). Junior leaders were aware of their emotions and displayed the different emotions that assist them to resolve any psychological tensions and stressful situations that can make the working environment unbearable and detrimental to their well-being (Goleman, 2001; Bezuidenhout & Cilliers, 2010; Farnia et al., 2018).

In terms of career orientations, junior leaders showed positive admiration for certain career anchors and choices which aided their psychological well-being (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2008; 2010; Martínez-Martí & Ruch, 2017). Junior leaders were also keen to explore,

develop, and grow, and were likely to accomplish their career-development goals. On this emotional affect level, junior leaders developed positive attitudes, resilience, assertiveness, and self-management in line with their career choices, which assisted them to manage their career changes and developments, rather than avoiding them (Ferreira, 2012; Bozionelos & Singh, 2017). Moreover, junior leaders developed curiosity to keep improving on their life style in a manner that supported their overall well-being, and take on challenging careers that allowed them to function independently, all in order to reach the self-actualisation stage of their lives (Baumeister & Landau, 2018).

Figure 3.3 indicated that in terms of organisational commitment, junior leaders were affectively engaged and committed fully to their current organisations (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Coetzee et al., 2017). Junior leaders perceived unfolding events in the organisation as involving emotion and may be happy and satisfied with how the organisation managed their work settings, activities, and operations. Junior leaders' level of satisfaction and positive expression indicates how they were feeling about their current organisation, including their intention to stay committed or not (Rothmann, 2013).

Overall, career anchors were linked to continuance and normative commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Coetzee, 2008; Farnia et al., 2018). During flourishing, in the affective functioning dimension, junior leaders displayed positive emotions and a desire to reach their goals, lifestyles, and achievements (Rothmann, 2013; Ahmed & Bashir, 2017). Flourishing junior leaders were also challenged by negative emotions and situations, but were resilient in their endeavours for success (Ariza-Montes et al., 2018). In flourishing, junior leaders' view was that there was an opportunity for growth and tolerance towards fellow colleagues and subordinates (Latif, 2010; Choi et al., 2012; Riforgiate & Komarova, 2017). The proposed interventions on this dimension assisted junior leaders to manage their felt emotions and build and improve the personal resources that were worthy of investing to achieve a flourishing state. Additionally, junior leaders could develop ways to improve their health and life style and pursue their career aspirations (Schein, 1990; Savickas & Porfelli, 2012; Riforgiate & Komarova, 2017).

#### 3.6.3.2 *Cognitive functioning dimension*

On an emotional level, the junior leaders used emotional affect to monitor their own and others emotions, and perceive those emotions that facilitated their thought process as positive motivations and regulated them in view of their personal growth and developments (Mayer & Salovey, 1990; Ahmed & Bashir, 2017). The junior leaders tend to consider and

evaluate their ability to act consciously and think better to resolve the stumbling situations that prevented them from flourishing (Ahmed & Bashir, 2017; Van Zyl & De Bruin, 2012). In terms of career orientations, figure 3.3 indicated that junior leaders learn to work and cooperate with others at the workplace. Junior leaders tend to be consistent in their actions and their career explorations. Junior leaders seized career opportunities that contributed to their psychological well-being, which in turn helped them to be happy and satisfied with their lives.

Regarding organisational commitment, junior leaders used advanced skills to explore ways to stay within the organisation. Fringe benefits, promotions, career fulfilment, and goal accomplishments to drive the junior leaders' intentions to stay committed to the current organisation (White, 2017). Furthermore, junior leaders to exert more pressure to management and show consideration to others while increasing their career capabilities, which will helped them find a fit in terms of the organisational demands (Savickas & Porfelli, 2012; White, 2017). With respect to flourishing, figure 3.3 showed that flourishing junior leaders tend to enhance their potential and grow faster in their careers (Ryff, 1989; 2018).

Flourishing junior leaders are able to nurture and grow the abilities that match their talents and interests, which may increase their psychological connections (Schein, 1990; Daubner-Siva et al., 2018). At the cognitive dimension, proposed interventions assisted junior leaders to enhance their capabilities and manage career developments and commitment strategies while functioning effectively (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Seligman, 2011). These junior leaders were capacitated to handle difficult and stressful situations and accomplish organisational targets, while managing their well-being (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Kleine et al., 2019).

### 3.6.3.3 *Conative functioning dimension*

In terms of emotional affect, positive affect was part of an individual's personal resources and well-being, and assisted individuals to create the sense of awareness and creative and health consciousness (Fredrickson, 2001; Fotaki et al., 2017). The negative affect can be destructive if not managed well, but can also trigger adaptive responses and assist the individual to increase resilience for survival (Fredrickson, 2001; Hentschel, Eid, & Kutscher, 2017). The emotional affect attributes were used to capitalise on overall health and psychological well-being for junior leaders. Junior leaders with less career and work orientations felt negative and less understanding of their career and performances.

These junior leaders would not find joy in any work, while junior leaders with higher career and work orientations tend to experience more satisfaction and pleasure with their career, and may perform better (Zhai et al., 2017). Junior leaders' career orientations and their motives were usually related to their level of organisational commitment (Coetzee et al., 2017). The career orientations assisted junior leaders to maximise competencies, motives, values, and talents that were related to work (Schein, 2006; Martínez-Martí & Ruch, 2017). Junior leaders with less career satisfaction in their current careers or jobs tend to have a higher turnover rate and were more likely to leave their organisations (Van der Walt, 2018). Career development support practices and career counselling would assist individuals to find a fit between chosen careers and jobs (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2006; Miao et al., 2017).

In terms of organisational commitment, junior leaders who take their careers seriously continued to learn and have the ability to develop through continuous learning (Hiltrop, 1999; Daubner-Siva et al., 2018). In the continuance commitment, junior leaders felt a sense of entitlement and, in most instances, certain decisions were associated with the elements that attract health-risk factors such as anxiety, stress, and feeling secure or insecure (Jaros, 2007; Mensah, 2018). Junior leaders who possessed high levels of personal self-esteem and the ability to manage their emotions and careers, utilise these positive emotions to solved complex and difficult situations within the career psychology context (Hentschel et al., 2017).

The study revealed that junior leaders who managed their well-being tend to flourish well. Clearly, psychological well-being cleared a passage for their life at work and enabled them to flourish (Ariza-Montes et al., 2018). For junior leaders to flourish, they needed the characteristics of positive emotions, engagement, interest, meaning, and purpose (Seligman (2011; Wong, 2017). Furthermore flourishing junior leaders needed the characteristics of healthy self-esteem, optimism, resilience, vitality, self-determination, and positive relationships to enhance their positive life experiences, positive actions, and psychological well-being (Seligman, 2011; Creed et al., 2017; Hentschel et al., 2017).

The proposed interventions assisted junior leaders to manage life and enhance positive emotions and life style in order to flourish. These junior leaders need to increase their personal resources that are related to flourishing (Savickas & Porfelli, 2012; Segura-Camacho et al., 2018). Career development support practices and career counselling could possibly assist junior leaders to enhance their growth and development (Mensah, 2018). Psychologically healthy and emancipated junior leaders are able to flourish well (Schein,

1990; Khoreva et al., 2018). The interventions incorporated the above characteristics through training and development.

#### 3.6.3.4 *Relations management dimension*

Creating relations on emotional affect in this dimension required the building of positive and concrete relationships and work teams that helped junior leaders to achieve their psychological well-being state by being socially and emotionally connected to others (Ryff, 2018). Junior leaders' perceptions of their own abilities assisted them to build positive relations and to engage with others peacefully. On this dimension, the junior leader learned to observe and manage their own emotional state, be motivated, and act positively in order to enhance their chances of building positive relations that contributed to their psychological well-being (Goleman, 2001; Joshanloo, 2017).

For career orientations, figure 3.3 indicated that junior leaders' entrepreneurial skills were important in managing their network and people management at the work stations (Schein, 1990; Williamson & O'Hara, 2017). Junior leaders learned to cooperate with fellow workers and used their social connections to enhance their well-being (Daubner-Siva et al., 2018). Junior leaders managed internal and external environmental factors that may affect their career aspirations (Zebrowitz, 2017).

In terms of organisational commitment, positive relations and self-acceptance competencies are essential for junior leaders to develop commitment to their current organisations (Seligman, 2011; Ryff, 2018). The organisation provided junior leaders with the necessary resources and benefits that entice them to stay committed to the organisation (Daubner-Siva et al., 2018). The junior leader is affectively committed to the organisation (Fotaki et al., 2017; Jack & Schyns, 2017).

In terms of flourishing, figure 3.3 indicated that junior leaders capitalise on their ability to built positive and personal relations. A psychologically healthy junior leader tends to flourish more than one that is not (Duffy et al., 2018). Personal relations were important for junior leaders to manage fellow workers' and subordinates' interpersonal skills (Riforgiate & Komarova, 2017; Rozkwitalska, 2018). The proposed interventions would assist junior leaders to manage their positive emotions and increase their personal resources, while maintaining their well-being. Given all resources and competencies and developing autonomy, the junior leaders should be able to find ways to improve their well-being and flourish more (Seligman, 2011; Duffy et al., 2018).

### 3.7 EVALUATION AND FORMULATION OF RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

In this chapter, the attributes of flourishing were conceptualised as positive psychological functioning resources and contributors to psychological well-being. Flourishing has been discussed in terms of positive psychology and psychological functioning theories (Ryff, 2018). Positive psychology advocated for positive emotional expressions, positive mental health, and human strengths, while psychological functioning embraces psychological, social, and emotional well-being attributes that aim to improve on overall well-being (Cook & Geldenhuys, 2018). As indicated by Rothmann and Cooper (2015), flourishing consists of emotional well-being (positive emotions/feeling), psychological well-being (positive psychological functioning), and social well-being (positive social functioning).

The flourishing concept has been viewed as an optimal and positive psychological functioning construct that aims to enhance positive mental functioning (Seligman, 2011; Ryff, 2018). Moreover, flourishing contributes to junior leaders' optimal cognitive functioning and overall psychological well-being (Hefferon et al., 2017). The flourishing constructs provided a junior leader with personal resources (mental attributes, positive thinking and behaviour, and emotional competencies) so that they can respond well to potential psychological challenges related to their work and environmental situations, ultimately contributing to resilience and overall well-being in the military environment (Seligman, 2011; Coetzee et al., 2015; Meng et al., 2018; Raza, Ali, Ahmed, & Ahmad, 2018).

The approach to flourishing, positive life style, and constructive working conditions contributes significantly to overall well-being (WHO, 2019). Flourishing has been conceptualised in relation to the PERMA model (Seligman, 2011). This model indicates that a junior leader with a strong positive mental state and resilience resources, and who continues to build positive relations while engaging fellow workers, would flourish (Rothmann & Buys, 2011; Hefferon et al., 2017). The literature indicated that one of the critical areas that would set the stage for junior leaders' well-being and relations management is the art of understanding their fellow workers' and subordinates' personal resources, such as self-confidence, positive contributions, empowering others, and ensuring that others do the right thing (Sashkin, 1998; Ariza-Montes et al., 2018).

In many instances, a combination of cognitive strategies to enhance flourishing including evaluation of a person's beliefs and social problem-solving strategies, a positive life style, personal growth, and goal-oriented behaviour lead to greater optimism (Ariza-Montes et al.

2018; Marchiondo et al., 2018). According to Storey (2014), the elements of personal values, increased aspirations within the organisation, and the ability to decide on the right and appropriate actions are essential for personal-resource development. The literature indicated a gap in how flourishing, as a positive psychological functioning attribute, contributes to the psychological well-being and flourishing of junior leaders in the SANDF. The envisaged theoretical, hypothesised psychological well-being profile would highlight how affective, cognitive, and conative elements of dispositional and psychological functioning attributes contribute to the flourishing of junior leaders.

**Based on the literature review, the following research hypotheses are highlighted below.**

### **3.7.1 Hypothetical relationship between the psychological well-being profile and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning)**

Junior leaders who fit well with a well-developed psychological well-being profile, consisting of scientifically-tested dispositional and psychological functioning elements assisted them to realise their potential, achieve growth and flourish better than those who do not fit a proposed profile. Junior leaders who are developed through the elements of a psychologically well-being profile might flourish.

### **3.7.2 Hypothetical relationship between the psychological well-being profile and dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment)**

Junior leaders from a well-developed psychological well-being profile function optimally, and may developed stronger affection and positivity towards their life. Their life styles may enhance their overall psychological well-being. These junior leaders may also show stronger emotional attachment, suitable for the SANDF environment. Junior leaders from a well-developed profile regard their career orientations as an important enabler for their growth, career achievements, and further developments. Moreover, these junior leaders remain committed to the organisation. Organisations that have fully-fledged psychological well-being profiles will organise commitment mechanisms and well-being strategies to ensure that their junior leaders remain committed to the organisation for a longer period. In turn, the organisation also takes into account the junior leaders' sacrifices, should he or she decide to leave the organisation.



### **3.7.3 Hypothetical relationship between psychological well-being and flourishing**

Junior leaders from a well-developed psychological well-being profile indicated a stronger desire to remain in their organisation for a longer period, even during difficult times and in the face of any career and life setbacks. Junior leaders are able to take account of any challenges and navigate through difficulties with a positive spirit and a view of accomplishing life targets.

### **3.7.4 Hypothetical relationship between psychological well-being and dispositional attributes**

A psychologically healthy junior leader with positive emotions expressed positive feelings towards himself or herself, as well as towards others and the organisation. Furthermore, junior leaders were able to navigate through different career anchors and developments that enabled them to accomplish their personal ambitions and life goals. Junior leaders who accomplished personal goals tend to stay longer in an organisation and express their emotions freely

### **3.7.5 Hypothetical relationship between dispositional attributes and flourishing**

Junior leaders' emotional affection is part of their personal resources and will assist others to create a sense of awareness and creative and health consciousness. The emotional affect enhances their overall health and psychological well-being. Junior leaders used their personal resources to construct the careers of their choice and may establish a way to achieve a successful career and well-being practice. Junior leaders' organisational commitment enhances their personal resources of devotion, energy, and loyalty within the organisation. Organisational commitment enabled junior leaders to find positivity in their endeavour for career success. Factors such as culture, values, and performance tend to influence junior leaders' ability to belong to their current organisations.

### **3.7.6 Hypothetical relationship between flourishing and emotional affect**

Junior leaders needed to flourish might portray emotional affection and grow stronger feelings towards their organisation. This junior leader might be more connected to the mission and operations of SANDF on an emotional (affective) level.

### **3.7.7 Hypothetical relationship between flourishing and career orientations**

A junior leader who selects his or her career anchor well and plans career mobility according to his or her life style and career paths with a view to flourish, tends to make career decisions based on career appreciation and positive relations. They were also more likely to explore new career opportunities and build the confidence to implement these decisions in order to accomplish them and flourish. Junior leaders managed their career challenges and coped well with any career setbacks.

### **3.7.8 Hypothetical relationship between flourishing and organisational commitment**

Junior leaders who intended to flourish may decide not to leave their organisations due to the cost associated with leaving these organisations (continuance commitment) and feel a strong sense of accountability and responsibility towards their current organisation (normative commitment). Organisations realised the importance of creating positive outlooks in junior leaders' lives and strive to retain them for longer periods within the organisation.

## **3.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

The current chapter 3 addressed part of the third research aim, namely to conceptualise the construct of flourishing (positive psychological functioning), and how this construct was conceptualised and explained by the theoretical model. Variables influencing flourishing were elaborated on. Finally, the implications, evaluation, and synthesis of an intended psychological well-being profile for junior leaders, comprising of various elements of affective functioning, cognitive functioning, and conative functioning, and relations management were assessed. The chapter ended with a hypothesised psychological well-being profile incorporating psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and flourishing (positive psychological function) elements that may contribute to the psychological well-being profile for junior leaders in the SANDF. The chapter ends with a summary.

**The following literature research aims were achieved:**

**Research aim 3:** To conceptualise the nature of the theoretical relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and

organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological function), and explain this relationship in terms of an integrated theoretical profile in the literature.

The study also investigated the implications of the biographical characteristics (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) on the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functional). The implications of emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment, and flourishing variables for the IOP field were discussed and evaluated.

**Research aim 4:** To evaluate how biographical characteristics (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) influence the development of the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).

**Research aim 5:** To critically evaluate the implications of the psychological well-being profile of junior leaders within the SANDF.

**It is considered that these literature research aims were achieved.**

The following empirical study (chapters 4 and 5) deliberates on the empirical investigation, with the specific main aim of establishing the statistical relationships and interrelationships between various dispositional attributes and flourishing attribute elements, which may contribute to the envisaged psychological well-being profile.

## CHAPTER 4: THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

The current chapter addresses the statistical analysis that was applied to establish whether a psychological well-being profile could be developed to address the junior leaders' well-being by investigating the relationship between the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning). The research hypotheses have highlighted the theoretical relationships between the various variables and attributes. A non-experimental quantitative survey was used to achieve the current aims of the empirical research objectives. The survey research approach saves time and resources as there are no scheduled interviews, it is voluntary, there is generalisation of results, there is assurance of greater confidentiality for the participants, and the sample does not have to be that large in relation to the population (Babbie & Mouton, 2007; 2011).

The formulated research hypotheses were tested by means of correlational analysis, multiple regression analysis, descriptive statistics, structural equation modelling, and inferential (multivariate) statistics.

**The empirical phase consisted of nine steps, as indicated below:**

- Step 1: Determination and description of the sample (research participants)
- Step 2: Choosing and motivating the psychometric battery (measuring instruments)
- Step 3: Administration of the psychometric battery (research procedure)
- Step 4: Scoring of the psychometric battery (statistical analysis)
- Step 5: Formulation of the research hypotheses
- Step 6: Statistical processing of the data
- Step 7: Reporting and interpreting the results
- Step 8: Integration of the research findings
- Step 9: Formulation of research conclusions, limitations, and recommendations

Steps 1 to 6 below are addressed in this chapter 4, while steps 7 to 9 are addressed in the following chapters 5 and 6.

## 4.2 DETERMINATION AND DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

The study targeted the SANDF population. The SANDF population is actually the current set of the entire military personnel that the researcher has drawn certain characteristics from. Therefore, a sample has been drawn from this population. Moreover, Bless and Higson-Smith (1995) and Creswell and Poth (2018) defined a sample as the group that has been drawn from the entire population which the researcher is interested in studying. While there are two types of sampling, namely probability and non-probability (Tredoux & Durheim, 2013), the study was approached from a non-probability sampling point. A non-probability sampling technique has been chosen for this study because it is suitable and depends not only on the availability and willingness of individuals to participate, but also on the typical cases that are known and selected (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Dahlke & Wiernik, 2018).

Furthermore, this convenience purposive sampling relies on a large sample and is applied when a particular event, setting, or set of people is chosen because they may be known (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Gray, 2018). For the purpose of this research, all junior leaders in the SANDF, irrespective of their service or function, were approached to participate in the study. However, it is important to note that the disadvantage of the non-probability sampling is that the researcher may omit some useful characteristics, may not get enough participants, the sample size may not be a reflection of the population, and it may provide a weak basis for generalisation of the results (Maxwel, 2013).

However, the advantage of the current convenience sampling is that the researcher knows the participants and their operational spaces and workplaces and it is easy to generate the required data (Gray, 2014; 2018; Creswell & Poth, 2018). Initially, the study intended to sample between four hundred ( $n=400$ ) and five hundred ( $n=500$ ) junior leaders in the SANDF in Gauteng Province. In this case, Struwig and Stead (2001) pointed out that one hundred and fifty ( $n=150$ ) to two hundred ( $n=200$ ) samples can provide an acceptable reflection of the population, while a three hundred ( $n=300$ ) plus sample size provides a more accurate reflection of the population.

In the current study, a total of 500 ( $N=500$ ) SANDF junior leaders were approached. However, only ( $N=458$ ) completed the questionnaire and were suitable for research. One hundred and fifty ( $N=150$ ) completed questionnaires were received from Training Command (TRG COMD) Civic Education Centre for Excellence (CECE) training wing, one hundred and fifty six ( $N=156$ ) from Personnel Service School, and one hundred and fifty two ( $N=152$ ) from

various officers or leadership selections centres. Forty questionnaires were not valid (many missing values), while eight were returned in an unacceptable (missing pages and dyed ink) manner. Therefore, these forty eight (48) questionnaires did not form part of the overall interpretation of the results.

#### 4.2.1 Composition of the final sample size

Table 4.1 provides an overview of the sample size.

Table 4.1  
*An Overview of the Sample Size.*

Description	Number of questionnaires
Total population	+ 5500
Number of received questionnaires	458
<b>Total (N)</b>	<b>458</b>

The sample profile consisted of the age, race, gender, years of service, and rank characteristics. The inclusion of biographical data is important as literature research has shown that age, race, gender, years of service, and rank may have an influence on research results (Brown, Bimrose, Barnes, & Hughes, 2012; Guest, 2017).

#### 4.2.2 Composition of age groups in the sample

Table 4.2 and figure 4.1 indicate the composition of the difference age groups. The age group was contained in 18-25, 26-35, 36-45, 46-65, and 65 and older age categories. 7% of participants were from the 18-25 age group, 47% of participants from the 26-35 age group, 33% of participants from the 36-45 years group, and 13% of participants from the 46-65 years older group. There were more participants from the 26-35 middle years age group than from the 18-25 and younger and 46-65 and older age groups in the sample (n = 458).

Table 4.2

*An Overview of the Age Distribution Sample Size.*

Age	Frequency	Percentage of sample %	Cumulative %
18-25	31	7	7.0
26-35	218	47	
36-45	151	33	
46-65	58	13	
<b>Total (N)</b>	<b>458</b>	<b>100</b>	

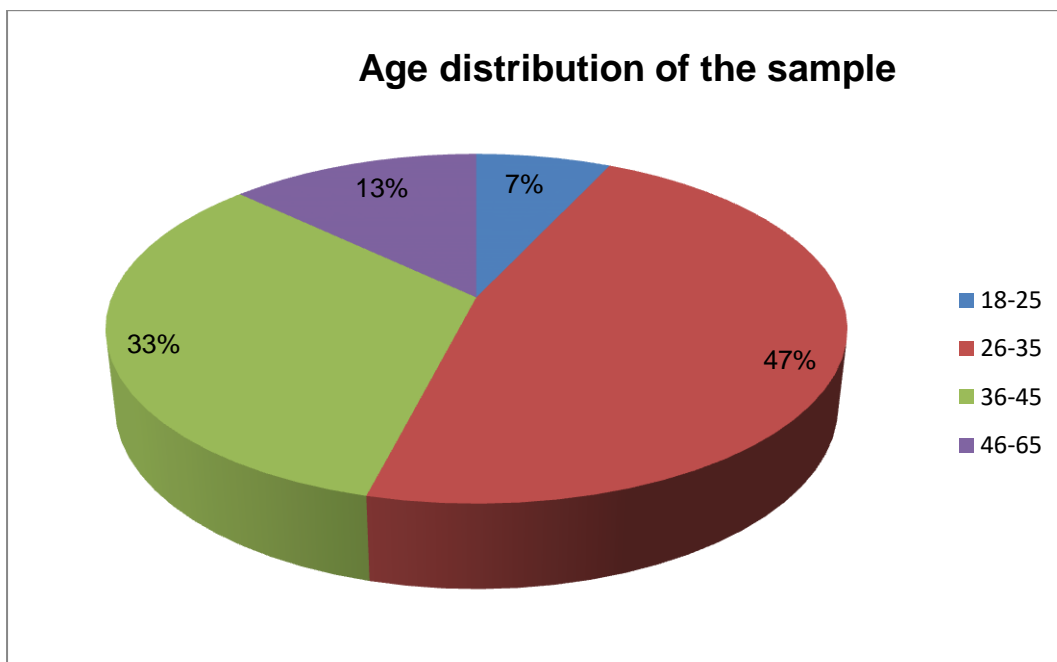


Figure 4.1: Age distribution of the sample (N= 458)

#### 4.2.3 Composition of race groups in the sample

Table 4.3 and figure 4.2 illustrate the race distribution of the participants included in the sample. The distribution shows that African participants represented 64%, coloured participants 21%, Indian participants 3%, and white participants 12% of the total sample of participants (N= 458).

Table 4.3

*Race Distribution of the Sample (n = 458)*

Race	Frequency	%	Cumulative %
<b>Africans</b>	294	64	64.0
<b>Coloureds</b>	94	21	
<b>Indians</b>	13	3	
<b>Whites</b>	57	12	
<b>Total (N)</b>	<b>458</b>	<b>100%</b>	

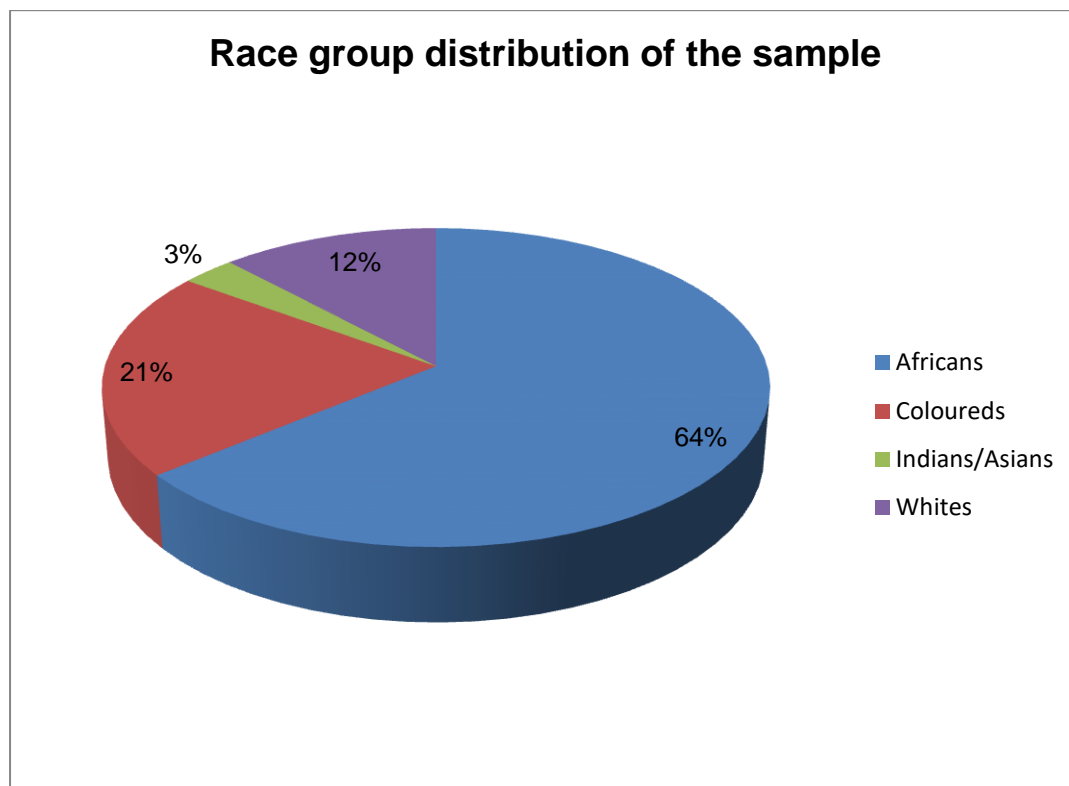


Figure 4.2: Race group distribution of the sample (N= 458)

#### 4.2.4 Composition of gender groups in the sample

Table 4.4 and figure 4.3 illustrate the gender distribution of the participants included in the sample. Males represented 48%, while females represented 52% of the participants of the sample (N = 458).



Table 4.4

*Gender Distribution Sample*

Gender	Frequency	%	Cumulative %
<b>Males</b>	220	48	
<b>Females</b>	238	52	
<b>Total (N)</b>	<b>458</b>	<b>100%</b>	

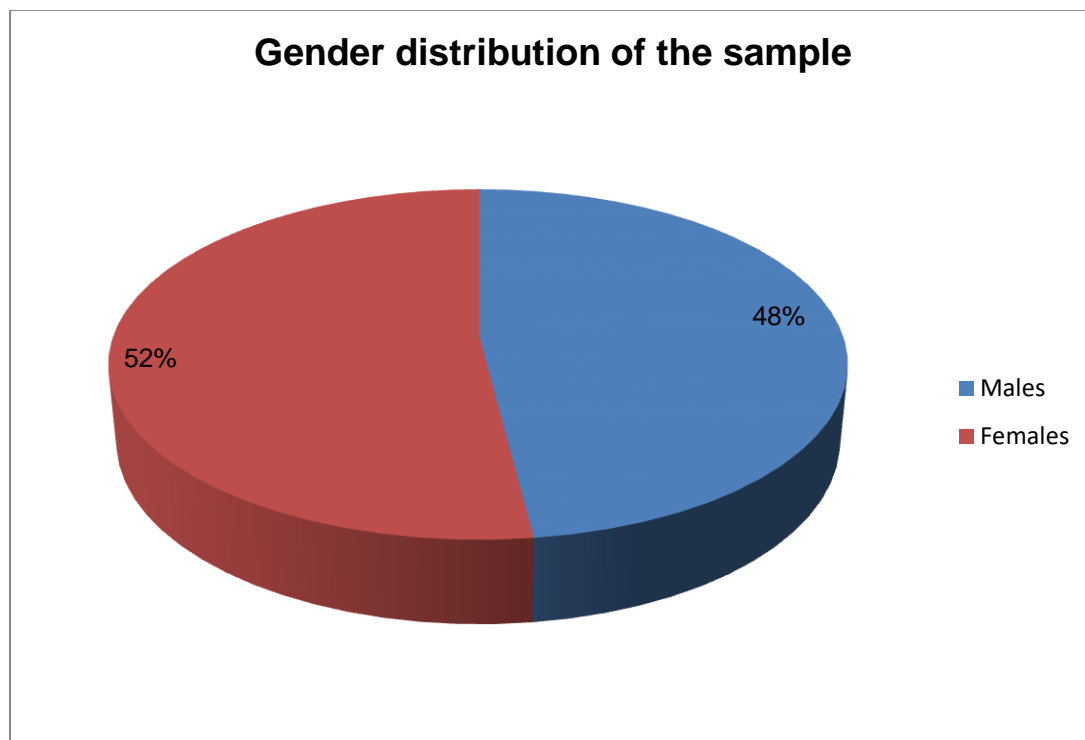


Figure 4.3: Sample distribution by gender (N = 458)

#### 4.2.5 Composition of years of service groups in the sample

Table 4.5 and figure 4.4 illustrate the years of service distribution of the participants included in the sample. 2% of participants had less than 2 years of service, 10% of participants had more than 2 but less than 5 years of service, 33% of participants had more than 5 but less than 10 years of service, 26% of participants had more than 10 but less than 15 years of service, 20% of participants had more than 15 but less than 20 years of service, and 9% of participants had more than 20 years of service in the sample (N = 458).

Table 4.5

*Years of Service in the Sample*

Years of Service	Frequency	%	Cumulative %
Less than 2	8	2	2.0
More than 2 but less than 5	46	10	
More than 5 but less than 10	153	33	
More than 10 but less than 15	120	26	
More than 15 but less than 20	92	20	
More than 20	39	9	
<b>Total (N)</b>	<b>458</b>	<b>100%</b>	

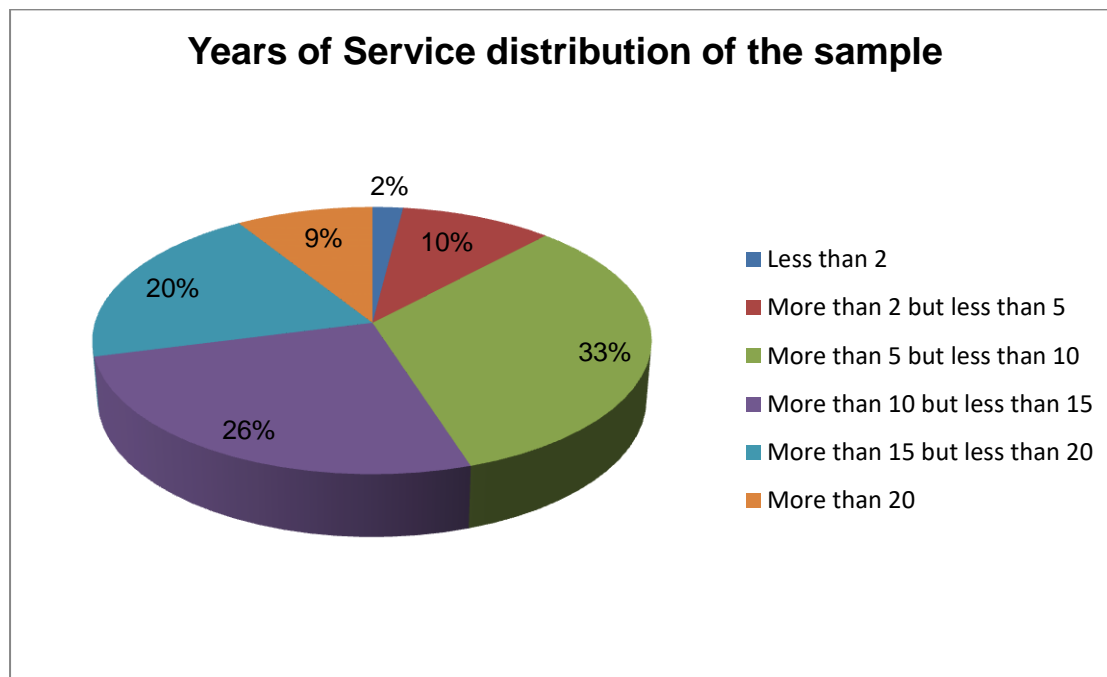


Figure 4.4: Sample distribution by years of services (N = 458)

#### 4.2.6 Composition of rank groups in the sample

Table 4.6 and figure 4.5 illustrate the rank distribution of the participants included in the sample. Of the rank groups represented in the sample (n=458), 24% were in the Corporals (Cpl) rank group, 20% in the Sergeants (Sgt) rank group, 11% in the Staff Sergeants (Ssgt) rank group, 4% in the Warrant Officers (WO) rank group, 12% in the Lieutenant (Lt) rank group, 14% in the Captains (Capt) rank group, 14% in the Major (Maj) rank group, and 1% in the Lieutenant Colonel (Lt Col) rank group.

Table 4.6

*Rank Distribution of the Sample*

Rank	Frequency	%	Cumulative %
Corporal	108	24	24.0
Sergeant	95	20	
Staff Sergeant	49	11	
Warrant Officer	16	4	
Lieutenant	53	12	
Captain	66	14	
Major	65	14	
Lieutenant Colonel	6	1	
<b>Total</b>	<b>458</b>	<b>100%</b>	

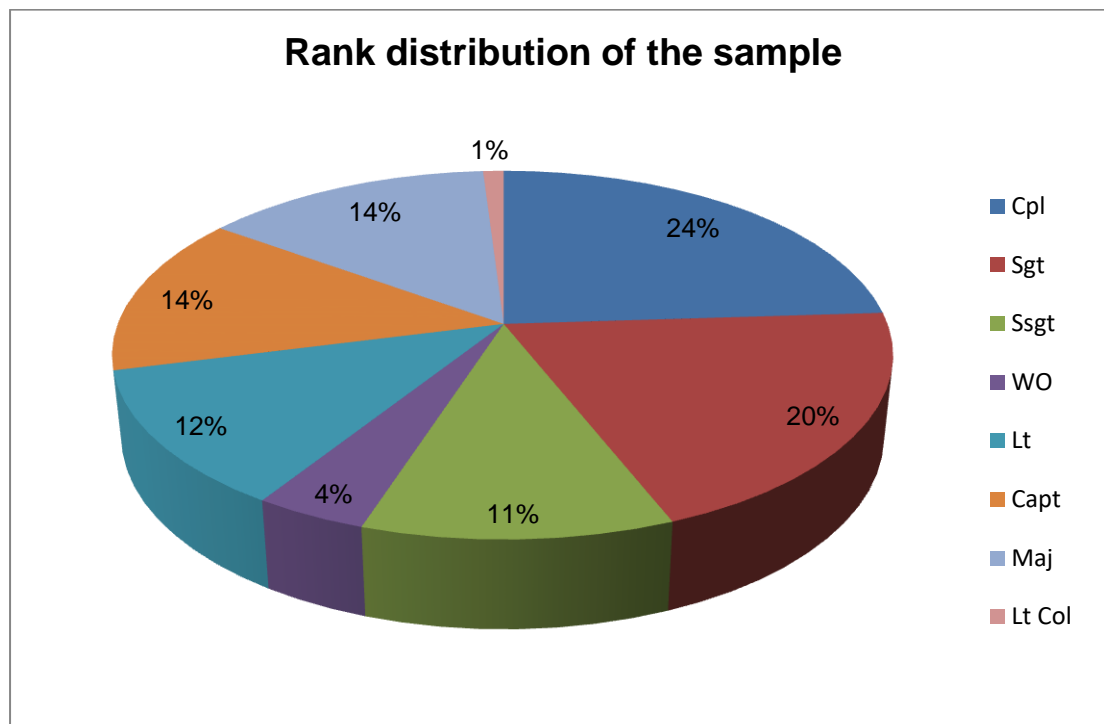


Figure 4.5: Sample distribution by rank group (N = 458)

#### 4.2.7 Summary of the biographical information distribution profile

In summary, the biographical information compiled for the sample indicates that the characteristics to be considered in the interpretation of the empirical results are: age, race, gender, years of service, and rank. Table 4.3 indicated that most dominant participants in the

sample group were African, while table 4.4 indicates an almost equal participation of male and females in terms of gender groups.

### **4.3 CHOOSING AND MOTIVATING THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY (MEASURING INSTRUMENTS)**

In line with the literature review, the five measuring instruments (SPANE, COI, OCS, FS, and Biographical questionnaires) were used in the study. Psychometric instruments that were used to explain certain behaviours were described in their categorical or scores (Salkind, 2012; Tehseen et al., 2017).

#### **4.3.1 Measuring of biographical information**

##### *4.3.1.1 Age, race, gender, years of service, and rank*

The profile of the sample was described according to the biographical variables of age, race, gender, years of service, and rank. A biographical questionnaire was used to gather and ascertain personal characteristic data from junior leaders. The influence of demographic variables on a psychological well-being profile is of paramount importance in ascertaining how the biographical information relates to dispositional variables (Allen & Katz 1992; Tehseen et al., 2017; Saidi & Siew, 2019).

#### **4.3.2 Measuring of psychological dispositional attributes**

##### *4.3.2.1 Scale for Positive and Negative Activation Experiences (SPANE) (Diener, Wirtz, Tov, Kim-Prieto, Choi, Oishi, & Biswas-Diener, 2010)*

The emotional affect was measured by the Scale for Positive and Negative Experiences (SPANE) instrument that was developed by Diener et al. (2010). The SPANE measurement instrument has twelve (12) self-reporting items in which the respondents rate the extent to which they have experienced a particular emotion within a specified period of time using a five (5) point Likert-type scale. The scale statements ranged from point one (1) (very slightly or not at all) to point five (5) (very much). The items are based on emotion adjectives (six positive and six negative).

#### 4.3.2.2 *Career Orientations Inventory (COI) (Schein, 1990)*

The Career Orientations Inventory (COI) developed by Schein (1990) was used to measure career ambitions and help individuals make good career choices. The Career Orientations Inventory further measured the level of individuals' self-perceived career anchor/preferences (Schein, 1990). The instrument consists of forty (40) items divided into eight (8) sub-scales, which are: autonomy or independence, technical or functional, general managerial, entrepreneurial or creativity, lifestyle, pure challenge, service or dedication to a cause, and security or stability. The Career Orientations Inventory uses a five point Likert-type scale that ranged from the statement of never true for me (1), to always true for me (5).

#### 4.3.2.3 *Organisational Commitment Scales (OCS) (Meyer & Allen, 1993)*

The Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS) measures individuals' degree of psychological and emotional connection and moral obligation towards an organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Lumley, 2010; Dahlke & Wiernik, 2018). These categories are affective, continuance, and normative commitment. An organisational commitment scale consists of three dimensional sub-scales, each with six (6) questionnaires. Overall, the scale has eighteen (18) self-reporting items. These items are arranged into seven (7) point scale statements that range from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

### 4.3.3 **Measuring of flourishing attribute**

#### 4.3.3.1 *Flourishing Scale (FS) (Diener, Wirtz, Tov, Kim-Prieto, Choi, Oishi, & Biswas-Diener, 2010).*

The flourishing scale has been developed to measure how individuals flourish in life and careers. The scale was developed by Diener, Wirtz, Tov, Kim-Prieto, Choi, Oishi, and Biswas-Diener (2010) to measure aspects of psychological well-being in the areas of life of optimism, relationship with others, self-esteem and purpose in life, and other key aspects of psychological wealth, such as strong social relationships, self-respect, competence, engaging work, spirituality, and whether life has purpose and meaning. The flourishing scale (FS) comprises eight (8) self-reporting items that are based on individual life satisfaction and psychological well-being. The scale consists of eight (8) point Likert-type scale statements that ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

#### **4.3.4 Motivation and the psychometric properties (measuring instruments) of the measure of dispositional attributes**

##### *4.3.4.1 Scale for Positive and Negative Activation Experiences (SPANE) (Dinier, Wirtz, Tov, Kim-Prieto, Choi, Oishi, & Biswas-Diener, 2010)*

The Scale for Positive and Negative Experiences (SPANE) was applied to establish the rationale, description, administration, interpretation, validity, reliability, and motivation for choosing the SPANE as a measuring instrument in the current study.

###### *(i) Rationale for the SPANE*

The SPANE (Diener et al., 2010) is a twelve (12) items self-report inventory and is self-administered. This 12-item SPANE scale indicates the frequency at which participants have experienced a particular emotion within a specified period of time. The SPANE aims to contribute to the participants' own emotional experiences. The SPANE measurement instrument has twelve (12) self-reporting items. The respondents rate the extent to which they have experienced a particular emotion within a specified period of time using a five (5) point Likert-type scale.

###### *(ii) Dimensions of the SPANE*

The SPANE has six (6) positive and six (6) negative emotional affect adjacents that are part of overall psychological well-being.

###### *(iii) Administration*

The SPANE inventory can be administered individually or in groups. This instrument requires approximately 5 to 10 minutes to be completed. Clear instructions are provided for accurate completion, and there is no time limit imposed on its completion. There is no supervision required since the questionnaire is self-explanatory. Respondents are required to rate how regularly they have experienced a particular emotion within a specified period of time. The score is calculated by adding up the total positive and negative responses and determining the total average score.

###### *(iv) Interpretation*

Participants' completed questionnaires were electronically scored in a computer programme. A higher positive or negative adjacent score is an indication of an individual level of affect

towards their psychological well-being. Participants' responses are measured in terms of the Likert scales of:

- 1 = Very slightly or not at all
- 2 = A little bit
- 3 = Moderately
- 4 = Quite a bit
- 5 = Extremely

A high negative score suggests that junior leaders may not be feeling positive towards their life and psychological well-being.

(v) *Reliability and validity of the SPANE*

The reliability (internal consistency) of the measurement instrument (SPANE) is recorded at .89, with proven divergent validity (Diener et al., 2010).

(vi) *Motivation for using SPANE*

The SPANE is easy to self-administer in a short amount of time and has been found to be valid and reliable. This instrument is suitable for measuring emotional affects that contribute to the psychological well-being profile, and may indicate junior leaders' flourishing, which was relevant to this study. The aim of the research study was not to make individual projections based on the SPANE, but rather to investigate various tendencies and correlations between research variables. Therefore, the inclusion of the SPANE provided a better understanding of the emotional affects that contribute to flourishing junior leaders in the current study.

#### 4.3.4.2 *Career Orientations Inventory (COI) (Schein, 1990)*

Career orientations were measured by the Career Orientations Inventory (COI) (Schein, 1990). The COI was applied to establish the rationale, description, administration, interpretation, validity, reliability, and motivation for choosing the COI as a measuring instrument in the current study.

(i) *Rationale for the COI*

The COI is a self-perceived and self-report instrument with forty (40) items. The instrument was developed by Schein (1990). The Career Orientations Inventory measures the nature of junior leaders' self-perceived career anchor/ preferences (Schein, 1990). The COI aims to

contribute to the participants' own career choices and decisions. The respondents rate the extent to which they prefer certain career anchors and types using a seven (7) point scale.

*(ii) Dimensions of the COI*

The COI has forty (40) items, divided into the eight (8) sub-scales of autonomy or independence, technical or functional, general managerial, entrepreneurial or creativity, lifestyle, pure challenge, service or dedication to a cause, and security or stability that contributes to an overall psychological well-being.

*(iii) Administration*

The COI inventory can be administered individually or in groups. This instrument requires approximately 10 to 20 minutes to be completed. Clear instructions are provided for accurate completion, and there is no time limit imposed on its completion. The COI is rated according to the instructions provided and there is minimal supervision required since the questionnaire is self-explanatory (Schein, 1990). The participant selects the three (3) items that are most applicable to them and indicates them in the three blocks provided at the end of the questionnaire. The items were awarded an additional four (4) points and then be added back to the original rating that the respondents provided to the indicated items. The allocated scores of the item from the eight (8) categories of career orientation are then summed up and divided by five (5).

*(iv) Interpretation*

Participants' completed questionnaire was electronically scored in a computer programme. The results indicate the respondents' average score for each career orientation sub-scale. The highest score is the dominant career orientation of the respondents' career preferences (Schein, 1990). Participants' responses are measured in terms of the Likert scale of:

- 1 = Never true for me
- 2 = Occasionally true for me
- 3 = Occasionally true for me
- 4 = Often true for me
- 5 = Often true for me
- 6 = Always true for me

The highest score is the dominant career orientation of the respondent's career preference that would contribute towards building psychological well-being and career flourishing.



(v) *Reliability and validity of the COI*

The validity and reliability of the instrument are high and are considered adequate for the study. Ellison and Schreuder (2000) reported internal consistency reliability estimates for the technical/functional (.59), general management (.71), autonomy (.75), security (.78), entrepreneurship (.75), service (.73), pure challenge (.70), and lifestyle (.64) in the career orientation scales for a sample of 295, predominantly white managers. These internal consistency reliabilities, as measured by the Cronbach alpha coefficient, are moderately high, with the exception of somewhat lower reliabilities for the technical/functional and lifestyle career orientation scales.

(vi) *Motivation for using COI*

The COI is self-administered according to the instructions given, although it can take time to complete and has been found to be valid and reliable for this current study. This instrument was suitable for measuring career orientations and contributed to the building of a psychological well-being profile of junior leaders. The aim of the research study was not to make individual projections based on the COI career preferences, but rather to investigate various tendencies and correlations between research variables. Therefore, the inclusion of the COI provided a better understanding of the career anchors that contribute to the flourishing of junior leaders in the current study.

#### 4.3.4.3 *Organisational Commitment Scales (OCS) (Meyer & Allen 1993).*

Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS) consists of three dimensional sub-scales, each with six (6) questionnaires. Overall, the scale has eighteen (18) self-reporting items and seven (7) point Likert-type scale statements that range from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). The organisational commitment was measured by the Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS) developed by Meyer and Allen (1993). The OCS was applied to establish the rationale, description, administration, interpretation, validity, reliability, and motivation for choosing the OCS as a measuring instrument in the current study.

(i) *Rationale for the OCS*

The OCS is a self-report instrument with twenty four (24) items. The OCS measures individuals' degree of psychological and emotional connection and moral obligation towards an organisation (Lumley, 2010; Meyer & Allen, 1997). These include affective, continuance, and normative commitment. The participants rated the extent to which they feel or do not feel connected, or prefer or do not prefer an organisation using a seven (7) point scale.

(ii) *Dimensions of the OCS*

The OCS scale consists of the three dimensional sub-scales of affective, continuance, and normative commitment, each with six (6) questionnaires (Meyer & Allen, 1993). Overall, the scale has eighteen (18) self-reporting items and seven (7) scales. The OCS contributed to overall psychological well-being profile.

(iii) *Administration*

The OCS inventory can be administered individually or in groups. This instrument requires approximately 10 to 20 minutes to be completed. Clear instructions are provided for accurate completion, and there is no time limit imposed on its completion. The OCS is rated according to the instructions provided and there was no supervision required since the questionnaire is self-explanatory.

(iv) *Interpretation*

Participants' completed questionnaires were electronically scored in a computer programme. The results indicate the groups' respondents' average score for each OCS sub-dimension. The highest score was the dominant sub-dimension. Participants' responses were measured in terms of the Likert scales of:

- 1 = Strongly disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Slightly disagree
- 4 = Neither agree nor disagree
- 5 = Slightly agree
- 6 = Agree
- 7 = Strongly agree

The highest score of the OCS sub-dimension is the dominant sub-dimension of the respondents' level of commitment that contributes towards psychological well-being and flourishing within an organisation.

(v) *Reliability and validity of the OCS*

The instrument's validity and reliability are recorded as adequate for the South African context and are considered adequate for the study (Lumley, Coetzee, Tladinyane, & Ferreira, 2010). The internal consistency of the instrument's subscales is recorded as affective commitment (.82), continuance commitment (.74), and normative commitment (.83).

(vi) *Motivation for using OCS*

The OCS is a self-administered questionnaire, is easy to complete, and has been found to be valid and reliable for this current study. The instrument was suitable for measuring the level of commitment in relation to a psychological well-being profile of junior leaders. The aim of the research study was not to make individual projections based on the OCS, but rather to investigate various tendencies and correlations between research variables. Therefore, the inclusion of the OCS provided a better understanding of the level of commitment that contributes to the flourishing of junior leaders in the current study.

**4.3.5 Motivation and the psychometric properties (measuring instrument) of the measure of the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning)**

4.3.5.1 *Flourishing Scale (FS)*

The Flourishing Scale (FS) was applied to establish the rationale, description, administration, interpretation, validity, reliability, and motivation for choosing the FS as a measuring instrument in this current study.

(i) *Rationale for the FS*

The FS (Diener et al., 2010) is an eight (8) items self-report and self-administration inventory. This brief eight (8) item FS scale provides a single psychological well-being score. The aim of the FS was to measure aspects of positive and psychological functioning from the participants' own reflections.

(ii) *Dimensions of the FS*

The FS scale includes several items in the psychological well-being areas of life of optimism, relationships with others, self-esteem and purpose in life, and other key aspects of psychological wealth, such as strong social relationships, self-respect, competence, engaging work, spirituality, and whether life has purpose and meaning.

(iii) *Administration*

The FS inventory can be administered individually or in groups. This instrument requires approximately 5 to 10 minutes to be completed. Clear instructions were provided for completion, and there is no time limit. No supervision was required since the questionnaire is self-explanatory. Respondents were required to respond to statements about their feelings

associated with a positive level of psychological flourishing on a seven (7) point Likert-type scale. The score was calculated by adding up the total responses and determining the total average score.

*(iv) Interpretation*

Each respondent's test form was scored electronically. A higher score indicates that an individual flourishes psychosocially. Responses were measured in terms of the following scale:

- 1 = Strongly Disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Slightly Disagree
- 4 = Neither Disagree Nor Agree
- 5 = Slightly Agree
- 6 = Agree
- 7 = Strongly Agree

A negative high score suggests an individual is not functioning well on either a social or a psychological level.

*(v) Reliability and validity of the FS*

Diener et al. (2010) established a high reliability and high convergence validity of the FS, although the scale still needed to be validated thoroughly (Diener et al., 2010). The alpha coefficient for the FS scale was recorded at .87.

*(vi) Motivation for using FS*

The FS is easy to administer, with less time required, and has been found to be valid and reliable. This instrument was suitable to measure flourishing and indicate positive psychological functioning, which was relevant to the current study. The aim of the research study was not to make individual projections based on the FS, but rather to investigate various tendencies and correlations between research variables. Therefore, the inclusion of the FS provided a better understanding of the flourishing junior leaders in the current study.

#### **4.3.6 Limitations of the psychometric battery**

There were some limitations accompanying the above instruments. These include that the self-reporting instruments tend to focus on individuals' explanations of their feelings towards

themselves or others. In this instance, individuals may not express themselves truthfully and honestly (Bartram, 1996; Neuman, 2000; 2011; Dahlke & Wiernik, 2018). In addition, the measuring instruments may potentially limit the methodology used to determine their validity (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002; Babbie & Mouton, 2011; Kostal & Wiernik, 2017).

In conclusion, the five (5) instruments of Biographical data, SPANE, COI, OCS, and FS were selected after an extensive review of several instruments designed to measure the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).

#### **4.4 ADMINISTRATION AND ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS OF THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY (RESEARCH PROCEDURE)**

Permission to conduct research was obtained from the University's Research Ethics Committee at UNISA (Refer to appendix B). In addition, the researcher obtained permission from the Chief Director of the Defence Intelligence, and the General Officer Commanding, Training Command (GOC, TRG COMD) to access learning institutions (SANWC, CECE, CCDT, PS School) where there is majority of junior leaders in the SANDF (Refer to appendix A). In order to coordinate information, the researcher visited participants prior to the commencement of junior leaders programs, briefed them, and asked them to voluntarily take part in the study and get consent to do so. The researcher explained and discussed the intention to conduct the research with the identified junior leaders and requested their cooperation and collaboration.

Participants who agreed to participate in the study were then handed the five questionnaires (SPANE, COI, OCS, FS, and a biographical questionnaire containing questions on the variables of age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) to fill in and return within 48 hours. All participants were assured of anonymity and confidentiality. In terms of anonymity, participants were not asked to identify or provide their names or surnames. The psychometric instruments meet the psychometric properties of fairness, were not biased, and are valid and reliable. Many participants also handed in other completed questionnaires in person, while others hand-delivered them at MPI second floor, room 108. The researcher informed participants to report any unethical practices or rights violations to either the UNISA research ethics committee or HPCSA.

#### 4.5 SCORING OF THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY (STATISTICAL ANALYSIS)

The completed questionnaires were collated and captured in an Excel spread sheet. The collated datum was analysed by an independent statistician. The data was processed and analysed through a structural equation modelling technique (Kline, 2011). The SEM provides a general and convenient framework for statistical analysis of a set of mathematical models, computer algorithms, and statistical methods that fit networks of constructs to data (Hox & Bechger, 1995; Morgan, Reichert, & Harrison, 2016; Saidi & Siew, 2019).

#### 4.6 FORMULATION OF THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

A research hypothesis is considered a concept or an idea that would represent a general categorisation of an impression about something happening (Gray, 2014; 2018). Hypotheses are actually tentative statements about a phenomenon (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2006; Babbie & Mouton, 2011). In the current study, dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) are considered independent variables, while the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning) was the dependent variable. Importantly, hypotheses are accepted if they can be proven scientifically, and rejected if they cannot be answered or proven scientifically. In terms of the empirical research questions formulated in chapter 1, a number of research hypotheses were summarised. Table 4.7 below is an illustration of these hypotheses.

Table 4.7

*Summary of the Empirical Research Hypotheses*

Empirical research aim	Research hypothesis	Statistical procedure
<b>Research aim 1:</b> To investigate the nature of the statistical inter-correlational relationships between the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and flourishing attributes (positive psychological functioning), as manifested in a sample of participants	<b>Ha1:</b> There is a statistically significant inter-correlation between the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and flourishing attributes (positive psychological functioning) that constitute an overall	Correlational statistics analysis

employed in the SANDF.	psychological well-being profile	
<b>Research aim 2:</b> To assess whether the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) significantly predict the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).	<b>Ha2:</b> The (independent variables) dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) significantly predict (dependable variable) the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).	Multiple regression analysis
<b>Research aim 3:</b> Based on the overall statistical relationship between the dispositional attributes and their variables (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning), assess the fit between the elements of the empirically researched profile and the theoretically hypothesised model.	<b>Ha3:</b> The theoretically conceptualised psychological well-being profile has a good fit with the empirically manifested structural equational model.	Structural equation modelling
<b>Research aim 4:</b> To assess whether biographical variables (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) significantly moderate the relationship between the dispositional attributes and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).	<b>Ha4:</b> Biographical information of age, race, gender, years of service, and rank moderate the relationship between the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).	Hierarchical moderated regression analysis
<b>Research aim 5:</b> To assess whether biographical variables (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) differ significantly regarding the psychological dispositional attributes	<b>Ha5:</b> There are significant differences between sub-groups of the biographical information that acted as significant moderators between the	Kruskal-Wallis and Mann-Whitney U tests

and the flourishing attribute (positive independent dispositional psychological functioning). attributes and the dependent flourishing attribute.

#### 4.7 STATISTICAL PROCESSING OF THE DATA

The objective of the current quantitative study was to provide accurate and valid inferences retained from the sampled data from the larger SANDF population in order to generalise findings (Salkind, 2012; Tredoux & Durheim, 2013; Kostal & Wiernik, 2017). In order to reach concrete conclusions, collected data was processed and analysed through statistical techniques. SEM comprises confirmatory factor analysis, path analysis, and partial least squares, LISREL (Linear Structural Relations), latent growth and regression (Kline, 2011; Saidi & Siew, 2019). The following chapter presents the tested models. This statistical analysis technique followed three stages that have the various steps: descriptive statistical analysis, correlational analysis, and inferential (multivariate) statistical analysis. Figure 4.6 is an illustration of these stages and statistical methods.

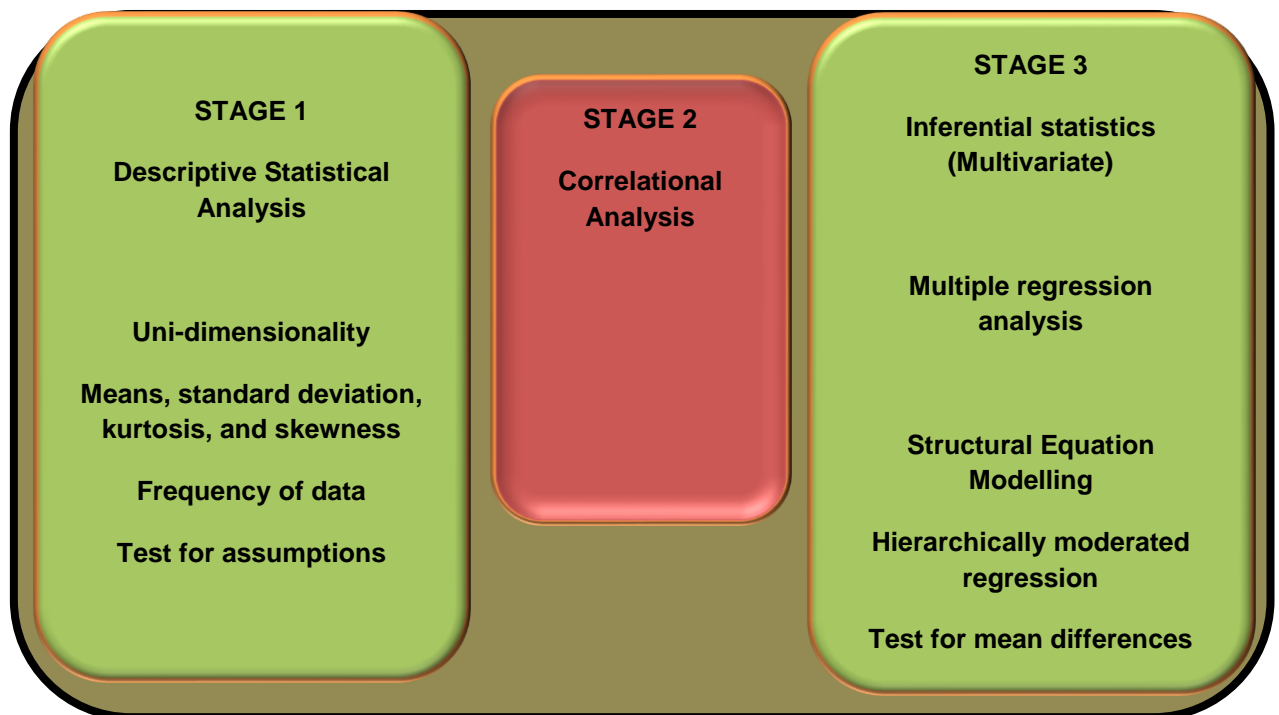


Figure 4.6: Three major statistical analysis stages



#### 4.7.1 Stage 1: Descriptive statistics

The descriptive statistical analyses were applied to describe identified variables by means of Cronbach's alpha coefficients (internal consistency reliability), means, standard deviations, skewness, and kurtosis (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013). Furthermore, the descriptive statistical analysis describes the sample characteristics in numerical form in terms of the chosen constructs, such as demographic variables (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013; Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2014; 2016; Kostal & Wiernik, 2017). In the current study, descriptive statistics were applied to explain data with regards to the chosen constructs of emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment, and flourishing.

Stage 1 consists of four steps, which are discussed below:

- Determining the internal consistency reliability of the measuring instruments by means of Cronbach's Alpha coefficient;
- Evaluating the uni-dimensionality of the SPANES, COI, OCS, and FS by using Rasch analysis;
- Determining the means, standard deviations, kurtosis, and skewness of the categorical and frequency data; and
- Testing assumptions (correlational analysis, multiple regression analysis, and tests for significant mean differences).

##### 4.7.1.1 Step 1: Internal consistency reliability analysis (SPANES, COI, OCS, FS)

Test reliability is inter alia the internal consistency by which an item in a scale correlates with each other item, as well as that the instrument measuring the same construct more than once tends to yield the same results (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013; Ulusoy & Altay, 2017). The internal consistency reliability estimates refer to how strong the items in a scale are related to one another (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2002; Saidi & Siew, 2019). The reliability of an instrument indicates the degree to which observed variables measure the "true" values and are free of errors. The reliability is concerned with the accuracy, stability, and consistency of the study and its results (Gregory, 2007; Bouma & Ling, 2010; Saidi & Siew, 2019). If the same measure is applied repeatedly, it will show greater consistency (Salkind, 2012).

The internal consistency is but one method of estimating test reliability. The Cronbach Alpha measure was used to estimate the internal consistency reliability based on the number of items in the test and the average intercorrelation amongst test items (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011; Hair et al., 2016; Saidi & Siew, 2019). The Cronbach's coefficient alpha was used to determine the internal consistency reliability of the utilised five measurement instruments (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002). The Cronbach Alpha coefficient measures on a continuous scale which ranges from 0 (no consistency) to 1 (more desirable), with the values of .60 to .70 as the lowest level of acceptable (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011; Hu et al., 2018). As reported, a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of higher than .80 is considered a desirable and reliable coefficient (Hair et al., 2014; 2016; Patterson, Weaver, Fabio, Teasley, Renn, Curtis, Matthews, Kroemer, Xun, Bizhanova, Weiss, Sequeira, Lang, & Higgins, 2018). In the current study, item reliability analyses were conducted for subscale items that do not correlate highly.

#### 4.7.1.2 *Step 2: Assessing uni-dimensionality*

The Rasch analysis was used in the current study to assess the uni-dimensionality of the scales by calculating the infit and outfit chi-square statistics in order to obtain an indication of how well the items measure the underlying constructs (Saidi & Siew, 2019). Actually, a Rasch analysis determines the relationship between person ability and item difficulty or endorsement for each uni-dimensional dimension separately (Fox & Jones, 1999; Ulusoy & Altay, 2017). This implies that the whole continuum of the underlying trait is evaluated through items and invariantly for all the groups or individuals (Hair et al., 2016). Therefore, a Rasch analysis determined both the item and person reliability (Saidi & Siew, 2019).

#### 4.7.1.3 *Step 3: Means and standard deviations, kurtosis, skewness, and frequency data*

The means and standard deviations for all the dimensions of dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning) were determined in the empirical study. The mean score provided a measure of central tendency of the research sample (Salkind, 2012; Patterson et al., 2018). The main advantage of the mean is that the sample mean provides a finer estimate of the population mean (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002; 2013; Babbie & Mouton, 2011). Christensen (2001; Howell, 2008; Higgins, 2019) defined a standard deviation as a "*measure of the extent to which a group of scores vary about their mean*". A small standard deviation (SD) indicates that the scores are clustered closely around the mean, while a large

standard deviation indicates that the scores deviate considerably from the mean (Babbie & Mouton, 2011; Patterson et al., 2018).

When data appeared symmetrical, it indicates that scores on both sides of the middle viewpoint are similar. Positive scores suggest that data values are skewed toward the right side of the middle viewpoint, while negative scores indicate that the data values are skewed toward the left side (Pallant, 2011; Salkind, 2012). In this study, skewness and kurtosis were also determined. The skewness refers to a measure of symmetry (or a lack thereof) (Babbie & Mouton, 2011; Higgins, 2019). Kurtosis measured whether data is either peaked or flat in relation to the normal distribution. Skewness and kurtosis values ranging between the -1 and +1 normal range are recommended for conducting parametric tests (Babbie & Mouton, 2011; Howell, 2008). Frequency distributions are used to describe the distribution of scores of a variable (Kostal & Wiernik, 2017). In the context of the current study, the biographical items were included in the measuring instruments in a categorical form, and for this reason the responses to these questions were presented in a frequency distribution table.

#### *4.7.1.4 Step 4: Tests for assumptions*

The objective of this research was to make valid inferences from a sample of data from a SANDF population. However, it must be cautioned that the purpose sampling may not provide the exact values that are applicable to the whole population (Pallant, 2011; Saidi & Siew, 2019). For this purpose, statistical methods have been used to make it possible to determine the confidence with which such inferences can be made. Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken (2003) suggested that the researcher can either make use of confidence intervals or null hypothesis testing as a method of statistical inferences. The following assumptions underlying multivariate procedures and tests for significant mean differences addressed in this study were used and are discussed in more detail below:

1. The accuracy of data entered into the data file and missing values
2. The ratio of cases to independent variables
3. Outliers (univariate and multivariate)
4. Normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity
5. Multicollinearity and singularity
6. Levene's test for homogeneity of variance

##### *4.7.1.4.1 The accuracy of data entered into the data file and missing values*

In order to ensure accuracy of the data, screening was conducted for possible incorrect capturing or miscoding. Frequency statistics for each of the items were processed by means of the SPSS 2.0 version 23 (2015) and SPSS version 25, (Hayes, 2018), and indicated by minimum and maximum values, as well as means and standard deviations. All the items fell within the possible range of values, and the data was therefore deemed acceptable for further scrutiny. Only completed questionnaires were accepted for this study and no missing data was detected.

#### 4.7.1.4.2 *The ratio of cases to independent variables*

Determination of an adequate sample size was a key factor to consider in the bid to achieve adequate statistical power (MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996; Babbie & Mouton, 2011). A rule of thumb when determining an adequate sample size for the testing of a multiple correlation coefficient is  $N \geq 50 + 8m$  (where  $m$  is the number of independent variables) (Patterson et al., 2018; Hair et al., 2016). However, should only low or modest relationships exist (*regression coefficients*  $R^2$ ), the sample size should be enlarged (De Vaus, 2004; Hair et al., 2016). In this instance, the standard conventional Alpha level and medium-sized relationships between the independent and dependent variables was assumed ( $p = .05$  and  $\beta = .20$ ). Based on the equation above, the required sample is  $N = 74$ . The sample of  $N = 458$  obtained in this study was therefore considered highly satisfactory for achieving adequate statistical power for detecting effects by means of the correlation and regression analyses performed (Patterson et al., 2018).

#### 4.7.1.4.3 *Outliers (univariate and multivariate)*

The outlier is described as a case by which an extreme value on one variable (univariate), or an extraordinary combination of scores on two or more variables (multivariate) is unjustifiably influencing the statistics obtained from the analyses (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001; Babbie & Mouton, 2011). Outliers are usually observations with unique combinations of certain characteristics identified as distinctly different from other observations (Hayes, 2018). In this study, outliers were examined by visually examining the boxplots of standardised normal scores for each variable.

#### 4.7.1.4.4 *Normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity*

Multivariate normality refers to the assumption that each variable (and all linear combinations of the variables) are normally distributed (Hair et al., 2010; 2016). When the

residuals of analysis were normally distributed and independent, the assumptions of multivariate normality were met (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001; Hayes, 2018). According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) and Patterson et al. (2018) statistical inferences become weaker as distributions depart from normality. Linear relationships and homoscedasticity (uniform distributions) among variables are dimensions of multivariate normality (Kline, 2011; Montgomery, Peck, & Vining, 2015). Normality of variables can be assessed by means of various methods.

The present study made use of skewness and kurtosis, as well as the Kolmogorov Smirnov test. When testing for linearity, it is assumed that there is a straight-line relationship between two variables, when a line is fitted to the X- and Y-values on a bivariate scatterplot (Babbie & Mouton, 2011; Patterson et al., 2018). The current study tested this assumption by visually inspecting bivariate scatterplots. According to Kinnear and Gray (2000) and Gray (2018), the data points created should take the outline of an ellipse, where the longer axis slopes upwards from left to right. A thinner ellipse indicated a stronger degree of linear relationship (Babbie & Mouton, 2011). The assumption of homoscedasticity for ungrouped data assumes that the variability of scores for one continuous variable is more or less the same at all values of another continuous variable (Tehseen et al., 2017). This assumption is closely related to the assumption of normality because, when the assumption of multivariate normality is met, the relationships between the variables are homoscedastic (Babbie & Mouton, 2011; Saidi & Siew, 2019). Bivariate scatterplots for all possible variable pairs were once again used in order to test for linearity and homoscedasticity.

#### *4.7.1.4.5 Multicollinearity and singularity*

Multicollinearity occurs when variables are very highly correlated ( $r = .90$ ), and singularity occurs when variables correlate perfectly (Salkind, 2012; Hair et al., 2016; Yang & Mathew, 2017). The presence of such high correlations indicates that they do not hold any additional information needed in the analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001; Kostal and Wiernik (2017). The present study used tolerance, VIF (variance inflation factor), eigen-values, and condition indices to test for the assumptions of multicollinearity and singularity.

#### *4.7.1.4.6 Levene's test for homogeneity of variance*

Levene's test was normally used to verify assumptions (Gastwirth, Gel, & Miao, 2009). The Levene's test can be used to test whether specific samples have equal variances (referred to as homogeneity of variance) (Allin & Hand, 2017). Some statistical tests, such as analysis of

variance, assume that the variances are equal across all samples or groups (Allin & Hand, 2017).

#### **4.7.2 Stage 2: Correlation analysis**

It should be noted that the main objective of applying the correlation analysis technique was to correlate several metric dependent variables and several metric independent variables to establish relationships (Babbie & Mouton, 2011). Correlation statistics also was used to test the direction and strength of the relationship between the dispositional variables (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment), the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning), and the biographical variables (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank groups) on the SPANE, COI, OCS, and FS scales.

In the current study, Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) was used to calculate the direction of and strength between variables (Steyn, 2001; Creswell & Poth, 2018). In Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient ( $r$ ), a negative value indicated an inverse relationship, while a high correlation coefficient closer to 1.00, suggested a strong relationship between variables (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013; Gordon, 2015; Kostal & Wiernik, 2017). The strength of the linear relationship was determined by the absolute value of  $r$  (Douglas et al., 2012; Allin & Hand, 2017). Importantly, a strong correlation does not imply a cause-effect relationship. While +1 is a positive correlation and -1 is total negative correlation, a value of +1 implied linear equation that describes a relationship between X and Y perfectly, and -1 implied that there was no linear correlation between variables (Pallant, 2013; Yang & Mathew, 2017).

The level of significance expresses statistical significance in terms of providing the specific probability (Yang & Mathew, 2017). A confidence level of 95% ( $p \leq .05$ ) was set to test for statistical significance. In other words, when tests of significance reveals a p-value lower than .05, the null hypothesis was rejected and the results were deemed statistically insignificant (Babbie & Mouton, 2011; Allin & Hand, 2017). There is, however, always the probability of making two different errors: first, a Type 1 error occurs when the null hypothesis was rejected but in fact it was true. Secondly, a Type 2 error occurs when the null hypothesis was accepted but in fact it was false. These types of errors can be avoided by increasing the sample size or adjusting the alpha level to compensate for small samples (Babbie & Mouton, 2011; Pallant, 2011; 2013; Dahlke & Wiernik, 2018). For the purpose of this study, a cut-off point of  $r \geq .30$  (medium effect) at  $p \leq .05$  was used to determine the practical significance of correlation coefficients (Cohen et al., 2003).

### 4.7.3 Stage 3: Inferential (multivariate) statistical

Inferential and multivariate statistics are performed to make pivotal conclusions regarding inferences about the data.

**This stage consisted of the following steps:**

1. Multiple regression analyses was computed to assess whether the psychological dispositional construct variables (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) predict flourishing (positive psychological functioning), in order to test hypotheses Ha1 and Ha2.
2. Structural equation modelling (SEM) was performed to assess the fit between the elements of the empirically manifested psychological well-being profile and the theoretically hypothesised model, in order to test hypotheses Ha3 and Ha4.
3. Hierarchically moderated regression analysis was computed to assess whether the biographical variables (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) moderate the relationship between the dispositional attributes construct variables (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and flourishing (positive psychological functioning), in order to test hypotheses Ha4 and Ha5.
4. Tests for significant mean differences were computed to determine whether significant differences exist between the groups of the biographical variables that act as significant moderators between the independent dispositional attributes construct and the dependent (flourishing) construct variables, in order to test hypothesis Ha5.

#### 4.7.3.1 Step 1: Multiple regression analysis

In the current study, multiple regression analysis was computed in order to establish the proportion of variance that was explained by the independent variables (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) regarding the scores of the dependent variable (flourishing). The main aim of the standard multiple regression analysis was to

predict the variances that were dependent variables in response to the variance in the independent variables (Hogg & Tanis, 2010; Hair et al., 2010; 2016; Saidi & Siew, 2019).

The application of multiple regression analysis assisted the researcher to determine which of the independent variables predicted the dependent variables, by providing the direction and magnitude of the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variables (Allison, 2014; Tehseen et al., 2017). Therefore, the R<sup>2</sup> values indicated how well the independent (dispositional) variables determined the dependent (flourishing) variable (Hogg & Tanis, 2010; Hair et al., 2010; 2016). The multiple regression enabled the researcher to explore the model about the precise set of variables that were influencing psychological well-being, by providing the direction and size of the effects of the independent variables (dispositional attributes) on the dependent variable (flourishing attribute) (Hair et al., 2010; 2016; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011; Dahlke & Wiernik, 2018). In line with research aims, multiple regression analysis was computed.

***Research aim 1:*** *To investigate the nature of the statistical inter-correlational relationships between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning), as manifested in a sample of participants employed in the SANDF. (This research aim related to testing research hypothesis Ha1).*

***Research aim 2:*** *To assess whether the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) significantly predict the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning) (This research aim related to testing research hypothesis Ha2).*

#### 4.7.3.2 Step 2: Structural Equation Mediation Modelling (SEM)

In the context of the current research study, SEM analysis was applied to test the moderation modelling between the variables set obtained from the correlation analysis. SEM is a multivariate process which combines multiple regression and factor analysis when determining research hypotheses, while also evaluating mean structures and group comparisons in a system (De Carvalho & Chima, 2014; Hair et al., 2016; Wiernik et al., 2017). SEM is divided into two distinct parts, namely a measurement model and a structural model (Saidi & Siew, 2019). The measurement model deals with the relationships between the measured and latent variables, while the structural model only deals with the relationships between the latent variables (Montgomery et al., 2015; Saidi & Siew, 2019).



The hypothesised empirically tested model involves simultaneous testing of all the current research variables, which allows the researcher to establish the degree of consistency between the hypothesised model data (Byrne, 2010; Dahlke & Wiernik, 2018). The SEM has the ability to distinguish between the indirect and direct relationships of variables and can analyse the relationships between latent variables without random error (Hoyle, 1995; Montgomery et al., 2015). SEM can clarify the reason behind the occurrence of certain research results while decreasing deceptive results. During the moderation modelling procedure, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was applied in order to test the competing measurement models for each scale, before testing the underlying structural Moderation model (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010; Saidi & Siew, 2019).

Further, the researcher tested the research questions and determines whether the observed variables were truly indicators of the underlying (latent) variables through CFA. A separated confirmatory factor model was performed for each set of the observed hypothesised variables to point out the relevant underlying variables (Dahlke & Wiernik, 2018). The above increased the validation and measurement model (Byrne, 2010; De Carvalho & Chima, 2014; Creswell & Poth, 2018). In this study, the model adequacy was evaluated by means of goodness-of-fit measures. The research aim and hypothesis Ha3 was tested by performing structural equation modelling analyses.

***Research aim 3:*** *Based on the overall statistical relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning), assess the fit between the elements of the empirically researched profile and the theoretically hypothesised models (This research aim related to testing research hypothesis Ha3).*

#### **4.7.3.3 Step 3: Hierarchical moderated regression analysis**

Hierarchical moderated regression analysis is regarded as a method of empirically detecting how a variable influences or “moderates” the nature of the relationship between variables (Hair et al., 2010; 2016). Therefore, one variable (x) moderates the relationship between two other variables (y and z), if the degree of association between y and z varies as a function of the value held by x (Hair et al., 2016; Dahlke & Wiernik, 2018). In a hierarchical regression analysis, the predictor-criterion relationship analysis was applied to provide further information on the strength of the relationships, which was expressed by means of coefficients of correlation and the slopes of regression lines, or by percentages of

misclassifications (Stone & Hollenbeck, 1984; Hair et al., 2010; 2016; Creswell & Poth, 2018).

The application of a moderating effect was indicated by statistically-significant differences in independent variables (dispositional attributes) and dependent variable (flourishing attribute) correlation coefficients for two or more moderator variable-based subgroups (biographical information). The hierarchical moderated regression was applied to empirically establish whether the biographical variables (age, race, gender, years of services, and rank) significantly moderate the relationship between the dispositional attributes constructs and flourishing attribute variables. For the purpose of this current study, bootstrapping was done with 1000 bootstrap samples to investigate the moderated mediation effects of H4.

Following the guidelines of Preacher, Rucker and Hayes (2007), Gottfredson, Sterba and Jackson (2017), the bootstrapping procedure was done three times: firstly, at the respective mean values of the moderator; secondly with the value one standard deviation above (+1 SD); and thirdly with the value one standard deviation below (-1 SD) the mean (Saidi & Siew, 2019). The main and interaction effects were interpreted using the more reliable bootstrapping bias-corrected 95% lower level (LLCI) and upper level (ULCI) confidence levels, excluding zero (Shrout & Bolger, 2002; Woo & Porter, 2017). The research hypothesis Ha4 was tested by applying hierarchical moderated regression analysis.

***Research aim 4: Age, race, gender, years of service, and rank moderate the relationship between the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).***

#### **4.7.3.4 Step 4: Test for significant mean differences**

To test whether there were any significant differences between the age, race, gender, years of service, and rank groups, and the Kruskal-Wallis test was also applied to establish the differences between scores for the age, race, gender, years of service, and rank level groups scores. The Kruskal-Wallis test is a rank-based test (for non-parametric data) to establish statistically-significant differences between two or more groups (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2013; Saidi & Siew, 2019). The t-test is a statistical test for analysing the data differences between the means of the two groups (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2000; Combrinck, 2018). In the current study, the test for significant means difference was applied to determine if statistically-significant differences that existed between the biographical variables that acted as significant moderators between the independent dispositional

attributes construct variables and the dependent (flourishing) construct variables. The research aim 4 and hypotheses Ha4 and Ha5 were tested by conducting the Kruskal-Wallis and the Mann-Witney U test tests.

**Research aim 5:** *To assess whether biographical variables (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) moderate the relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning) (This research aim related to testing research hypothesis Ha5).*

#### 4.7.4 Statistical level of significance

As widely used, the general level of significance  $p \leq .05$  was chosen to test the hypothesis, therefore providing 95% confidence in the results being accepted as the standard when applied in the research contexts (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011; Gottfredson et al., 2017). In this case, the researcher can make two types of errors (Type I and Type II errors). A Type I error was the probability of incorrectly rejecting the null hypotheses, by stating that there is no relationship when in fact there was a relationship. A Type II error occurs when the researcher fails to reject the null hypotheses, by stating that a relationship exists when in fact there was no relationship between the variables (Hair et al., 2010; Hogg & Tanis, 2010; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011; Combrinck, 2018). Moreover, the level of significance expresses statistical significance in terms of giving the specific probability (Wiernik et al., 2017). Various levels of significance were identified. Table 4.8 illustrates the different levels of statistical significance.

Table 4.8  
*Different Levels of Statistical Significance*

Probability	Level	Significance
<i>P</i>	.10	Less significant
<i>P</i>	.01 to .05	Significant
<i>P</i>	.001 to .01	Very significant
<i>P</i>	.001	Extremely significant

Very importantly, when a test of significance reveals a  $p$ -value lower than the chosen significance level, the null hypothesis was rejected and the results were referred to as statistically insignificant. Based on the current research, statistical results lower than the chosen significant  $p$ -value led to the null hypothesis being rejected and viewed were statistically insignificant (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013).

#### 4.7.4.1 *Statistical significance of Pearson-product moment correlations*

Cohen et al. (2003) indicated that the effect size of the absolute values of the Pearson product moment Correlations Coefficient ( $r$ ) should be as follows:

- *Small practical effect:*  $r \leq .20$
- *Medium practical effect:*  $r \geq .30 \leq .49$
- *Large practical effect:*  $r \geq .50$

The significance levels of  $p \leq .05$  and  $r \geq .30$  (moderate practical effect size) were chosen as the cut-off points for rejecting the null hypotheses (Cohen et al., 2003; Hair et al., 2010; 2016; Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013; De Souza et al., 2017).

#### 4.7.4.2 *Level of significance: Multiple regression and hierarchical moderated regression*

The levels of statistical significance of the multiple regression applied in this current study were as follows:

$F(p) < .001$ ;

$F(p) < .01$ ; and

$F(p) < .05$  was the cut-off for rejecting the null hypotheses.

As indicated by Cohen (1992), the guiding principles for interpreting the degree of practical significance of multiple regression models were as follows:

According to Cohen et al. (2003), the  $F$ -statistic for the increase in  $R^2$ , equals the square of the  $t$ -statistic for the interaction term, such as a significant  $t$ -value of the coefficient of the interaction term which implies a significant moderating effect of  $X_1$  and  $Y$ . In terms of the

hierarchical moderated regression results, the effect size (which indicates practical significance of interaction effects) was determined by the following (Steyn, 1999; Salkind, 2011; Wiernik et al., 2017).

$$f^2 = (R^2 - R_1^2) / (1 - R_1^2)$$

$f^2$  = practical effect size (.02 = small; .15 = moderate; .35 = large)

$R^2$  = variance explained

#### 4.7.4.3 *Level of significance: Structural Equation Mediation Modelling (SEM)*

The main goal of SEM is to determine a statistically-significant hypothesised theoretical model which has practical and functional meaning (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008; Sullivan & Winchester, 2017). The Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI) establishes the level to which the sample variance or covariance data was correctly predicted by the estimates of the population (Saidi & Siew, 2019). The GFI value generally ranged between 0 and 1. The hypothesised profile has a satisfactory fit with the data when the GFI values are closer to 1.0 (Park et al., 2012; Hamtiaux et al., 2013; Gottfredson et al., 2017). The primary aim of the Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI) was to measure the relative amount of variance accounted for by the model, correct for the degrees of freedom in the model relative to the number of variables (Saidi & Siew, 2019).

The GFI and AGFI ranged between 0 and 1, and when models fit well these indices were closer to 1.0. In order to overcome the problem of sample size, the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) and its 90% confidence interval were applied (Brown & Cudeck, 1993; Saidi & Siew, 2019). The principle aim of the RMSEA was to evaluate the extent to which the model fails to fit the data. The RMSEA estimates the overall amount of error – it is a function of the fitting function value relative to the degrees of freedom. The RMSEA point estimates should be .05 or less, and the confidence interval should not exceed .08 (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2000; De Souza et al., 2017). Hu and Bentler (1999) and Tal (2017) suggested a value of .06 as being indicative of a good fit between the hypothesised model and the observed data.

However, Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCullum, and Strahan (1999) observed the cut-off points and noted that the RMSEA values ranging from .08 to .10 indicate a mediocre fit, while those greater than .10 indicate a poor fit. RMR is actually the mean absolute value of the covariance residuals. Its lower bound is zero but there is no upper bound, which depends on the scale of the measured variables (Sullivan & Winchester, 2017). The closer RMR is to 0,

the better the model fit will be. The literature indicates rules of thumb such as that RMR should be  $< .10$ , or  $.08$ , or  $.06$ , or  $.05$ , or even  $.04$  for a well-fitting model (Wang, Bartlett & Ryan, 2017). These rules of thumb were not unreasonable, but since RMR has no upper bound and is not standardised in terms of this, such thresholds do not necessarily indicate a poorly-fitting model (Saidi & Siew, 2019). Because RMR is difficult to interpret, standard SRMR was recommended instead.

The RMR which is not standardised is the coefficient that results from taking the square root of the mean of the squared residuals, which are the amounts by which the sample variances and covariances differ from the corresponding estimated variances and covariances, estimated on the assumption that the model is correct (Woo & Porter, 2017). Fitted residuals result from subtracting the sample covariance matrix from the fitted or estimated covariance matrix (Garson, 2008; Wiernik et al., 2017).

The Standardised RMR (SRMR) SRMR was the average difference between the predicted and observed variances and covariances in the model, based on standardised residuals (Wang et al., 2017). Standardised residuals were fitted residuals divided by the standard error of the residual (this assumes a large enough sample size to assume stability of the standard error) (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Saidi & Siew, 2019). The smaller the SRMR, the better the model fit will be. SRMR = 0 indicates perfect fit. A value of less than  $.05$  is widely considered to be a good fit, and below  $.08$ , an adequate fit.

The literature indicates the rules of thumb setting the cut-off at  $< .10$ ,  $.09$ ,  $.08$ , and even  $.05$ , depending on the authority as cited. SRMR tends to be lower simply because of a larger sample size or more parameters in the model. In addition, the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) is best known as a predictive fit index and is normally used to compare non-hierarchical hypothesised models with similar data. The low values would indicated a reasonable fit as opposed to models that fail to fit the data (Kline, 2011).

The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) assesses the fit of the hypothesised model, compared to an independence model (Hooper et al., 2008; Sullivan & Winchester, 2017). The CFI is also known as the Bentler Comparative Fit Index and is seen as an incremental fit index that measures the comparative progress in the fit of the empirical model over that of a baseline model (the independence model) (Kline, 2011; Sullivan & Winchester, 2017). CFI values close to  $.90$  and higher are considered to indicate acceptable model fit (Park et al., 2012; Hamtiaux et al., 2013; Creswell & Poth, 2018).

#### 4.7.4.4 Statistical significance: Tests for significant mean differences

It is considered that the level for the tests of mean differences is significant and valid when the  $p$ -value is lower than .05.

## 4.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the empirical investigation. The population and determination of the sample, the measuring instruments, the data collection, and statistical data analysis processes were discussed. The chapter concludes with the formulation of the research hypotheses relating to the study.

**Chapter 5 addresses the following empirical research aims:**

**Research aim 1:** *To investigate the nature of the statistical inter-correlational relationships between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning), as manifested in a sample of participants employed in the SANDF (This research aim also related to testing research hypothesis Ha1).*

**Research aim 2:** *To assess whether the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) significantly predict the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning) (This research aim related to testing research hypothesis Ha2).*

**Research aim 3:** *Based on the overall statistical relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning), assess the fit between the elements of the empirically researched profile and the theoretically hypothesised models (This research aim related to testing research hypothesis Ha3).*

**Research aim 4:** *To assess whether biographical variables (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) moderate the relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning) (This research aim related to testing research hypothesis Ha4).*

**The chapter outlined the reporting and interpretation of the results and the integration of the empirical findings. Chapter 5 discusses the results and the findings of the empirical study.**



## **CHAPTER 5: THE RESEARCH RESULTS**

### **5. INTRODUCTION**

This chapter discusses the various statistical analysis results that were applied in order to test the current research-formulated hypotheses. The chapter addressed step 7 and step 8 of the empirical investigation. All of the current measurement scales achieved construct validity. The measurement scales that somehow reported problems with low or high reliability coefficients or internal consistency were taken into consideration in the interpretation of the findings. The empirical research results were integrated with the literature review, research aims, and objectives. The chapter outlines descriptive statistics, followed by discussions on the correlation analysis and inferential (multivariate) methods. The statistical results of the empirical research will be presented by means of tables as well as in figures. The chapter ends with decisions regarding the research hypotheses and a chapter summary indicating achieved research aims.

#### **5.1 PRELIMINARY STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

This section outlines results of the common method variance, measurement model validity, and the scale reliabilities analysis.

##### **5.1.1 Common method variance**

The various scales were tested for the presence of common method variance because of the cross-sectional, self-report nature of the research design. The common method variance (bias) is considered a systematic variance which is actually caused by the type of data collection method applied in a typical self-reporting survey research study (Simmering, Fuller, Richardson, Ocal, & Atinc, 2015; Tehseen et al., 2017). The common method variance also shows when a single factor explains two or more variances (Simmering et al., 2015). In this case, the Harman's one-factor test and Confirmatory factor analysis (one-factor solution) were applied to test for the presence of common method variances using SAS version 9.4 (SAS, 2013).

Table 5.1 summarised the results of the tests. A Harman's one factor test value of  $>.50$  implies a one factor scale and presence of common method bias. Similarly, good model fit of the one factor implies the presence of common method bias. 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; Pallant, 2013; De Souza et al., 2018). The SAS version 9.4 (SAS, 2013) analysis tool was applied.

Table 5.1

*Testing for Common Method Variance: One-Factor Solutions*

Measurement instrument	Herman's one-factor test: Percentage variance explained by single factor	One-factor solution ( <i>Confirmatory factor analysis</i> )
<b>Scale for Positive And Negative Experiences (SPANE)</b>	2.86%	Chi-Square/df = 326.24 <sup>***</sup> /54 RMSEA = .11 SRMR = .10 CFI = .68 NNI = .61 AIC = 374.25
<b>Career Orientations Inventory (COI)</b>	10.03%	Chi-Square/df = 5703.02 <sup>***</sup> /780 RMSEA = .06 SRMR = .06 CFI = .74 NNI = .73 AIC = 2183.55
<b>Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS)</b>	5.89%	Chi-Square/df = 2752.29 <sup>***</sup> /153 RMSEA = .11 SRMR = .09 CFI = .71 NNI = .67 AIC = 960.069
<b>Flourishing Scale (FS)</b>	N/A One factor scale	Chi-Square/df = 97.492 <sup>***</sup> /19 RMSEA = .10 SRMR = .05 CFI = .95 NNI = .93 AIC = 131.492

Note:  $N = 458$ ; <sup>\*\*\*</sup> $p \leq .0001$

The one-factor solution for the Scale for Positive and Negative Experiences (SPANE) (Dinier et al., 2010) indicates that the loading of the items onto the single factor accounted for only 2.8% of the covariance between the scale variables. Loading the Scale for Positive and Negative Experiences variables onto a single construct in the CFA model indicated that the goodness of fit statistics pertaining to a single factor did not fit the model well, with a CFI value of below .90 and RMSEA and SRMR values were above .10 (chi-square/df ratio = 33.24\*\*\*;  $p < .0001$ ; RMSEA = .11; SRMR = .10; CFI = .68; NNI = .61). This implies that the SPANE scale had a multi-factor structure and common method bias was not a strong threat to the results.

The Harman's one-factor solution for the Career Orientation Inventory (COI) (Schein, 1990) indicated that the loading of all items onto a single factor accounted for 10.03% of the covariance among the scale variables. The goodness of fit statistics for loading the Career Orientation Inventory variables onto a single construct in the CFA model did not fit the overall model well, with RMSEA and SRMR values below .10 and a CFI value below .90 (Chi-square/df ratio = 57.02\*\*\*;  $p < .0001$ ; RMSEA = .06; SRMR = .06; CFI = .74; NNI = .73). This implies that the COI scale had a multi-factor structure and common method bias was not a strong threat to the results.

In terms of the Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS) (Meyer & Allen, 1991; 1993), the loading of all scale items onto a single factor accounted for only 5.89% of the covariance between the scale variables. When the Organisational Commitment Scale sub-scales variables were loaded onto a single construct in the CFA model, the fit indices showed 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 = 27.29\*\*\*;  $p < .0001$ ; RMSEA = .11; SRMR = .09; CFI = .71; NNI = .67). This implies that the OCS scale had a multi-factor structure and common method bias was not a strong threat to the results.

The Flourishing Scale (FS) (Dinier et al., 2010) is a one-factor scale and testing for common method variance was not relevant to the scale. The fit indices confirmed a single factor, with an SRMR value below .10 and CFI and NNI values above .90 (chi-square/df ratio = 97.49\*\*\*;  $p < .0001$ ; RMSEA = .10; SRMR = .05; CFI = .95; NNI = .93). The results for the respective measurement scales showed that common method variance was not a potential threat to the interpretation of the results of the study (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Tehseen et al., 2017).

### 5.1.2 Measurement model validity

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was applied to establish the structural (construct) validity of the measurement scales. In this case, SAS version 9.4 (SAS, 2013) was applied. The CALIS procedure was applied in order to determine the optimised maximum likelihood fit indices using the Levenberg-Marquardt Optimisation procedure. The validity of the measurement model of each scale is necessary to establish a valid CFA measurement structure for the statistical analyses (Hair et al., 2014; 2016; Baron & Ashman, 2016; Higgins, 2019). In table 5.2, goodness of fit was indicated for all the scales, indicating construct validity, with RMSEA and SRMR values  $\leq .10$  and NNI and CFI values  $\geq .90$  (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Kiazad, 2010). The optimised CFA models also had the lowest AIC. AIC must be as small as possible (Hair et al., 2016; Dahlke & Wiernik, 2018).

Table 5.2

*Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Construct Validity*

Measurement instrument	Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) ( <i>Original model</i> )	Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) ( <i>Optimised model</i> )
Scale for Positive And Negative Experiences (SPANE) <b>Positive Affect (PA)</b> <b>Negative Affect (NA)</b>	Chi-Square/df = 326.24 <sup>***</sup> /54 RMSEA = .11 SRMR = .10 CFI = .68 NNI = .61 AIC = 374.25	Chi-Square/df = 913.523 <sup>***</sup> /66 RMSEA = .05 SRMR = .05 CFI = .92 NNI = .90 AIC = 173.367
Career Orientations Inventory (COI) <b>Autonomy (AU)</b> <b>Security/Stability (SE)</b> <b>Technical Function (TF)</b> <b>General Management (GM)</b> <b>Entrepreneurial Creativity (EC)</b> <b>Service/Dedication to cause (SV)</b> <b>Pure Challenge (CH)</b> <b>Life Style (LS)</b>	Chi-Square/df = 12.479 <sup>***</sup> /780 RMSEA = .06 SRMR = .08 CFI = .76 NNI = .73 AIC = 2121.327	Chi-Square/df = 570.02 <sup>***</sup> /780 RMSEA = .04 SRMR = .05 CFI = .91 NNI = .89 AIC = 1426.805

Organisational Commitment Scales (OCS) <b>Affective</b> <b>Continuance</b> <b>Normative</b>	Chi-Square/df = 275.294***/153 RMSEA = .09 SRMR = .08 CFI = .79 NNI = .76 AIC = 752.872	=	Chi-Square/df = 275.294***/153 RMSEA = .06 SRMR = .05 CFI = .93 NNI = .91 AIC = 410.763
Flourishing Scale (FS)	Chi-Square/df = 159.596***/28 RMSEA = .10 SRMR = .05 CFI = .95 NNI = .93 AIC = 131.492	=	Chi-Square/df = 159.596***/28 RMSEA = .08 SRMR = .04 CFI = .97 NNI = .94 AIC = 107.987

Note:  $N = 550$ ; \*\*\* $p \leq .0001$

For the Scale for Positive and Negative Experience (SPANE), table 5.2 illustrates that the optimised CFA indicated goodness of fit, confirming the construct validity of the measurement model. The fit indices for RMSEA and SRMR were below .10 and the CFI and NNI > .90 (Chi-square/df ratio = 3.24\*\*\*;  $p < .0001$ ; RMSEA = .05; SRMR = .05; CFI = .92; NNI = .90; AIC = 173.367). According to table 5.2, the optimised CFA for the Career Orientation Inventory (COI) showed overall construct scale with the fit indices indicating an RMSEA and SRMR below .08 and CFI and NNI  $\geq .90$  (Chi-square/df ratio = 7.31\*\*\*;  $p < .0001$ ; RMSEA = .04; SRMR = .05; CFI = .91; NNI = .89; closer to .90, and the AIC = 1426.805). As for Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS), the CFA showed overall construct validity of the scale with the fit indices indicating an RMSEA and SRMR below .10 and CFI and NNI > .90 (Chi-square/df ratio = 2.30\*\*\*;  $p < .0001$ ; RMSEA = .06; SRMR = .05; CFI = .93; NNI = .91; AIC = 410.763). Table 5.2 indicated that for Flourishing Scale (FS), the CFA showed overall construct validity of the scale with the fit indices indicating an RMSEA and SRMR below .10 and CFI and NNI > .90 (Chi-square/df ratio = 2.60\*\*\*;  $p < .0001$ ; RMSEA = .08; SRMR = .04; CFI = .48; NNI = .94; AIC = 107.987).

The results provided evidence of the structural (construct) validity of the four individual measurement scales and therefore confirmed that further statistical analysis was warranted in the testing of the research hypotheses.

### 5.1.3 Reporting and interpretation of the measuring instruments' reliabilities: Rasch analyses and Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the measures

This section reports on the internal consistency and item reliability of the following measurement instruments' sub-scales: the Scale for Positive and Negative Experiences (SPANE), Career Orientations Inventory (COI), Organisational Commitment Scales (OCS), and Flourishing Scale (FS). A Rasch analysis was performed on the items of each measurement scale to establish their constructs' validity (their unidimensionality) and internal consistency reliabilities for each sub-scale (Brand-Labuschagne, Mostert, Rothmann, & Rothmann, 2012; Saidi & Siew, 2019).

#### 5.1.3.1 Scale for Positive And Negative Emotions (Assessing Emotional affect)

Table 5.3

Summary of the Rasch Statistics for Scale for Positive and Negative Experiences (SPANE)

Sub-Scale	Average measure (SD)	Infit (SD)	Outfit (SD)	Separation	Reliability	Cronbach Alpha
<b>Positive Affect</b>						
Person	.26(1.00)	1.01(.96)	1.01(.95)	1.02	.51	.56
Item	.00(.30)	1.00(.18)	1.01(.20)	4.14	.94	
<b>Negative Affect</b>						
Person	-1.08(1.24)	1.01(.70)	1.01(.70)	1.63	.73	.77
Item	.00(.21)	1.00(.13)	1.01(.14)	2.99	.90	

Note: N=458  $p=0001$  \*\*\* $p \leq .001$  \*\* $p \leq .01$  \* $p \leq .05$

Table 5.3 indicates acceptable item reliability ( $\geq .90$ ) for the two sub-scales of SPANE. Furthermore, the item separations for the sub-scales of the SPANE were regarded as sufficient compared to the guideline that item separation must be at least 2.00 (Hogg & Tanis, 2010; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011). Also, the items of the SPANE scale differentiated among the measured variables. The low scores on person separation indices may be an indication that the sub-scales did not accurately show separation or discriminate among participants with different abilities (Saidi & Siew, 2019). This could also be due to the fact that the items were not targeted for this group. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the

SPANE sub-scales were .56 (positive affect) and .77 (negative affect) respectively. The alpha coefficients for the positive affect sub-scales ( $\alpha = .56$ ) were lower than the guideline of  $>.70$ , while the negative affect sub-scales were higher ( $\alpha = .77$ ) than the guideline of  $\geq .70$  (Hair et al., 2010; 2014; 2016). For the purpose of this research the reliability coefficients were acceptable for group-based research analysis.

The positive affect sub-scale reflected the highest person average measure at (.26; SD = 1.00) while the negative affect sub-scale showed the lowest person average measure as (-1.08; SD =1.24). Furthermore, the mean item fit and person fit were at acceptable levels. The responses neither underfit ( $\geq 1.30$ ) nor overfit ( $\leq .70$ ). Generally, it can be deduced from the above that the SPANE reflected a unidimensionality because the Infit and Outfit from the current study were also closer to 1.00, therefore suggesting a good fit (Saidi & Siew, 2019). The results indicated that the participants understood and responded well to the items and/or that the scale provided useful information. The somewhat low Cronbach alpha coefficient for the positive affect scale was considered as a limitation in the interpretation of the findings.

#### 5.1.3.2 Career Orientations Inventory (Assessing Career orientations/anchors)

Table 5.4  
Summary of Rasch Statistics for Career Orientations Inventory (COI)

Sub-Scale	Average measure (SD)	Infit (SD)	Outfit (SD)	Separation	Reliability	Cronbach Alpha
<i>Total COI</i>						
<i>Person</i>	.37(.59)	1.01(.67)	1.00(.66)	3.15	.91	.92
<i>Item</i>	.00(.17)	1.00(.14)	1.00(.14)	3.37	.92	
<b>Autonomy (AU)</b>						
<i>Person</i>	.40(.78)	1.00(.89)	1.00(.89)	1.03	.51	.56
<i>Item</i>	.00(.26)	1.00(.12)	1.00(.11)	4.98	.96	
<b>Pure Challenge (CH)</b>						
<i>Person</i>	.55(.93)	1.00(.88)	1.00(.88)	1.19	.59	.64
<i>Item</i>	.00(.09)	1.00(.15)	1.00(.14)	1.31	.63	
<b>Entrepreneurial Creativity (EC)</b>						
<i>Persons</i>	.44(.92)	.99(1.00)	.99(1.00)	1.21	.59	.64
<i>Items</i>	.00(.14)	.99(.11)	.99(.11)	2.46	.86	

<b>General Management (GM)</b>						
Persons	.38(.76)	1.00(.86)	1.00(.87)	.98	.49	.55
Items	.00(.28)	1.00(.12)	1.00(.14)	5.50	.97	
<b>Life Style (LS)</b>						
Persons	.46(.86)	1.00(.91)	1.00(.91)	1.11	.55	.61
Items	.00(.11)	1.00(.17)	1.00(.17)	1.79	.76	
<b>Security/Stability (SE)</b>						
Persons	.36(.84)	1.00(.92)	1.00(.91)	1.09	.54	.59
Items	.00(.17)	.99(.15)	1.00(.15)	2.99	.90	
<b>Service/ Dedication to a cause (SV)</b>						
Persons	.49(.91)	1.00(.89)	1.00(.89)	1.18	.58	.63
Items	.00(.22)	.99(.14)	1.00(.14)	3.87	.94	
<b>Technical Function (TF)</b>						
Persons	.39(.77)	1.00(.90)	1.00(.89)	1.01	.51	.54
Items	.00(.17)	.99(.09)	1.00(.09)	3.25	.91	

Note: N=458 p=001 \*\*\*p ≤ .001 \*\*p ≤ .01 \*p ≤ .05

Table 5.4 shows acceptable item reliability (>.90) for the overall COI scale ( $\alpha = .92$ ); autonomy ( $\alpha = .96$ ); general management ( $\alpha = .97$ ); security/stability ( $\alpha = .90$ ); service/dedication to a cause ( $\alpha = .94$ ) and technical function ( $\alpha = .91$ ). The item reliability for entrepreneurial creativity ( $\alpha = .86$ ) and lifestyle ( $\alpha = .76$ ) were good (>.70). Only pure challenge ( $\alpha = .63$ ) had a somewhat lower reliability coefficient. The Cronbach alpha coefficients were somewhat low although the item reliabilities showed that the scale provided useful information. For the purpose of this research the reliability coefficients were acceptable for group-based research analysis. The somewhat low Cronbach alpha coefficients were considered as a limitation in the interpretation of the findings. The item separation for COI anchors (> 1.31) was somehow sufficient compared to the guideline that item separation must be at least 2.00 (Hogg & Tanis, 2010; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011; Saidi & Siew, 2019).

The person separation indices for the COI anchors were lower than the suggested guidelines that item separation must be at least 2.00 (Hogg & Tanis, 2010). The lower



person separation indices maybe an indication that anchors could not separate or discriminate among the respondents from different ranks, or it could be due to the fact that the items were not targeted for this group (Saidi & Siew, 2019). In terms of the average measure, the Pure challenge (CH) anchor reflected the highest person average measure (.55; *SD* = .93), while the Security/ Stability (SE) anchor reflected the lowest person average measure (.36; *SD* = .84). Overall, the item fit and the person fit means were at acceptable level, reflecting that the responses neither underfit ( $\geq 1.30$ ) nor overfit ( $\leq .70$ ). It can be deduced from the above that the COI reflected a unidimensionality because the Infit and Outfit values were closer to 1.00, therefore suggesting a good fit (Babbie & Mouton, 2011; Saidi & Siew, 2019).

### 5.1.3.3 Organisational Commitment Scales (Assessing Organisational Commitment)

Table 5.5

Summary of the Rasch Statistics for Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS)

Sub-Scale	Average measure (SD)	Infit (SD)	Outfit (SD)	Separation	Reliability	Cronbach Alpha
<b>OCS</b>						
<i>Person</i>	.10(.59)	.99(90)	.99(90)	2.34	.85	.88
<i>Item</i>	.00(.11)	1.00(.17)	.99(.16)	2.57	.87	
<b>Affective</b>						
<i>Person</i>	.01(.82)	.99(1.13)	.99(1.12)	1.57	.71	.75
<i>Item</i>	.00(.18)	.99(.08)	.99(.08)	3.98	.94	
<b>Continuance</b>						
<i>Person</i>	.25(.84)	.99(1.03)	.99(1.03)	1.55	.71	.75
<i>Item</i>	.00(.08)	1.00(.16)	.99(.16)	1.32	.63	
<b>Normative</b>						
<i>Person</i>	.10(.92)	.99(1.12)	.99(1.11)	1.65	.73	.78
<i>Item</i>	.00(.13)	.99(.17)	.99(.17)	2.40	.85	

Note:  $N=458$   $p=01$ ;  $p=001$  \*\*\* $p \leq .001$  \*\* $p \leq .01$  \* $p \leq .05$

Table 5.5 illustrates that the OCS and its subscales had good item reliability and a good Cronbach alpha coefficient ( $>.70$ ). Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the OCS sub-scales ranged between .75 and .78. The alpha coefficients for the affective organisational commitment sub-scale ( $\alpha = .75$ ) and the continuance organisational commitment sub-scales ( $\alpha = .75$ ) and normative organisational commitment sub-scales ( $\alpha = .78$ ) were on acceptable

levels, as per the guidelines of  $\geq .70$  (Hair et al., 2010; 2014; 2016). The affective organisational commitment sub-scale indicated that the person average measure was  $.01$ ; ( $SD = .82$ ) and the continuance organisational commitment sub-scale showed the lowest person average measure to be  $.25$ ; ( $SD = .84$ ), while the normative organisational commitment sub-scale indicates that the person average measure is  $.10$ ; ( $SD = .92$ ). The mean item fit and person fit were recorded as being at an acceptable level, reflecting that the responses were neither underfit ( $\geq 1.30$ ) nor overfit ( $\leq .70$ ) (Dahlke & Wiernik, 2018; Saidi & Siew, 2019).

Overall, the infit and outfit scores were found to be closer to 1.00, thus suggesting a good fit of the data and the unidimensionality of the OCS (Saidi & Siew, 2019). The item separations for the total sub-scales of the OCS ( $\geq 2.57$ ) were sufficient and in line with the guideline that item separation must be at least 2.00 (Hogg & Tanis, 2010; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011). The person separation indices for the OCS sub-scales were lower than the anticipated 2.00 guidelines (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011). Overall, the low person separation indices are an indication that some of the sub-scales could not separate or discriminate among respondents from different ranks, or that participants responded to the items randomly, or it could be due to the fact that the items were not targeted at the group.

#### 5.1.3.4 Flourishing Scale (Assessing Flourishing)

Table 5.6

Summary of the Rasch Statistics for Flourishing Scale (FS)

Scale Dimension	Average measure (SD)	Infit (SD)	Outfit (SD)	Separation	Reliability	Cronbach Alpha
<b>FS</b>						
Person	1.33(1.14)	1.02 (.88)	1.02 (.88)	2.13	.82	.88
Item	.00(.18)	.99 (.22)	1.01 (.021)	3.10	.91	

Note:  $N=458$  \*\*\* $p \leq .001$  \*\* $p \leq .01$  \* $p \leq .05$

Table 5.6 illustrates good item reliability and internal consistency reliability ( $\geq .80$ ) for the total FS. The item separation ( $\geq 3.10$ ) was regarded as sufficient when compared to the stipulated guidelines that item separation must be at least 2.00 (Hogg & Tanis, 2010; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011). The acceptable scores (2.13) on person separation indices may be an indication that the scale items also tend to discriminate among respondents as estimated. The FS showed the highest person average measure ( $.88$ ;  $SD = 1.33$ ). The mean

item fit and person fit were acceptable, showing that the responses did not underfit ( $\geq 1.30$ ) or overfit ( $\leq .70$ ). Overall, the infit and outfit scores of the FS were found to be closer to 1.00, thus suggesting a good fit and the unidimensionality of the FS (Saidi & Siew, 2019).

In summary, acceptable construct validity for each of the four scales was achieved by means of the CFA analysis. Although some of the internal consistency reliabilities for some of the scales were below the threshold value of .70, the reliability was deemed acceptable for the exploratory nature of this group-based research (De Souza et al., 2017). The low internal consistency reliabilities were also taken into consideration in the interpretation of the results.

## 5.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

This section reports the descriptive statistics (the distribution of variables in terms of means, standard deviations, and frequency tables). Descriptive statistics involve organising and summarising data obtained from populations or samples (Holcomb, 2016). In this section, the means and standard deviations, kurtosis and skewness of the continuous data (means and standard deviations), categorical data (frequency data and figures) (Scale for Positive And Negative Experiences (SPANE), Career Orientations Inventory (COI), Organisational Commitment Scales (OCS), and Flourishing Scale (FS) are reported.

### 5.2.1 Reporting on the means, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis

This section reports the descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, skewness, and kurtosis) of the SPANE, COI, OCS, and FS instruments. The results are illustrated in Table 5.7 and discussed as below.

Table 5.7

*Summary of the Mean Scores, Standard Deviation, Skewness, and Kurtosis of the Scales*

Variable	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
<b>SPANE</b>						
<i>Positive affect</i>	1.50	4.67	3.20	0.45	-0.00	.056
<i>Negative affect</i>	1.00	4.50	2.44	0.68	-0.07	-0.51
<b>COI</b>	<b>2.00</b>	<b>5.93</b>	<b>3.91</b>	<b>0.57</b>	<b>0.13</b>	<b>-0.03</b>
<i>Autonomy (AU)</i>	1.00	6.00	3.87	0.71	-0.27	0.58

<b>Security/Stability (SE)</b>	2.00	6.00	3.85	0.71	0.08	-0.21
<b>Technical/ Function (TF)</b>	1.80	6.00	3.93	0.71	0.01	0.19
<b>General Management (GM)</b>	1.00	6.00	3.88	0.71	-0.18	0.32
<b>Entrepreneurial Creativity (EC)</b>	1.40	6.00	3.89	0.74	0.09	0.39
<b>Service/ Dedication to a cause (SV)</b>	2.00	6.00	3.94	0.72	0.21	0.07
<b>Pure Challenge (CH)</b>	2.00	6.00	3.99	0.72	0.23	-0.07
<b>Life Style (LS)</b>	1.80	6.00	3.92	0.71	0.18	-0.02
<b>OCS</b>	<b>1.78</b>	<b>6.33</b>	<b>4.04</b>	<b>0.80</b>	<b>0.25</b>	<b>-0.29</b>
<b>Affective</b>	1.67	6.50	4.04	0.97	0.33	-0.29
<b>Continuance</b>	1.00	6.83	4.08	0.94	0.42	0.09
<b>Normative</b>	1.67	6.50	4.00	0.94	0.38	-0.10
<b>FS</b>						
<b>Flourishing</b>	2.25	7.00	5.36	0.95	-0.56	-0.19

Note: N=458

#### 5.2.1.1 Means and standard deviations of the Scale for Positive and Negative Emotions (SPANE)

Table 5.7: Indicates that the Scale for Positive And Negative Experiences' mean scores ranged from 1.00 to 4.67. The sample of participants obtained the highest mean score on Positive Affect sub-scales ( $M = 3.20$ ;  $SD = 0.45$ ), and the lowest mean score on Negative Affect sub-scales ( $M = 2.44$ ;  $SD = 0.68$ ). The skewness values for the Scale for Positive And Negative Experiences dimensions ranged from negative values -0.00 to .07, ranging within the acceptable -0 and +1 range (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011). The kurtosis values ranged between -.51 and .56, thereby falling in with the -1 and closer to +1 coefficient ranges (Hogg & Tanis, 2010; De Souza et al., 2017).

#### 5.2.1.2 Means and standard deviations of the Career Orientations Inventory (COI)

Table 5.7 indicated that, the Career Orientations Inventory mean scores ranged from 2.00 to 5.93. The sample of responses ranged from the highest mean score on Pure Challenge (CH) career anchor ( $M = 3.99$ ;  $SD = 0.72$ ), and the lowest mean score of Security/Stability (SE) career anchor ( $M = 3.85$ ;  $SD = 0.71$ ). The skewness values of the Career Orientations

Inventory sub-scales ranged between -0.27 and 0.23, which is within the -1 and +1 normal coefficients range (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011). Furthermore, in terms of the kurtosis, the Career Orientations Inventory dimensions kurtosis values ranged between -0.21 and 0.58, which is within the -1 range and closer to +1 coefficient range (Hogg & Tanis, 2010; De Souza et al., 2017).

#### 5.2.1.3 Means and standard deviations of the Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS)

Table 5.7 indicates that the sample of respondents obtained the highest mean score on the Continuance Organisational Commitment sub-scale ( $M = 4.08$ ;  $SD = 0.94$ ) and the lowest mean score on the Normative Organisational Commitment sub-scale ( $M = 4.00$ ;  $SD = 0.94$ ). The skewness values for the Organisational Commitment Scale sub-scales were ranging between -0.10 and 0.09, which is within the -1 and +1 acceptable coefficient range applicable to this study (Gravett & Wallnau, 2011). Overall, the kurtosis' highest values were ranging between -.029 and 0.09, and are therefore within -1 and +1 normal coefficient ranges (Hogg & Tanis, 2010; De Souza et al., 2017).

#### 5.2.1.4 Means and standard deviations of the Flourishing Scale (FS)

Table 5.7 indicates that the respondents attained higher mean scores on the Flourishing Scale ( $M = 5.36$ ;  $SD = .95$ ). The skewness value for the Flourishing Scale was -.56, which is within the acceptable -1 and +1 coefficient ranges (Gravett & Wallnau, 2011). Furthermore, the FS scale kurtosis value came in at -.19, which is within the -1 to +1 normal required coefficient range applicable to the current study (Hogg & Tanis, 2010; De Souza et al., 2017).

### 5.3 CORRELATIONAL STATISTICS

This section discusses the nature of the inter-relationships between the variables in relation to testing the research hypothesis Ha1 in the study. In this section, the strength and the direction of the relationships between each of the variables are discussed. Moreover, the section outlines the correlational results that provided adequate evidence in support of research hypothesis Ha1.

***There is a statistically significant positive inter-correlation between the dispositional attributes and flourishing attribute that constitute an overall psychological well-being profile.***

### 5.3.1 Reporting on the Pearson Product-moment correlation coefficients (SPANE, COI, OCS, FS) and the biographical information

5.3.1.1 *The relationship between independent variables (emotional affect, career orientations and organisational commitment), dependent variable (flourishing), and biographical information*

#### Nonparametric Correlations

This section reports the nonparametric correlations summary of the bivariate correlations between Emotional Affect, Career Orientations, and Organisational Commitment, Flourishing, and Biographical Information as illustrated in Table 5.8 and discussion follows.

Table 5.8

*Summary of the Bivariate Correlations between Emotional Affect, Career Orientations, and Organisational Commitment, Flourishing, and Biographical Information.*

		AGE		RACE	GENDER	YEARS OF SERVICE	RANK
Spearman's rho	Positive affect	Correlation Coefficient	.015	-.009	.007	.010	.022
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.756	.853	.883	.837	.640
		N	458	458	458	458	458
SPANE	Negative affect	Correlation Coefficient	.055	.132**	-.043	.069	-.019
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.240	.005	.355	.142	.679
		N	458	458	458	458	458
COI	Autonomy (AU)	Correlation Coefficient	.077	-.190**	.034	.025	-.100*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.099	.000	.468	.597	.032
		N	458	458	458	458	458
	Security/ Stability (SE)	Correlation Coefficient	.094*	-.164**	.029	.058	-.149**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.044	.000	.529	.217	.001
		N	458	458	458	458	458

OCS		N	458	458	458	458	458
	Technical Function (TF)	Correlation Coefficient	.101 <sup>*</sup>	-.199 <sup>**</sup>	-.005	.041	-.123 <sup>**</sup>
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.030	.000	.920	.377	.008
		N	458	458	458	458	458
	General Management (GM)	Correlation Coefficient	.048	-.144 <sup>**</sup>	.012	-.028	-.097 <sup>*</sup>
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.310	.002	.801	.547	.039
		N	458	458	458	458	458
	Entrepreneurial / Creativity (EC)	Correlation Coefficient	-.003	-.218 <sup>**</sup>	.040	-.086	-.148 <sup>**</sup>
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.957	.000	.395	.066	.001
		N	458	458	458	458	458
	Service/ Dedication to cause (SV)	Correlation Coefficient	.067	-.191 <sup>**</sup>	.003	.025	-.123 <sup>**</sup>
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.151	.000	.955	.597	.008
		N	458	458	458	458	458
	Pure Challenge (CH)	Correlation Coefficient	.033	-.237 <sup>**</sup>	-.036	-.022	-.165 <sup>**</sup>
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.479	.000	.441	.642	.000
		N	458	458	458	458	458
	Life Style (LS)	Correlation Coefficient	.035	-.159 <sup>**</sup>	.022	-.008	-.131 <sup>**</sup>
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.461	.001	.636	.857	.005
		N	458	458	458	458	458
	Career Orientations	Correlation Coefficient	.064	-.237 <sup>**</sup>	.021	-.005	-.158 <sup>**</sup>
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.171	.000	.648	.921	.001
		N	458	458	458	458	458
	Affective	Correlation Coefficient	.028	-.086	-.015	.001	-.067
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.545	.066	.744	.990	.155
		N	458	458	458	458	458
	Continuance	Correlation Coefficient	.052	-.120 <sup>*</sup>	.017	.031	-.068
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.269	.010	.715	.502	.145
		N	458	458	458	458	458
	Normative	Correlation Coefficient	.109 <sup>*</sup>	-.167 <sup>**</sup>	-.001	.072	-.062
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.019	.000	.981	.122	.188
N		458	458	458	458	458	

FS	Organisational Commitment	Correlation Coefficient	.079	-.141**	.001	.045	-.079
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.092	.002	.986	.339	.090
		N	458	458	458	458	458
	Flourishing	Correlation Coefficient	.039	-.192**	.044	.088	-.058
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.401	.000	.348	.059	.213
		N	458	458	458	458	458

Note: \*\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). \*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

### 5.3.1.1 Age

As indicated in Table 5.8, biographical information of age had significant positive correlations with the following career anchors: Security/stability ( $r = .09$ ;  $p = .04$ ; small practical effect); and Technical/functional ( $r = .10$ ;  $p = .03$ ; small practical effect). Age had also a significant correlation with normative commitment ( $r = .11$ ;  $p = .02$ ; small practical effect).

### 5.3.1.2 Race

Table 5.8 shows that biographical information of race had significant correlations with: Negative affect ( $r = -.13$ ,  $p < .00$ : small practical effect); Autonomy ( $r = -.19$ ;  $p \leq .01$  small practical effect); Security/Stability ( $r = -.16$ ;  $p \leq .01$ ; small practical effect); Technical Function ( $r = -.20$ ;  $p \leq .01$ ; small practical effect); General Management ( $r = -.14$ ;  $p \leq .01$ ; small practical effect); Entrepreneurial/Creativity ( $r = -.29$ ;  $p \leq .01$ ; medium practical effect); Service/ Dedication to a cause ( $r = -.19$ ;  $p \leq .01$ ; small practical effect); Pure Challenge ( $r = -.24$ ;  $p \leq .00$ ; small practical effect); and Life Style ( $r = .16$ ;  $p \leq .00$ ; small practical effect); and Overall COI ( $r = -.24$ ;  $p \leq .00$ ; small practical effect). Race had also significant negative correlations with Affect ( $r = -.09$ ;  $p \leq .05$ ; small practical effect); Continuance Commitment ( $r = -.12$ ;  $p \leq .05$ ; small practical effect); Normative Commitment ( $r = -.167$ ;  $p \leq .01$ ; small practical effect); and Overall, OCS ( $r = -.14$ ;  $p \leq .00$ ; small practical effect); Race had a significant correlation with Flourishing ( $r = -.19$ ;  $p \leq .00$ ; small practical effect).

### 5.3.1.3 Gender

Table 5.8 shows that biographical information of gender had no significant correlations with the various scale variables.



#### 5.3.1.4 Years of Services

Table 5.8 shows that years' of service in the organisation had no significant correlations with the various scale variables.

#### 5.3.1.5 Rank

Table 5.8 shows that rank levels had significant correlations with: Autonomy ( $r = -.10$ ;  $p < .01$ ; small practical effect); Security/stability ( $r = -.15$ ;  $p \leq .01$ ; small practical effect); Technical/functional ( $r = -.12$ ;  $p \leq .05$ ; small practical effect); General management ( $r = -.10$ ;  $p \leq .01$  small practical effect); Entrepreneurial creativity ( $r = -.15$ ;  $p \leq .05$ ; small practical effect); Service/dedication to a cause ( $r = -.12$ ;  $p \leq .05$ ; small practical effect); Pure challenge ( $r = -.17$ ;  $p \leq .05$ ; small practical effect); Life style ( $r = -.13$ ;  $p \leq .05$ ; small practical effect); and Overall COI ( $r = -.16$ ;  $p \leq .00$ ; small practical effect).

The current correlation which is evident indicates supportive evidence for the research hypothesis in terms of age, race and rank only: *namely*;

***There is a statistically significant positive inter-correlation between the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and flourishing (positive psychological functioning) attributes that constitute an overall psychological well-being profile.***

Table 5.9

*Summary of the Bivariate Correlations between the Dispositional Attributes and Flourishing Attributes.*

	PA	NA	AU	SE	TF	GM	EC	SV	CH	LS	Affect	Continuance	Normative	Flourishing
PA	1.00													
NA	0.02 0.65	1.00												
AU	0.10 0.033	0.01 0.777	1.00											
SE	0.18 0.00	-.02 0.656	0.51 <.001	1.00										
TF	0.16 0.00	-.06 0.216	0.60 <.001	0.60 <.000	1.00									
GM	0.11 0.02	0.05 0.245	0.65 <.001	0.61 <.000	0.60 <.001	1.00								
EC	0.18 <.00	-.08 0.072	0.63 <.001	0.55 <.000	0.60 <.001	0.57 <.000	1.00							
SV	0.28 <.00	-.09 0.0644	0.54 <.000	0.63 <.000	0.62 <.000	0.53 <.000	0.64 <.000	1.00						
CH	0.24 <.00	-.12 0.009	0.55 <.000	0.57 <.000	0.65 <.000	0.53 <.000	0.66 <.000	0.67 <.000	1.00					
LS	0.13 0.00	-.07 0.1182	0.58 <.000	0.59 <.000	0.62 <.000	0.59 <.000	0.55 <.000	0.63 <.000	0.63 <.000	1.00				
Affect t	0.11 0.016	0.05 0.2963	0.42 <.000	0.37 <.000	0.37 <.000	0.45 <.000	0.39 <.000	0.38 <.000	0.36 <.000	0.36 <.000	1.00			

Cont inua nce	0.19 <.000	0.04 0.4459	0.47 <.000	0.48 <.000	0.48 <.000	0.45 <.000	0.45 <.000	0.44 <.000	0.48 <.000	0.48 <.000	0.61 <.000	1.00		
Nor mati ve	0.14 0.004	0.04 0.3400	0.34 <.000	0.42 <.000	0.39 <.000	0.35 <.000	0.33 <.000	0.42 <.000	0.47 <.000	0.39 <.000	0.42 <.000	0.66 <.000	1.00	
Flour ishin g	0.07 0.141	-.09 0.053	0.30 <.000	0.31 <.000	0.37 <.000	0.33 <.000	0.30 <.000	0.33 <.000	0.36 <.000	0.40 <.000	0.31 <.000	0.40 <.000	0.41 <.000	1.00

Note:  $N=458$   $p=0001$  \*\*\* $p \leq .001$  \*\* $p \leq .01$  \* $p \leq .05$

Table 5.9 indicates that the career anchors/orientations had significant positive associations with positive affect with  $r$  ranging between  $r \geq .10$  (small practical effect) to  $r \leq .28$  (small practical effect) at  $p \leq .02$ . Only the pure challenge career anchor had a significant negative correlation with negative affect:  $r = -.12$  (small practical effect;  $p = .01$ ). Similarly, the career anchors had significant positive correlations with affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment and flourishing. The correlations ranged between  $r \geq .30$  (moderate practical effect) to  $r \leq .48$  (moderate practical effect) at  $p \leq .000$ .

The organisational commitment variables had positive correlations with positive affect. The correlations ranged between  $r \geq .11$  (small practical effect) to  $r \leq .19$  (small practical effect) at  $p \leq .02$ . The significant correlations between the organisational commitment variables and flourishing ranged between  $r \geq .31$  (moderate practical effect) to  $r \leq .41$  (moderate practical effect) at  $p \leq .000$ . Negative affect had a significant negative correlation with flourishing:  $r = -.09$  (small practical effect) at  $p = .05$ , but no significant correlations with the organisational commitment variables.

The correlation results provided supportive evidence for the research hypothesis:

***There is a statistically significant positive inter-correlation between the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and flourishing (positive psychological functioning) attributes that constitute an overall psychological well-being profile***

## 5.4 INFERENTIAL (MULTIVARIATE) STATISTICS

This section reports on the results of the multivariate statistics conducted.

### 5.4.1 Multiple linear regression analyses

In this section, the discussion reports the multiple regressions analysis that was conducted in order to test hypotheses Ha2:

***The (independent variables) dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) significantly predict (dependable variable) the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).***

Before testing various regression analyses, the collinearity diagnostics were examined to ensure that the variance inflation factors did not exceed 10 and that the condition index was below 15, while ensuring that the tolerance values were closer to 1.0 (Field, 2009; Hayes, 2013; Dahlke & Wiernik, 2018). In order to counter the probability of a type I error, the significance level was set at 95% confidence level ( $F_p \leq .05$ ).

Table 5.10

*Multiple Regression Results: Dispositional attributes as a predictor of flourishing*

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Unstan- dardised Coeffi- cient</b>	<b>Stan- dardised Coeffi- cient</b>	<b>Stan- dard error</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>P</b>	<b>Adjus- ted R Square</b>	<b>R</b>
	<i>B</i>	$\beta$	<i>SE</i>				
<b>Model 1</b>				7.67	<.0001	0.237	.494
<b>Intercept</b>	2.922	0.381		-0.89	0.372		
<b>Positive_Affect</b>	-0.078	0.088	-0.037	-2.27	0.023		
<b>Negative_Affect</b>	-0.130	0.057	-0.094	4.42	<.0001		
<b>Career_Orientations</b>	0.383	0.087	0.232	6.04	<.0001		
<b>Organisational_ Commitment</b>	0.373	0.062	0.314	7.67	<.0001		

Note:  $N = 458$ . \*\*\* $p \leq .001$  \*\* $p \leq .01$  \* $p \leq .05$  +  $R^2 \leq 0.12$  (small practical effect size) ++  $R^2 \geq 0.13 \leq 0.25$  (moderate practical effect size) + ++  $R^2 \geq 0.26$  (large practical effect size)

Table 5.10 indicates a summary of the significant results of the multiple regression study to assess whether the dispositional construct attributes acted as significant predictors of flourishing. Table 5.10 indicates that the current regression model was deemed acceptable and statistically significant ( $F_p \leq .05$ ), with the model accounting for 24% ( $R^2 = .24$ ;  $p = 0001$ ). The results were large in practical effect. In the current model, positive feelings ( $\beta = -.04$ ;  $p = .005$ ) and negative feelings ( $\beta = -.09$ ;  $p = .005$ ), acted as significant negative predictors of career flourishing, while career orientations ( $\beta = -.23$ ;  $p = .0001$ ) and organisational commitment ( $\beta = .31$ ;  $p = .0001$ ) acted as significant positive predictors of flourishing, with organisational commitment contributing the most to explaining the variance (Hayes, 2018). Table 5.10 indicate all the dispositional attributes statistical results, with the exception of emotional affect constructs (positive affect;  $\beta = -.04$ ;  $p = .005$  and negative affect;  $\beta = -.09$ ;  $p = .005$ ), which have acted as a significant negative predictors of flourishing for the current model 1. Below is the discussion on the structural equation modeling.

### 5.4.2 Structural equation modelling

In this section, structural equation modelling has been applied to test Ha3:

***The theoretically conceptualised psychological well-being profile has a good fit with the empirically manifested structural equational model.***

Structural equation modelling (SAS version 9.4, 2013) was conducted to test whether Individuals' affect, organisational commitment and career orientations/anchors significantly predict their flourishing. Two SEM models were tested.

Model 1 included positive and negative affect, overall career orientations (with its 8 subscales loading onto the overall construct), overall organisational commitment (with its 3 subscales loading onto the overall construct) as independent variables predicting overall flourishing.

Model 2 included negative affect, overall career orientations (with its 8 subscales loading onto the overall construct), overall organisational commitment (with its 3 subscales loading onto the overall construct) as independent variables predicting overall flourishing.

Table 5.11 shows that model 2 obtained the best fit with CFI = .953; NFI = .934; RMSEA = .073 and SRMR = .036. Overall, the results provided evidence in support of research hypothesis H3.

Table 5.11

*Structural Equation Modelling Results: Model Fit Statistics*

Model	CMIN	df	CMIN/df	P	NFI	RFI	TLI	CFI	ΔCMI	RMSEA	SRMR
1	233.67	70	3.34	0.0001	.9275	.9122	.9320	.9477		0.0715	0.0371
2	207.88	61	3.41	0.0001	.9344	.9086	.9392	.9525	26.67	0.0726	0.0362

Note: CMIN( $\chi^2$ ) = chi-square; df = degrees of freedom; p = significance level; NFI = Bentler-Bonett normed fit index; RFI = relative fit index; TLI = non-normed fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root-mean-square error of approximation. SRMR = standardised root-mean-square residual

Table 5.12 reports the standardised path loadings of model 2 while figure 5.1 illustrates the model path loadings.

Table 5.12

*Standardised Path Coefficients for the Hypothesised Structural Equation Model*

Observed variables	Latent variables	Estimate	Standard error	t-value
Career_Orientations_	AU	0.74	0.02	32.31
Career_Orientations_	SE	0.75	0.02	33.33
Career_Orientations_	TF	0.79	0.02	40.08
Career_Orientations_	GM	0.74	0.02	31.56
Career_Orientations_	EC	0.76	0.02	37.21
Career_Orientations_	SV	0.79	0.02	40.74
Career_Orientations_	CH	0.80	0.02	41.61
Career_Orientations_	LS	0.78	0.02	37.87
Organisational_Commitment_	Affective	0.67	0.03	21.89
Organisational_Commitment_	Continuance	0.90	0.02	45.52
Organisational_Commitment_	Normative	0.73	0.03	27.15
Negative_Affect	Flourishing	-0.09	0.04	-2.23
Organisational_Commitment_	Flourishing	0.33	0.07	5.06
Career_Orientations_	Flourishing	0.21	0.07	3.16

Note:  $n = 458$ ; \*\* $t$ -values  $> 3.16$  ( $p < .01$ ); \* $t$ -values  $> 5.06$  ( $p < .05$ ).

As indicated in table 5.12 and figure 5.1 below, the factor loadings (path coefficients) for all eight (8) career anchors (AU 0.74; SE 0.75; TF 0.79; GM 0.74; EC 0.76; SV 0.79; CH 0.80; LS 0.78) adequately converged on Career Orientations. In terms of the organisational commitment, the sub-scales (Affective 0.67; Continuance 0.90; and Normative 0.73) adequately converged on Organisational Commitment. Only organisational commitment ( $\beta = .33$ ;  $p \leq .05$ ) and career orientations ( $\beta = .21$ ;  $p \leq .01$ ) had significant positive pathways to flourishing. Negative affect did not have a significant pathway to flourishing.

Table 5.13

*Summary: Final Model of Dispositional Attributes that Acted as Significant Predictors of Flourishing (Positive Psychological Functioning)*

Significant Predictor (Independent) Variables: Dispositional Construct Attributes		Criterion Dependent Variable: Flourishing
<b>Emotional Affect</b>	No significant pathway Did not act as significant	Flourishing

	predictors of flourishing		
<b>Career Orientations</b>	Positive pathway function)	significant (prediction	Flourishing
<b>Organisational Commitment</b>	Positive pathway function)	significant (prediction	Flourishing



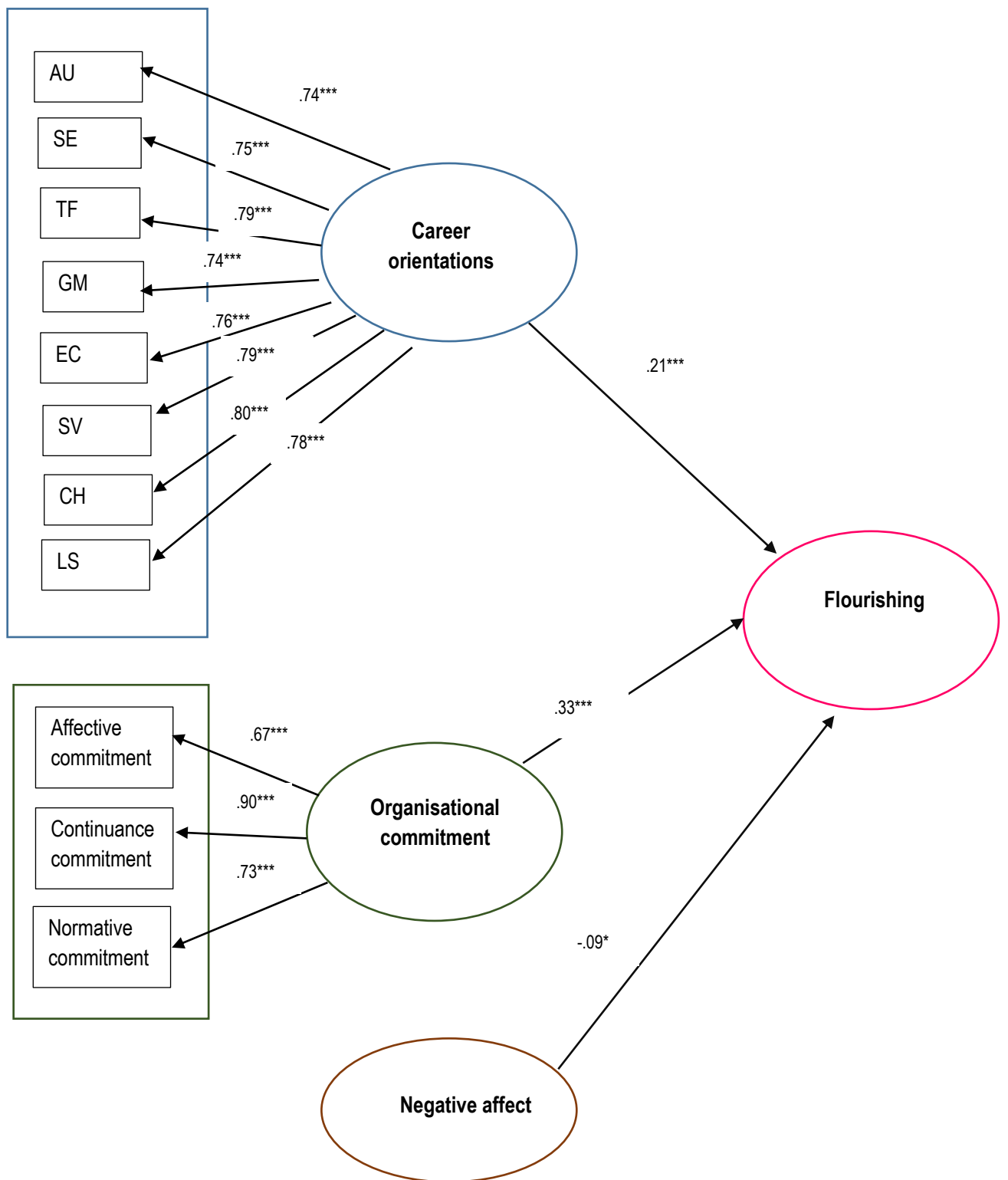


Figure 5.1: Final empirical model: Standardised path coefficients.  $p \leq .001^{***}$ ;  $p \leq .05^*$ ;

## **Preliminary analysis 1: The development of a psychological well-being profile**

In summary, figure 5.1 indicates that the final Structural Equation Modelling standardised path coefficient included the organisational commitment variables and career orientations as the important aspects to be considered when considering flourishing interventions aimed at enhancing congruence and attachment in the organisation. Table 5.12 provides an overview of the variables that contributed mostly in explaining the predominant elements of the psychological well-being profile of the junior leaders. More specifically, the structural equation modelling revealed that career orientations and organisational commitment significantly predicted flourishing, while Negative affect did not have a significant pathway to flourishing. In a nutshell, the current results indicate that individuals tend to choose those type of careers orientations that would enhance their motivation to feel committed or stay longer within an organisation and devise ways and means to flourish more, thereby contributing to their overall psychological well-being (Schein 1990; 1996; Seligman, 2011; Yildirim & Belen, 2019).

Career Orientations are important for junior leaders to realises their basic values and interest which stimulate them to challenge those hygienic factors and processes underlying their career choices and paths (Abessolo, Hirschi, & Rossier, 2017a). Generally, the choice of career anchors motivates junior leaders to reflect on the manner in which they shape their careers and their personal ambitions (Schein, 1990; Ndlovu, Frontasyeva, Newman, & Maleka, 2018). Therefore, it is clear from the relationship identified between the career orientations and organisational commitment within the military organisation that those junior leaders who develop in a job or career may feel a stronger sense of attachment to the organisation and holds a view that the organisation looked after them (Martínez-Martí & Ruch, 2017). This means that the junior leader's job complements other areas of their life in general, whilst enhancing their psychological well-being (Holtom & O'Neil, 2004; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2012; Coetzee et al., 2017).

Therefore, career orientations tend to trigger those thoughts emotions about competence, interest, motives, that allow junior leaders to set up their own pace, lifestyle and work habits to fulfill certain responsibilities to flourish. The results showed that junior leaders who prefer to work independently tend to be motivated and empowered to work and would express their life satisfaction freely, or increase their lifestyle and service/dedication to a cause career anchors (Abessolo et al., 2017a). The study indicated that organisational commitment can be associated with the belief that the certain careers are crucial to motivate junior leaders to

stay within the organisation for longer period because they are treated fairly (Döckel et al., 2006; Kraak, Lunardo, Herrbach, & Durrieu, 2018). The findings support that junior leader's prefer to work in the organisations where there are a variety of career paths where they could also develop their potential. The correlation results and structural equation modelling highlighted that the dispositional attributes of career orientations and organisational commitment, significantly predict flourishing. Overall, with the exception of affect that did not play a significant role, the study results provided supportive evidence for the research hypothesis Ha3, namely;

***The theoretically conceptualised psychological well-being profile has a good fit with the empirically manifested structural equational model.***

Table 5.14

*Preliminary Analysis 1: Elements of the Empirically Manifested Psychological Well-being Profile*

Variable	Explanation of the variable	Effects on Flourishing
<b>Career Orientations</b>	Career orientations/anchors are the patterns of self-perceived talents and abilities, basic values, evolving motives, and needs that influence employees' career resolutions (Schein, 2006; Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2010; Coetzee et al., 2017).	<p>Junior leaders empower themselves to choose certain careers that enable them to be employable and to flourish in the future.</p> <p>People who are anchored in their security career tend to execute what is expected of them by their organisation in order to maintain their careers and job security and also integrate their personal values and social life into their careers (Schein, 1990).</p> <p>Junior leaders also accept the responsibility to execute their technical or functional and become active service oriented in the military. Junior leaders who are devoted to their careers that provide solutions to their area of responsibilities, tend to use emotional intelligence skills to stimulate their</p>

		career ambitions rather than been exhausted or debilitated by these organisational challenges.
<b>Organisational Commitment</b>	Organisational commitment is an employee's psychological and emotional attachment, membership, and moral obligation towards an identified organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991; El-Nahas, Abd-El-Salam, & Shawky, 2013; Ariza-Montes et al., 2018).	<p>Junior leaders who devote and commit fully to their current organisation would get the benefits associated with commitment and, in turn, flourish.</p> <p>Individual with strong managerial career anchor might think twice about the costs involved when faced with a decision to leave the organization (Meyer &amp; Allen, 1993).</p> <p>Career orientations can increase individuals' commitment which suggests individual's thought to avoid and detach themselves from their work environments problems and stay focussed on the course of responsibilities.</p>

### 5.4.3 Hierarchical moderated regression analysis

Hierarchical moderated regression was performed to test research hypothesis Ha4, namely;

***Biographical information pertaining to age, race, gender, years of service, and rank moderate the relationship between the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).***

Hierarchical moderated regression analysis (SPSS version 25, Hayes, 2018) was applied, in order to assess the extent to which age, race, gender, years of service, and rank moderate the relationship between the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning). Moreover, the significance levels of the interaction effects, additionally with the differing values of the moderator variable, was explained using bootstrapping bias-corrected

95% lower level (LLCI) and upper level (ULCI) confidence levels, which exclude zero (Shrout & Bolger, 2002; SAS, 2013; Hayes, 2018).

Table 5.15 illustrates the results of the moderated regression analysis with age as a moderator of the relationship between dispositional attributes and the flourishing variable, followed by the discussions on race, gender, years of service, and rank groups as moderators respectively.

#### 5.4.3.1 Age as a moderator

Table 5.15

*Interaction (Moderating) Effect between Age and Career Orientation Autonomy in Predicting Flourishing*

Variable	Coefficient $\beta$	SE	t	p	Bootstrap Confidence Interval LLCI	Bootstrap Confidence Interval ULCI	Model info
Constant	5.216	0.160	32.575	0.000	4.901	5.530	
Autonomy	0.818	0.253	3.237	0.001	0.322	1.315	
W1: 26-35 years	0.183	0.171	1.069	0.286	-0.154	0.520	
W2: 36-45 years	0.068	0.176	0.387	0.699	-0.278	0.415	
W3: 46-65 years	0.216	0.200	1.082	0.280	-0.177	0.609	
Autonomy X : 26-35 years	-0.573	0.269	-2.132	0.034	-1.102	-0.045	
Autonomy x 36-45 years	-0.324	0.274	-1.182	0.238	-0.862	0.215	
Autonomy x 46-65 years	-0.352	0.285	-1.236	0.217	-0.912	0.208	
F							7.77
p							.000
R <sup>2</sup>							.11
Cohen f <sup>2</sup> (only for significant interaction effect- calculate R <sup>2</sup> /1 - R <sup>2</sup> )							0.098

Note: N = 458. B, regression coefficient; SE, standard errors; t, t-test; p, probability value; R, multiple correlation coefficients; R<sup>2</sup>, proportion variance explained, A, Autonomy Flourishing is the dependent variable. \*, Statistically significant ( $p \leq .001$ ); \*\*, Statistically significant ( $p \leq .05$ )

Table 5.15 presents the moderation interaction effect of Age on the Autonomy variable. The ANOVA analysis shows that the regression model significantly predicted Flourishing

construct ( $t = 3.237; p \leq .001$ ). The proportion variance explained ( $R^2$ ) for the model was .11 and  $F$  was 7.77. It is clear from table 5.15 that there were statistically significant main interacting effects for the biographical predictor Age category (respectively, 26 – 35;  $t = 1.069, p \leq .286$ ; 36 – 45;  $t = .387, p \leq .699$ ; 46 – 65;  $t = .217, p \leq .217$ ). The current model reported  $f^2$  statistics ( $f^2 = .098$ ), indicated that the moderating effect of age was large in practical effect (Cohen et al., 2003). Furthermore, table 5.15 indicated that Career Orientations Autonomy had a significant positive direct pathway to Age ( $\beta = .818; p \leq .001$ ; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero:  $-.154$  to  $1.315$ ), (respectively, 26 – 35; ( $\beta = .183; p \leq .286$ ; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero:  $.322$  to  $.520$ ); 36 – 45; ( $\beta = .068; p \leq .699$ ; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero:  $-.278$  to  $.415$ ); 46 – 65; ( $\beta = .216; p \leq .177$ ; LLCI – ULCI range included zero:  $-.177$  to  $.609$ ). The conclusion might imply that Autonomy relate to Age, which in turn related to flourishing.

Figure 5.2 is a direct indication of the nature of the interaction effects of the participants on the Age (26-35 years) group with higher Autonomy (AU) scores in Flourishing as compared to other Age groups with Low Autonomy when applying the slope tests.

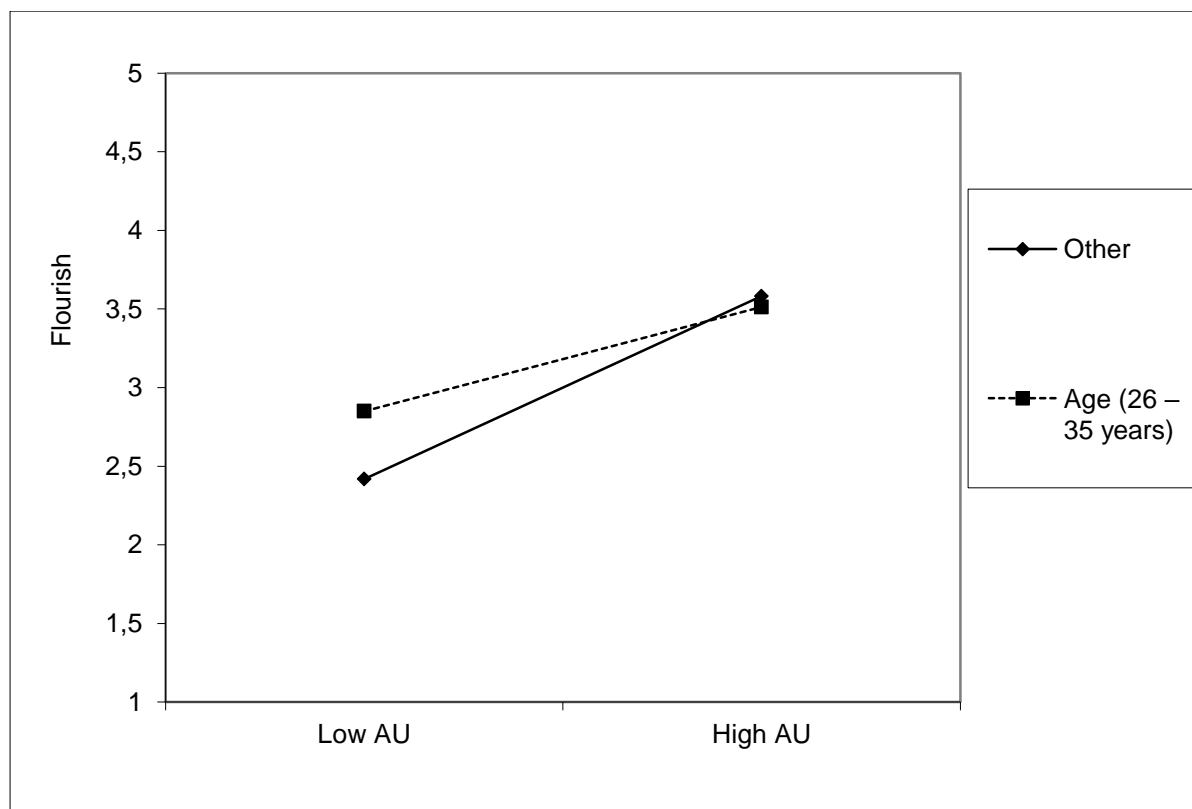


Figure 5.2: A two-way interaction effects for a binary moderator. Age as a moderator between Autonomy and flourishing. The moderators have values of 0 and 1.

#### 5.4.3.2 Race as a moderator

Table 5.16 reflects the results of the moderated regression analysis and the impact that the race groups have on the dispositional variables and flourishing respectively.

Table 5.16

*Interaction (Moderating) Effect between Race and Career Orientations Autonomy in Predicting Flourishing*

Variable	Coefficient $\beta$	SE	t	p	Bootstrap Confidence Interval LLCI	Bootstrap Confidence Interval ULCI	Model info
Constant	5.454	0.052	105.223	0.000	5.352	5.555	
Autonomy	0.268	0.072	3.746	0.000	0.128	0.409	
W1: Coloured	-0.036	0.105	-0.339	0.735	-0.243	0.171	
W2: Indian/Asian	-0.537	0.253	-2.124	0.034	-1.034	-0.040	
W3: White	-0.427	0.133	-3.209	0.001	-0.688	-0.165	
Autonomy X : Coloured	0.082	0.152	0.539	0.590	-0.217	0.382	
Autonomy x Indian/Asian	-0.074	0.391	-0.190	0.849	-0.843	0.694	
Autonomy x White	0.721	0.189	3.814	0.000	0.350	1.093	
F							12.08
p							.000
R <sup>2</sup>							.158
Cohen f <sup>2</sup> (only for significant interaction effect-calculate R <sup>2</sup> /1 - R <sup>2</sup> )							0.188

Note: N = 458. B, regression coefficient; SE, standard errors; t, t-test; p, probability value; R, multiple correlation coefficients; R<sup>2</sup>, proportion variance explained, A, Autonomy Flourishing is the dependent variable. \* Statistically significant ( $p \leq .001$ ); \*\* Statistically significant ( $p \leq .05$ )

Table 5.16 presents the moderation interaction effect of Race on the Career Orientations Autonomy variable. The ANOVA analysis shows that the regression model significantly predicted Flourishing construct ( $t = 3.746$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ). The proportion variance explained (R<sup>2</sup>) for the model was .158 and F was 12.08. It is clear from table 5.16 that there were statistically significant main interacting effects for the Race groups predictor coloured, Indian/Asian and white race groups (respectively, coloured;  $t = -.339$ ,  $p \leq .735$ ; Indian/Asian  $t = -2.124$ ,  $p \leq .034$ ; white;  $t = -3.209$ ,  $p \leq .001$ ).

The current model reported  $f^2$  statistics ( $f^2 = .188$ ), indicating that the moderating effect of Race was medium in practical effect (Cohen et al., 2003). However, no significant interaction terms were found between race groups and some of the predictor variables in the model. Furthermore, table 5.16 indicated that Career Orientations Autonomy had a significant positive direct pathway to Race; ( $\beta = .268$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: .128 to .409), (respectively, coloured; ( $\beta = -.036$ ;  $p \leq .735$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: -.243 to .171); Indian/Asian; ( $\beta = -.537$ ;  $p \leq .034$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: -1.034 to -.040); White; ( $\beta = -.427$ ;  $p \leq .001$ ; LLCI – ULCI range did not included zero: -.688 to .165). The conclusion might imply that Autonomy relate to biographical information of Race, which in turn related to flourishing.

By applying the slope tests and graphic, the nature of the interaction effects indicates that the white race group with higher Autonomy (AU) scores has a higher score in Flourishing than other race groups with higher Autonomy (AU) scores.

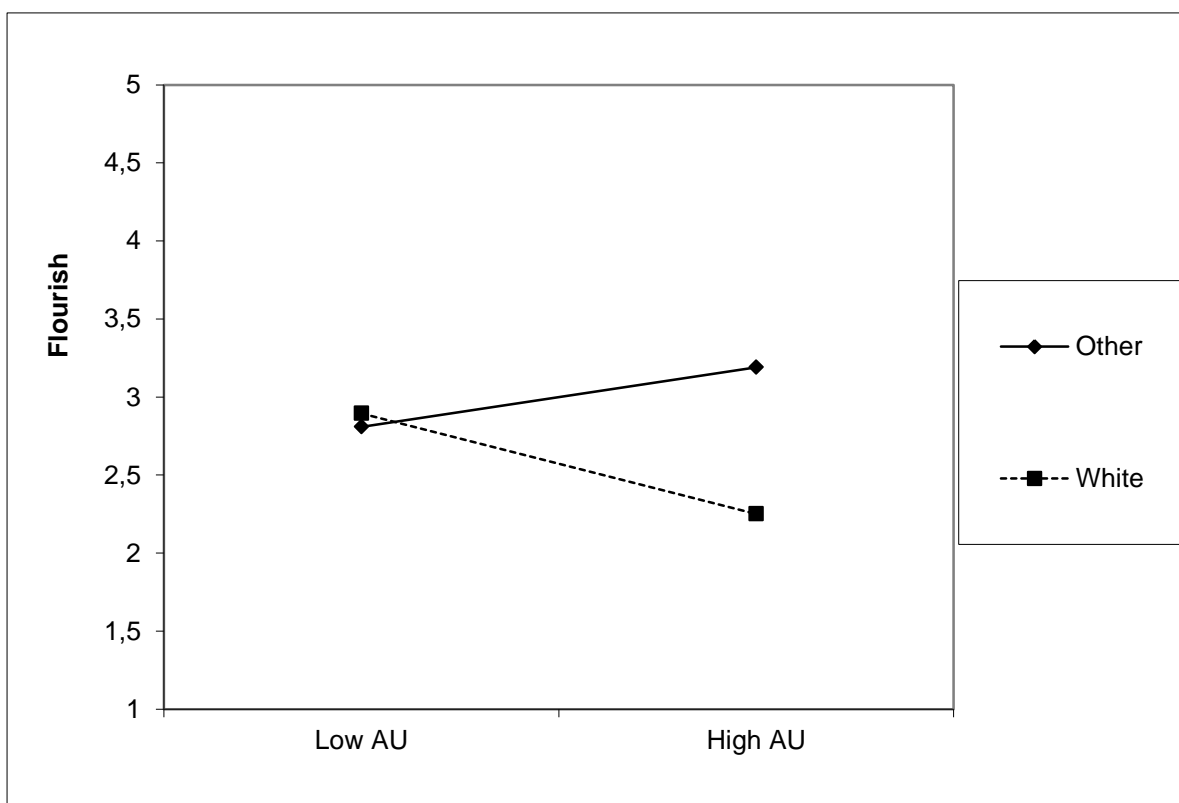


Figure 5.3: A two-way interaction effects for a binary moderator. Race as a moderator between Autonomy and Flourishing. The moderator has values of 0 and 1.



Table 5.17

*Interaction (Moderating) Effect between Race and Career Orientations Security/Stability (SE) in Predicting Flourishing*

Variable	Coefficient $\beta$	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Bootstrap Confidence Interval <i>LLCI</i>	Bootstrap Confidence Interval <i>ULCI</i>	Model info
Constant	5.456	0.052	104.961	0.000	5.354	5.558	
SE	0.283	0.072	3.964	0.000	0.143	0.424	
W1: Coloured	-0.059	0.104	-0.563	0.574	-0.264	0.146	
W2: Indian/Asian	-0.465	0.274	-1.699	0.090	-1.004	0.073	
W3: White	-0.457	0.135	-3.383	0.001	-0.723	-0.192	
SE X Coloured	0.193	0.153	1.258	0.209	-0.108	0.495	
SE x Indian/Asian	0.125	0.479	0.262	0.794	-0.815	1.066	
SE x White	0.441	0.181	2.432	0.015	0.085	0.798	
<i>F</i>							11.264
<i>p</i>							.000
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>							.149
Cohen <i>f</i> <sup>2</sup> (only for significant interaction effect- calculate $R^2/1 - R^2$ )							0.175

Note: *N* = 458. *B*, regression coefficient; *SE*, standard errors; *t*, *t*-test; *p*, probability value; *R*, multiple correlation coefficients; *R*<sup>2</sup>, proportion variance explained, *SE*, Service Dedication, *Flourishing* is the dependent variable. \*, Statistically significant ( $p \leq .001$ ); \*\*, Statistically significant ( $p \leq .05$ )

Table 5.17 presents the moderation interaction effect of Race on the Career Orientations Security/Stability (SE) variable. The ANOVA analysis indicated that the regression model significantly predicted Flourishing construct ( $t = 3.964$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ). The proportion variance explained (*R*<sup>2</sup>) for the model was .149 and *F* was 11.26. Table 5.17 indicates that there were statistically significant main interacting effects for the Race groups predictor coloured, Indian/Asian and white race groups (respectively, coloured;  $t = -.563$ ,  $p \leq .574$ ; Indian/Asian  $t = -1.699$ ,  $p \leq .090$ ; white;  $t = -3.383$ ,  $p \leq .001$ ). Therefore, the current model reported *f*<sup>2</sup> statistics ( $f^2 = .175$ ), indicated that the moderating effect of Race was medium in practical effect (Cohen et al., 2003).

Furthermore, table 5.17 indicated that Career Orientations Security/Stability (SE) had a significant positive direct pathway to Race; ( $\beta = .283$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: .143 to .424), (respectively, coloured; ( $\beta = -.059$ ;  $p \leq .574$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: -.264 to .146); Indian/Asian; ( $\beta = -.465$ ;  $p \leq .090$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: -1.004 to .073); White; ( $\beta = -.457$ ;  $p \leq$

.001; LLCI – ULCI range did not include zero: -.723 to -.192). The conclusion might imply that SE relate to Race, which in turn related to flourishing.

Figure 5.4 illustrates the nature of the interaction, showing participants (Whites) having lower Security/Stability (SE) scores as scoring low in Flourishing, compared to other race groups with low scores in SE.

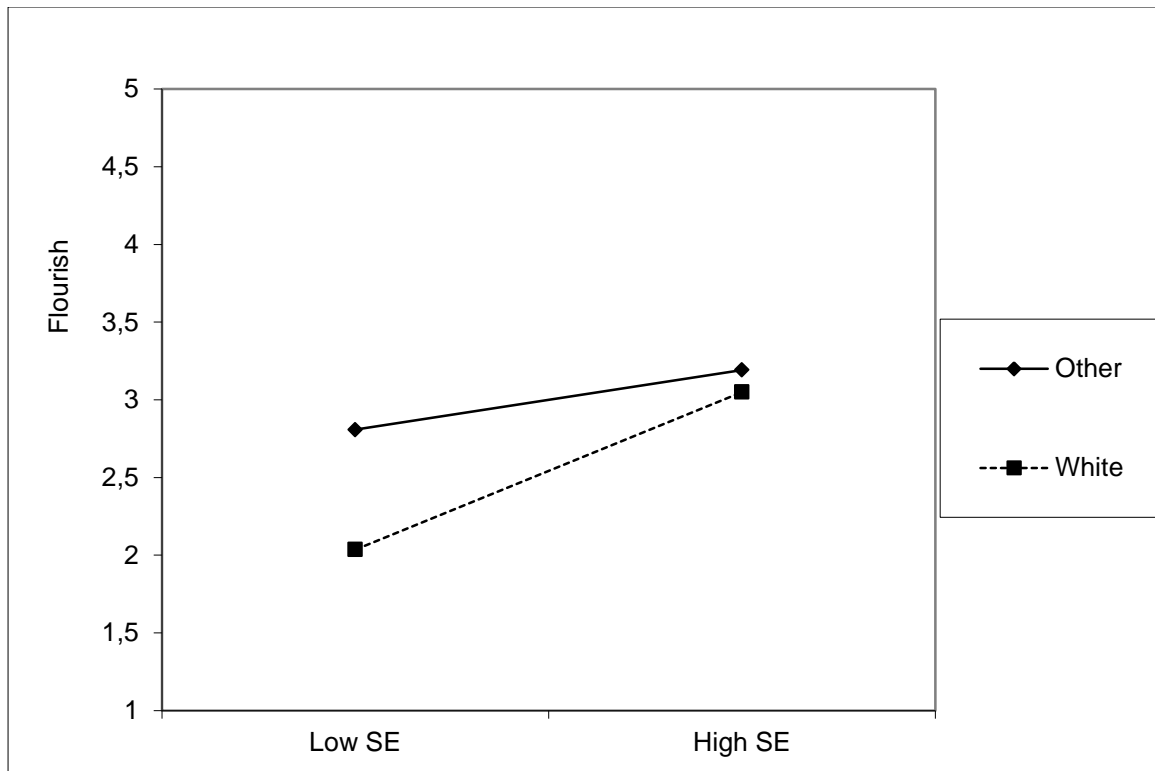


Figure 5.4: A two-way interaction effects for a binary moderator. Race as a moderator between SE and flourishing. The moderator has values of 0 and 1.

Table 5.18

*Interaction (Moderating) Effect between Race and Career Orientations Entrepreneurial Creativity (EC) in Predicting Flourishing*

Variable	Coefficient $\beta$	SE	$t$	$p$	Bootstrap Confidence Interval LLCI	Bootstrap Confidence Interval ULCI	Model info
Constant	5.446	0.053	103.334	0.000	5.342	5.550	
EC	0.275	0.071	3.881	0.000	0.136	0.415	
W1: Coloured	-0.031	0.107	-0.291	0.771	-0.241	0.178	
W2: Indian/Asian	-0.521	0.261	-1.999	0.046	-1.034	-0.009	
W3: White	-0.398	0.140	-2.844	0.005	-0.674	-0.123	

EC X Coloured	0.083	0.156	0.533	0.594	-0.224	0.391	
EC x Indian/Asian	-0.097	0.404	-0.240	0.811	-0.890	0.696	
EC x White	0.401	0.171	2.349	0.019	0.065	0.736	
F							10.234
p							.000
R <sup>2</sup>							.1373
Cohen f <sup>2</sup> (only for significant interaction effect - calculate R <sup>2</sup> /1 - R <sup>2</sup> )							0.159

Note: N = 458. B, regression coefficient; SE, standard errors; t, t-test; p, probability value; R, multiple correlation coefficients; R<sup>2</sup>, proportion variance explained, EC, Entrepreneurial Creativity Flourishing is the dependent variable. \*, Statistically significant ( $p \leq .001$ ); \*\*, Statistically significant ( $p \leq .05$ )

Table 5.18 illustrates the moderation interaction effect of Race on the Career Orientations Entrepreneurial Creativity (EC) variable. The ANOVA analysis indicated that the regression model significantly predicted Flourishing construct ( $t = 3.881$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ). The proportion variance explained (R<sup>2</sup>) for the model was .1373 and F was 10.234. It is clear from table 5.18 that there were statistically significant main interacting effects for the Race groups predictor coloured, Indian/Asian and white race groups (respectively, coloured;  $t = -.291$ ,  $p \leq .771$ ; Indian/Asian  $t = -1.999$ ,  $p \leq .046$ ; white;  $t = -2.844$ ,  $p \leq .005$ ). Therefore, the current model reported f<sup>2</sup> statistics (f<sup>2</sup> = .159), indicated that the moderating effect of Race was medium in practical effect (Cohen et al., 2003).

Table 5.18 indicated that Career Orientations Entrepreneurial Creativity (EC) had a significant positive direct pathway to Race; ( $\beta = .275$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: .136 to .415), (respectively, coloured; ( $\beta = -.031$ ;  $p \leq .771$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: -.241 to .178); Indian/Asian; ( $\beta = -.521$ ;  $p \leq .046$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: -1.034 to -.009); White; ( $\beta = -.398$ ;  $p \leq .005$ ; LLCI – ULCI range did not included zero: -.674 to -.123). The conclusion might imply that EC relate to Race, which in turn related to flourishing.

Figure 5.5 illustrates the nature of the interaction effects, showing participants (Whites) having lower EC scores on Flourishing when compared to other race groups with higher EC scores.

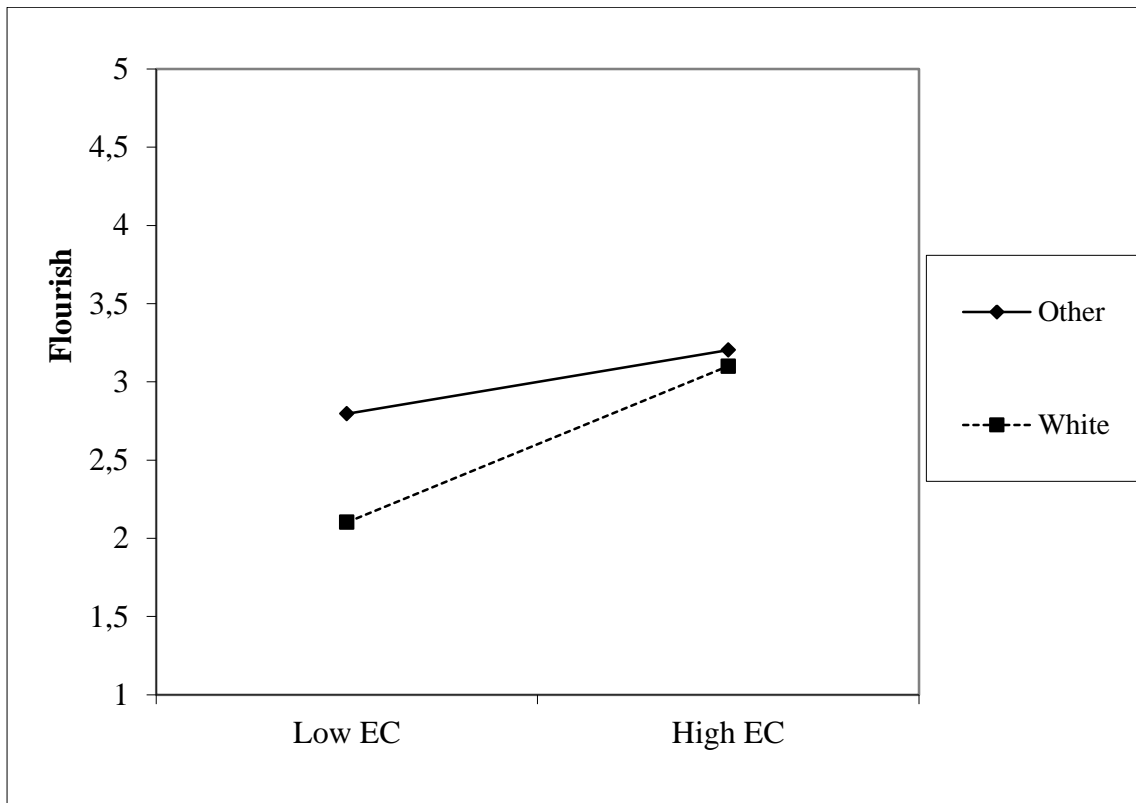


Figure 5.5: A two-way interaction effects for a binary moderator. Race as a moderator between Entrepreneurial Creativity (EC) and flourishing. The moderator has values of 0 and 1.

Table 5.19

Interaction (Moderating) Effect between Race and Career Orientations Service Dedication to a Cause (SV) in Predicting Flourishing

Variable	Coefficient $\beta$	SE	t	p	Bootstrap Confidence Interval LLCI	Bootstrap Confidence Interval ULCI	Model info
Constant	5.445	0.052	105.305	0.000	5.344	5.547	
SV	0.323	0.071	4.578	0.000	0.184	0.462	
W1: Coloured	-0.017	0.105	-0.157	0.876	-0.223	0.190	
W2: Indian/Asian	-0.545	0.251	-2.170	0.031	-1.038	-0.051	
W3: White	-0.404	0.135	-2.992	0.003	-0.669	-0.139	
SV x Coloured	0.107	0.152	0.705	0.482	-0.192	0.406	
SV x Indian/Asian	-0.253	0.419	-0.605	0.546	-1.076	0.569	
SV x White	0.527	0.182	2.895	0.004	0.169	0.885	

<b>F</b>							12.657
<b>p</b>							.000
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>							.165
<b>Cohen f<sup>2</sup> (only for significant interaction effect- calculate R<sup>2</sup>/1 - R<sup>2</sup>)</b>							0.198

Note: N = 458. B, regression coefficient; SE, standard errors; t, t-test; p, probability value; R, multiple correlation coefficients; R<sup>2</sup>, proportion variance explained, SV, Security or Stability, Flourishing is the dependent variable. \*, Statistically significant ( $p \leq .001$ ); \*\*, Statistically significant ( $p \leq .05$ )

Table 5.19 presents the moderation interaction effect of Race on the Career Orientations Service/ Dedication to a Cause (SV) variable. The ANOVA analysis indicated that the regression model significantly predicted Flourishing construct ( $t = 4.578$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ). The proportion variance explained (R<sup>2</sup>) for the model was .165 and F was .12.657. From table 5.19 It can be deduced that there was statistically significant main interacting effects for the Race groups predictor coloured, Indian/Asian and white race groups (respectively, coloured;  $t = -.157$ ,  $p \leq .876$ ; Indian/Asian  $t = -2.170$ ,  $p \leq .031$ ; White;  $t = -2.992$ ,  $p \leq .003$ ).

Therefore, the current model reported f<sup>2</sup> statistics ( $f^2 = .198$ ), indicated that the moderating effect of Race was medium in practical effect (Cohen et al., 2003). Moreover, table 5.19 indicated that Career Orientations Service/ Dedication to a cause (SV) had a significant positive direct pathway to Race; ( $\beta = .323$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: .184 to .462), (respectively, coloured; ( $\beta = -.017$ ;  $p \leq .876$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: -.223 to .190); Indian/Asian; ( $\beta = -.545$ ;  $p \leq .031$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: -1.038 to -.051); White; ( $\beta = -.404$ ;  $p \leq .003$ ; LLCI – ULCI range did not included zero: -.669 to -.139). The conclusion might imply that SV relate to Race, which in turn related to flourishing.

Figure 5.6 indicates that the White race group has lower SV scores in Flourishing, compared to other race groups with similar higher SV scores.

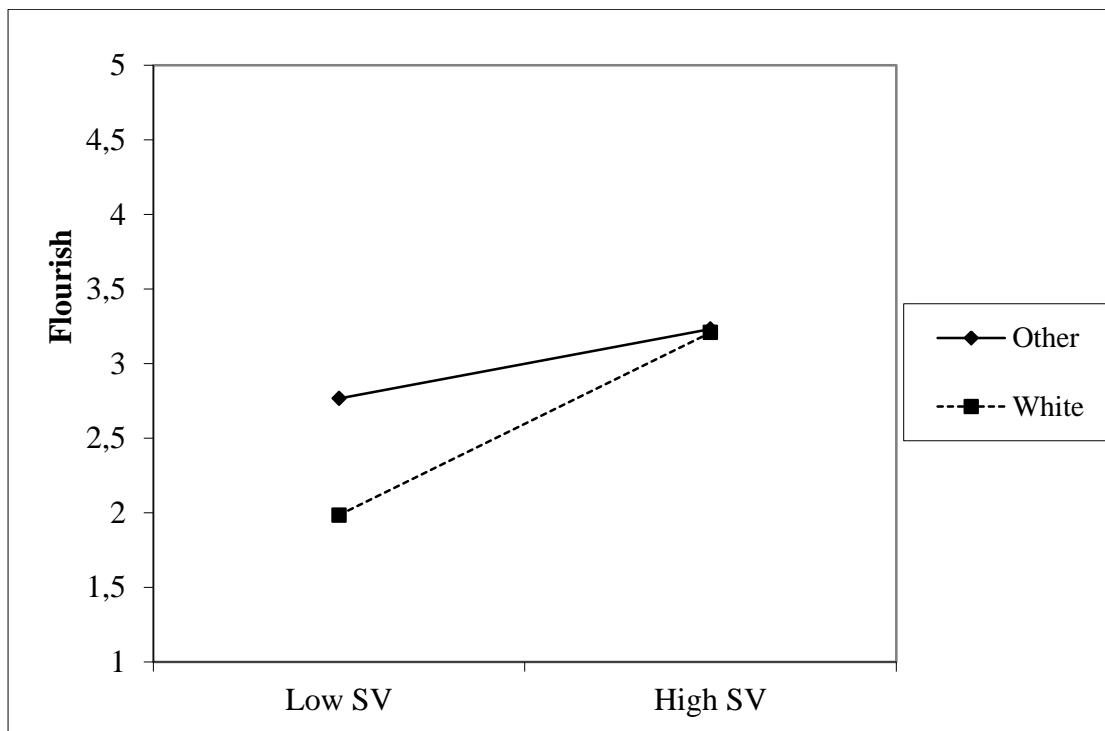


Figure 5.6: A two-way interaction effects for a binary moderator. Race as a moderator between SV and Flourishing. The moderator has values of 0 and 1.

Table 5.20

Interaction (Moderating) Effect between Race and Career Orientations CH in Predicting Flourishing

Variable	Coefficient $\beta$	SE	$t$	$p$	Bootstrap Confidence Interval LLCI	Bootstrap Confidence Interval ULCI	Model info
Constant	5.435	0.052	105.197	0.000	5.333	5.536	
CH	0.366	0.071	5.156	0.000	0.227	0.506	
W1: Coloured	-0.025	0.104	-0.243	0.808	-0.230	0.179	
W2: Indian/Asian	-0.458	0.255	-1.800	0.073	-0.959	0.042	
W3: White	-0.297	0.142	-2.086	0.038	-0.576	-0.017	
CH X Coloured	0.026	0.157	0.165	0.869	-0.283	0.334	
CH x Indian/Asian	0.109	0.366	0.299	0.765	-0.610	0.829	
CH x White	0.465	0.180	2.585	0.010	0.111	0.818	
$F$							13.364
$p$							.000
$R^2$							.172

<b>Cohen <math>f^2</math> (only for significant interaction effect- calculate <math>R^2/1 - R^2</math></b>							0.207
--	--	--	--	--	--	--	-------

Note:  $N = 458$ .  $B$ , regression coefficient;  $SE$ , standard errors;  $t$ ,  $t$ -test;  $p$ , probability value;  $R$ , multiple correlation coefficients;  $R^2$ , proportion variance explained,  $CH$ , Pure Challenge, Flourishing is the dependent variable. \*, Statistically significant ( $p \leq .001$ ); \*\*, statistically significant ( $p \leq .05$ )

Table 5.20 presents the moderation interaction effect of Race on the Career Orientations Pure Change ( $CH$ ) variable. The ANOVA analysis indicated that the regression model significantly predicted Flourishing construct ( $t = 5.156$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ). The proportion variance explained ( $R^2$ ) for the model was .172 and  $F$  was .13.364. It is clear from table 5.20 that there was statistically significant main interacting effects for the Race groups predictor coloured, Indian/Asian and white race groups (respectively, coloured;  $t = -.243$ ,  $p \leq .808$ ; Indian/Asian  $t = -1.800$ ,  $p \leq .073$ ; White;  $t = -2.086$ ,  $p \leq 0.038$ ). Therefore, the current model reported  $f^2$  statistics ( $f^2 = .207$ ), indicated that the moderating effect of Race was medium in practical effect (Cohen et al., 2003).

Table 5.20 indicated that Career Orientations Pure Challenge ( $CH$ ) had a significant positive direct pathway to Race; ( $\beta = .366$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: .227 to .506), (respectively, coloured; ( $\beta = -.025$ ;  $p \leq .808$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: -.223 to .506); Indian/Asian; ( $\beta = -.458$ ;  $p \leq .073$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: -.959 to .042); White; ( $\beta = -.297$ ;  $p \leq .038$ ; LLCI – ULCI range did not included zero: -.576 to -.017). The conclusion might imply that  $CH$  relate to Race, which in turn related to flourishing.

Table 5.21

*Interaction (Moderating) Effect between Race and Career Orientations Life Style (LS) in Predicting Flourishing*

Variable	Coefficient $\beta$	SE	$t$	$p$	Bootstrap Confidence Interval LLCI	Bootstrap Confidence Interval ULCI	Model info
Constant	5.444	0.050	108.653	0.000	5.346	5.543	
LS	0.460	0.067	6.826	0.000	0.327	0.592	
W1: Coloured	-0.059	0.101	-0.587	0.558	-0.257	0.139	
W2: Indian/Asian	-0.394	0.275	-1.434	0.152	-0.934	0.146	
W3: White	-0.400	0.131	-3.054	0.002	-0.657	-0.143	
LS X Coloured	-0.077	0.158	-0.484	0.628	-0.387	0.234	
LS x	0.234	0.588	0.399	0.690	-0.920	1.389	

<b>Indian/Asian</b>							
<b>LS x White</b>	0.454	0.182	2.493	0.013	0.096	0.813	
<b>F</b>							16.819
<b>p</b>							.000
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>							.207
<b>Cohen f<sup>2</sup> (only for significant interaction effect- calculate R<sup>2</sup>/1 - R<sup>2</sup>)</b>							0.261

Note: N = 458. B, regression coefficient; SE, standard errors; t, t-test; p, probability value; R, multiple correlation coefficients; R<sup>2</sup>, proportion variance explained, LS, Life Style, Flourishing is the dependent variable. \*, Statistically significant ( $p \leq .001$ ); \*\*, Statistically significant ( $p \leq .05$ )

Table 5.21 presents the moderation interaction effect of Race on the Career Orientations Life Style (LS) variable. The ANOVA analysis indicated that the regression model significantly predicted Flourishing construct ( $t = 6.826$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ). The proportion variance explained (R<sup>2</sup>) for the model was .207 and F was 16.819. It is clear from table 5.21 that there were statistically significant main interacting effects for the Race groups predictor coloured, Indian/Asian and White race groups (respectively, coloured;  $t = -0.587$ ,  $p \leq .558$ ; Indian/Asian  $t = -1.434$ ,  $p \leq .152$ ; white;  $t = -3.054$ ,  $p \leq 0.002$ ).

Therefore, the current model reported f<sup>2</sup> statistics ( $f^2 = .261$ ), indicated that the moderating effect of Race was medium in practical effect (Cohen et al., 2003). Table 5.21 indicated that Career Orientations Life Style (LS) had a significant positive direct pathway to Race; ( $\beta = .460$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: .327 to .592), (respectively, coloured; ( $\beta = -.059$ ;  $p \leq .558$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: -.257 to .139); Indian/Asian; ( $\beta = -.394$ ;  $p \leq .152$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: -.934 to .146); White; ( $\beta = -.400$ ;  $p \leq .002$ ; LLCI – ULCI range did not included zero: -.657 to -.143). The conclusion might imply that LS relate to Race, which in turn related to flourishing.

Figure 5.7 illustrates that when applying the slope tests and graphic, the nature of the interaction effects with the White race has lower LS scores in Flourishing when compared to other race groups with higher LS scores.



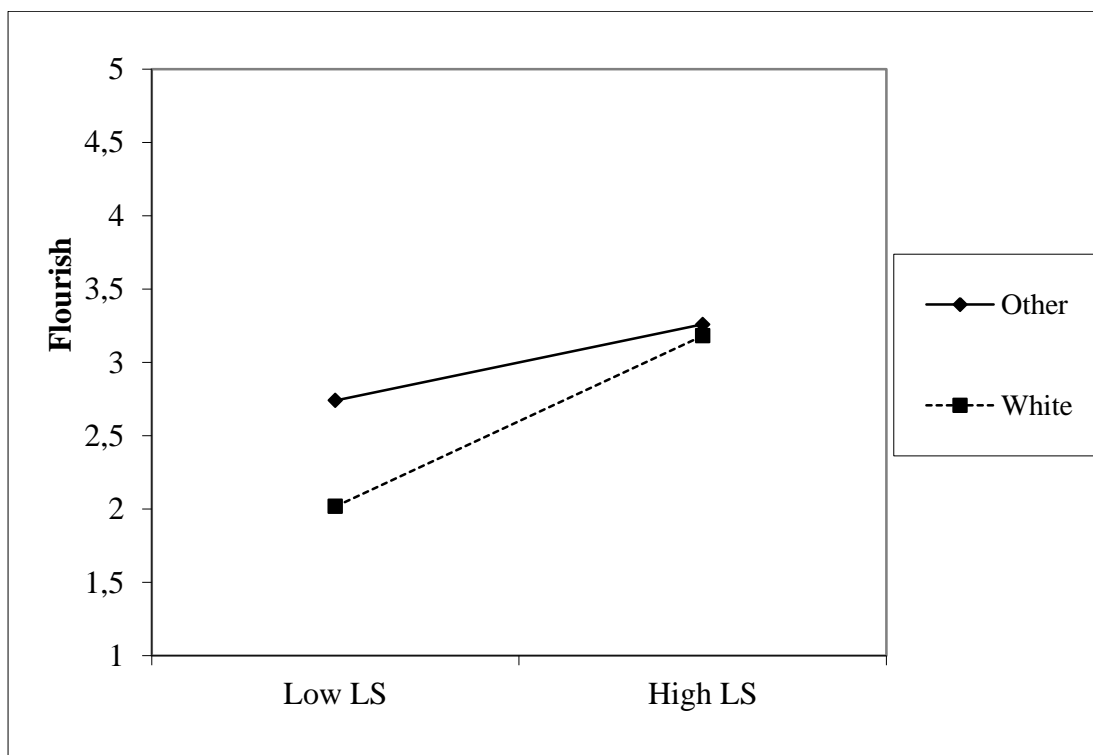


Figure 5.7: A two-way interaction effects for a binary moderator. Race as a moderator between LS and flourishing. The moderator has values of 0 and 1.

Table 5.22

Interaction (Moderating) Effect between Race and Career Orientations in Predicting Flourishing

Variable	Coefficient $\beta$	SE	$t$	$p$	Bootstrap Confidence Interval LLCI	Bootstrap Confidence Interval ULCI	Model info
Constant	5.428	0.050	108.206	0.000	5.329	5.527	
Career Orientations	0.538	0.087	6.210	0.000	0.367	0.708	
W1: Coloured	0.002	0.101	0.015	0.988	-0.197	0.200	
W2: Indian/Asian	-0.428	0.260	-1.645	0.101	-0.940	0.083	
W3: White	-0.280	0.135	-2.077	0.038	-0.545	-0.015	
Career Orientation X : Coloured	0.121	0.188	0.643	0.521	-0.248	0.490	
Career Orientation x Indian/Asian	0.013	0.536	0.024	0.981	-1.041	1.067	
Career Orientation x White	0.653	0.214	3.049	0.002	0.232	1.073	

<b>F</b>							18.027
<b>p</b>							.000
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>							.219
<b>Cohen f<sup>2</sup> (only for significant interaction effect- calculate R<sup>2</sup>/1 - R<sup>2</sup>)</b>							0.280

Note: N = 458. B, regression coefficient; SE, standard errors; t, t-test; p, probability value; R, multiple correlation coefficients; R<sup>2</sup>, proportion variance explained, Flourishing is the dependent variable. \*, Statistically significant ( $p \leq .001$ ); \*\*, Statistically significant ( $p \leq .05$ )

Table 5.22 presents the moderation interaction effect of race on Career Orientations. The ANOVA analysis indicated that the regression model significantly predicted Flourishing construct ( $t = 6.210$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ). The proportion variance explained (R<sup>2</sup>) for the model was .219 and F was .18.027. It is clear from table 5.22 that there were statistically significant main interacting effects for the Race groups predictor coloured, Indian/Asian and White race groups (respectively, coloured;  $t = .015$ ,  $p \leq .988$ ; Indian/Asian  $t = -1.645$ ,  $p \leq .101$ ; white;  $t = -2.077$ ,  $p \leq .038$ ). Therefore, the current model reported f<sup>2</sup> statistics ( $f^2 = .280$ ), indicated that the moderating effect of Race was medium in practical effect (Cohen et al., 2003).

Furthermore, above table 5.22 indicated that overall Career Orientations had a significant positive direct pathway to Race; ( $\beta = .538$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: .367 to .708), (respectively, coloured; ( $\beta = .002$ ;  $p \leq .988$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: -.197 to .200); Indian/Asian; ( $\beta = -.428$ ;  $p \leq .101$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: -.940 to .083); White; ( $\beta = -.280$ ;  $p \leq .038$ ; LLCI – ULCI range included zero: -.545 to -.015). The conclusion implies that overall Career Orientations relate to Race, which in turn related to flourishing.

Table 5.23

*Interaction (Moderating) Effect between Race and Organisational Commitment Factor of Affective in Predicting Flourishing*

Variable	Coefficient $\beta$	SE	t	p	Bootstrap Confidence Interval LLCI	Bootstrap Confidence Interval ULCI	Model info
Constant	5.468	0.051	106.750	0.000	5.368	5.569	
Affective	0.198	0.052	3.814	0.000	0.096	0.301	
W1: Coloured	-0.112	0.103	-1.090	0.276	-0.314	0.090	

<b>W2: Indian/Asian</b>	-0.314	0.277	-1.133	0.258	-0.859	0.231	
<b>W3: White</b>	-0.485	0.131	-3.697	0.000	-0.742	-0.227	
<b>Affective X : Coloured</b>	0.131	0.107	1.231	0.219	-0.078	0.341	
<b>Affective x Indian/Asian</b>	0.505	0.341	1.481	0.139	-0.165	1.175	
<b>Affective x White</b>	0.476	0.142	3.351	0.001	0.197	0.756	
<b>F</b>							12.751
<b>p</b>							.000
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>							.166
<b>Cohen f<sup>2</sup> (only for significant interaction effect- calculate R<sup>2</sup>/1 - R<sup>2</sup>)</b>							0.199

Note: N = 458. B, regression coefficient; SE, standard errors; t, t-test; p, probability value; R, multiple correlation coefficients; R<sup>2</sup>, proportion variance explained, Flourishing is the dependent variable. \*, Statistically significant ( $p \leq .001$ ); \*\*, statistically significant ( $p \leq .05$ )

Table 5.23 presents the moderation interaction effect of race on Organisational Affective Commitment. The ANOVA analysis indicated that the regression model significantly predicted Flourishing construct ( $t = 3.814$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ). The proportion variance explained (R<sup>2</sup>) for the model was .166 and F was 12.751. It is clear from table 5.23 that there were statistically significant main interacting effects for the race groups predictor coloured, Indian/Asian and white race groups (respectively, coloured;  $t = -1.090$ ,  $p \leq .276$ ; Indian/Asian  $t = -1.133$ ,  $p \leq .258$ ; white;  $t = -3.697$ ,  $p \leq .000$ ).

Therefore, the current model reported f<sup>2</sup> statistics ( $f^2 = .199$ ), indicated that the moderating effect of Race was medium in practical effect (Cohen et al., 2003). Table 5.23 indicated that overall Organisational Commitment Affective had a significant positive direct pathway to Race; ( $\beta = .198$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: .096 to .301), (respectively, coloured; ( $\beta = -.112$ ;  $p \leq .276$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: -.314 to .090); Indian/Asian; ( $\beta = -.314$ ;  $p \leq .258$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: -.859 to .231); White; ( $\beta = -.485$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ; LLCI – ULCI range did not included zero: -.742 to -.227). The conclusion implies that Affective commitment relate to Race, which in turn related to flourishing.

Figure 5.8 indicates that the White race group has lower affective commitment scores in Flourishing, compared to other race groups with higher Affective commitment scores.

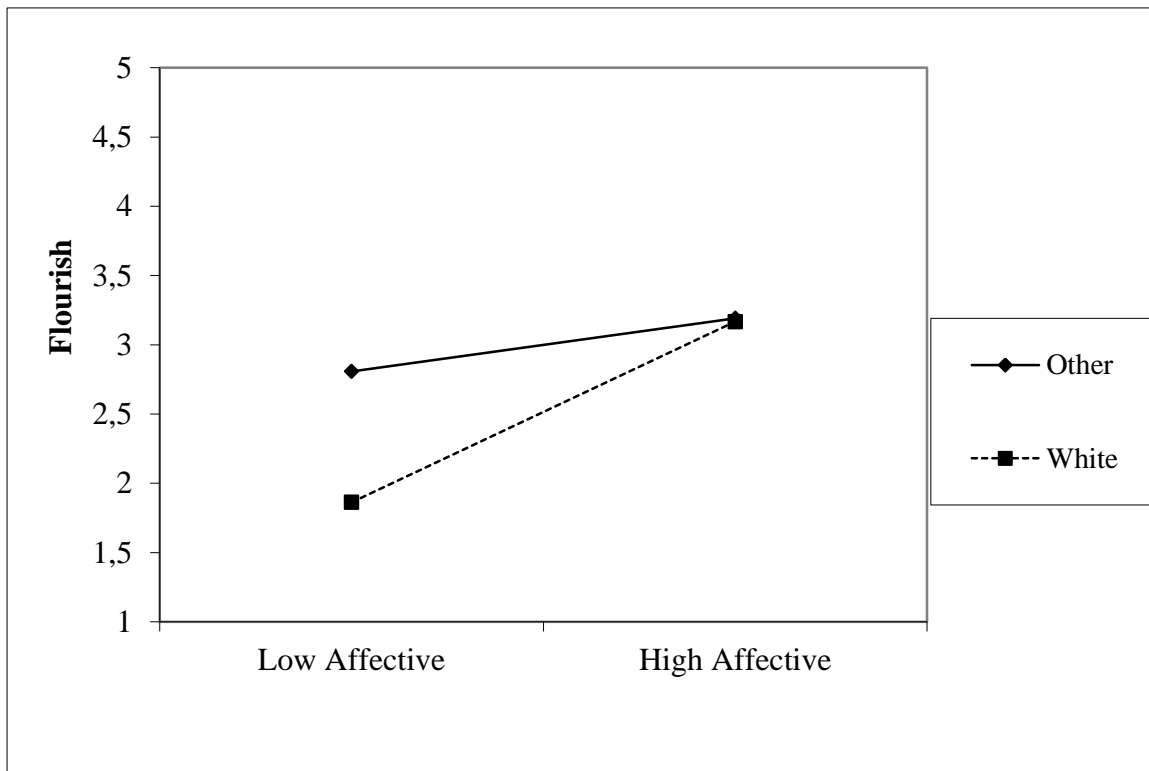


Figure 5.8: A two-way interaction effects for a binary moderator. Race as a moderator between the Organisational Commitment Variable of Affective and flourishing. The moderators have values of 0 and 1.

Table 5.24

Interaction (Moderating) Effect between Race and Organisational Commitment Factor of Continuance in Predicting Flourishing

Variable	Coefficient $\beta$	SE	t	p	Bootstrap Confidence Interval LLCI	Bootstrap Confidence Interval ULCI	Model info
Constant	5.456	0.050	108.977	0.000	5.357	5.554	
Continuance	0.336	0.052	6.500	0.000	0.234	0.437	
W1: Coloured	-0.089	0.100	-0.887	0.376	-0.287	0.108	
W2: Indian/Asian	-0.467	0.254	-1.842	0.066	-0.966	0.031	
W3: White	-0.451	0.130	-3.455	0.001	-0.707	-0.194	
Affective X : Coloured	0.052	0.109	0.475	0.635	-0.163	0.266	
Affective x Indian/Asian	-0.024	0.260	-0.091	0.928	-0.535	0.488	

<b>Affective White</b>	<b>x</b>	0.344	0.153	2.248	0.025	0.043	0.645	
<b>F</b>								16.518
<b>p</b>								.000
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>								.204
<b>Cohen f<sup>2</sup> (only for significant interaction effect- calculate R<sup>2</sup>/1 - R<sup>2</sup>)</b>								.256

Note: N = 458. B, regression coefficient; SE, standard errors; t, t-test; p, probability value; R, multiple correlation coefficients; R<sup>2</sup>, proportion variance explained, Flourishing is the dependent variable. \*, Statistically significant ( $p \leq .001$ ); \*\*, Statistically significant ( $p \leq .05$ )

Table 5.24 presents the moderation interaction effect of race on Organisational Commitment Continuance. The ANOVA analysis indicated that the regression model significantly predicted Flourishing construct ( $t = 6.500$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ). The proportion variance explained (R<sup>2</sup>) for the model was .204 and F was .16.518. It is clear from table 5.24 that there were statistically significant main interacting effects for the Race groups predictor coloured, Indian/Asian and white race groups (respectively, coloured;  $t = -.887$ ,  $p \leq .376$ ; Indian/Asian  $t = -1.645$ ,  $p \leq .066$ ; White;  $t = -3.455$ ,  $p \leq .001$ ). Therefore, the current model reported f<sup>2</sup> statistics (f<sup>2</sup> = .256), indicated that the moderating effect of Race was medium in practical effect (Cohen et al., 2003).

Furthermore, table 5.24 indicated that Organisational Commitment Continuance had a significant positive direct pathway to Race; ( $\beta = .336$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: .234 to .437), (respectively, coloured; ( $\beta = -.089$ ;  $p \leq .376$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: -.287 to .108); Indian/Asian; ( $\beta = -.467$ ;  $p \leq .066$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: -.966 to .031); White; ( $\beta = -.451$ ;  $p \leq .001$ ; LLCI – ULCI range did not included zero: -.707 to -.194). The conclusion implies that Continuance relate to Race, which in turn related to flourishing.

Figure 5.9 is an indication of the white participants with higher Organisational Commitment Continuance scores in Flourishing compared to other Race groups with higher Continuance scores.

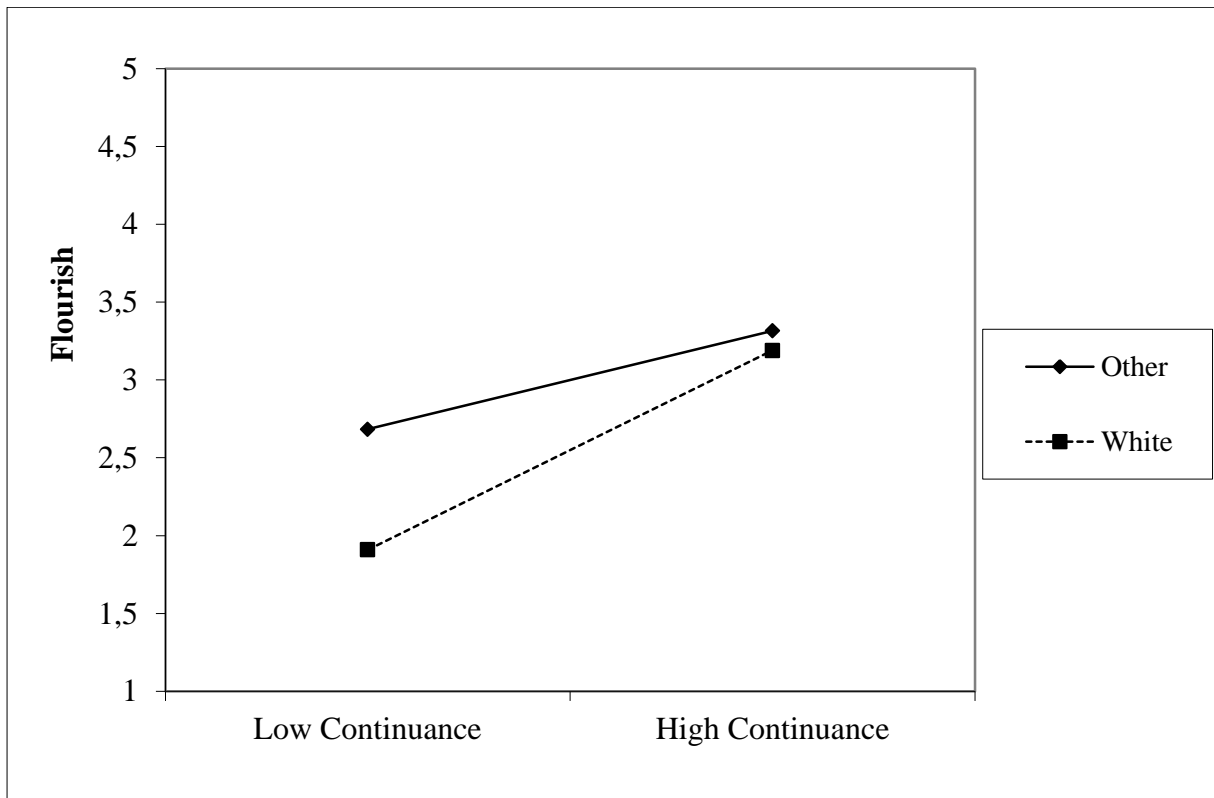


Figure 5.9: A two-way interaction effects for a binary moderator. Race as a moderator between the Organisational Commitment Variable of Affective and Flourishing. The moderators have values of 0 and 1.

Table 5.25

Interaction (Moderating) Interaction (Moderating) Effect between Race and Organisational Commitment in Predicting Flourishing

Variable	Coefficient $\beta$	SE	t	p	Bootstrap Confidence Interval LLCI	Bootstrap Confidence Interval ULCI	Model info
Constant	5.447	0.049	110.989	0.000	5.351	5.544	
Organisational Commitment	0.425	0.060	7.031	0.000	0.306	0.544	
W1: Coloured	-0.067	0.098	-0.683	0.495	-0.261	0.126	
W2: Indian/Asian	-0.299	0.273	-1.092	0.275	-0.835	0.239	
W3: White	-0.442	0.127	-3.480	0.001	-0.691	-0.192	
Affective X : Coloured	0.145	0.126	1.144	0.253	-0.104	0.393	

<b>Affective x Indian/Asian</b>	0.275	0.380	0.725	0.469	-0.471	1.022	
<b>Affective x White</b>	0.323	0.157	2.053	0.041	0.014	0.631	
<b>F</b>							20.082
<b>p</b>							.000
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>							.238
<b>Cohen f<sup>2</sup> (only for significant interaction effect- calculate R<sup>2</sup>/1 - R<sup>2</sup>)</b>							.312

Note: N = 458. B, regression coefficient; SE, standard errors; t, t-test; p, probability value; R, multiple correlation coefficients; R<sup>2</sup>, proportion variance explained, Flourishing is the dependent variable. \*, Statistically significant ( $p \leq .001$ ); \*\*, statistically significant ( $p \leq .05$ )

Table 5.25 indicates the moderation interaction effect of race on Organisational Commitment. The ANOVA analysis indicated that the regression model significantly predicted Flourishing construct ( $t = 7.031$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ). The proportion variance explained (R<sup>2</sup>) for the model was .238 and F was 20.082. It is clear from table 5.25 that there were statistically significant main interacting effects for the Race groups predictor coloured, Indian/Asian and White race groups (respectively, coloured;  $t = -.683$ ,  $p \leq .495$ ; Indian/Asian  $t = -1.092$ ,  $p \leq .275$ ; white;  $t = -3.480$ ,  $p \leq .001$ ). Therefore, the current model reported f<sup>2</sup> statistics ( $f^2 = .312$ ), indicated that the moderating effect of Race was medium in practical effect (Cohen et al., 2003). However, no significant interaction terms were found between race groups and other predictor variables in the model.

Table 5.25 indicated that overall Organisational Commitment had a significant positive direct pathway to Race; ( $\beta = .425$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: .306 to .544), (respectively, coloured; ( $\beta = -.067$ ;  $p \leq .495$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: -.261 to .126); Indian/Asian; ( $\beta = -.299$ ;  $p \leq .275$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: -.835 to .239); White; ( $\beta = -.442$ ;  $p \leq .001$ ; LLCI – ULCI range did not included zero: -.691 to -.192). The conclusion implies that Continuance relate to Race, which in turn related to flourishing.

#### 5.4.3.3 Gender as a moderator

The scored results of gender were at an acceptable level and illustrate that the moderated regression analysis of gender has no influence on the relationship between the dispositional variables of positive affect, negative affect and other seven (7) career orientations and organisational commitment variables of affective, continuance and normative with flourishing, respectively, as tabled below.

Table 5.26

*Interaction (Moderating) Effect between Gender and Career Orientations General Management (GM) in Predicting Flourishing*

Variable	Coefficient $\beta$	SE	t	p	Bootstrap Confidence Interval LLCI	Bootstrap Confidence Interval ULCI	Model info
Constant	5.287	0.060	87.898	0.000	5.169	5.405	
GM	0.566	0.084	6.736	0.000	0.401	0.731	
W1: Male	0.132	0.083	1.587	0.113	-0.032	0.296	
GM X Male	-0.239	0.118	-2.021	0.044	-0.471	-0.007	
F							21.131
p							.000
R <sup>2</sup>							.123
Cohen f <sup>2</sup> (only for significant interaction effect-calculate R <sup>2</sup> /1 - R <sup>2</sup> )							0.140

Note: N = 458. B, regression coefficient; SE, standard errors; t, t-test; p, probability value; R, multiple correlation coefficients; R<sup>2</sup>, proportion variance explained, GM, General Management, Flourishing is the dependent variable. \*, Statistically significant ( $p \leq .001$ ); \*\*, statistically significant ( $p \leq .05$ )

Table 5.26 presents the moderation interaction effect of Gender on Career Orientations (GM). The ANOVA analysis indicated that the regression model significantly predicted Flourishing construct ( $t = 6.736$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ). The proportion variance explained (R<sup>2</sup>) for the model was .123 and F was 21.131. It is clear from table 5.26 above that there were some significant interacting effects for the Gender predictor male group;  $t = 6.736$ ,  $p \leq .0001$ . Therefore, the current model reported f<sup>2</sup> statistics ( $f^2 = .140$ ), indicated that the moderating effect of Gender was medium in practical effect (Cohen et al., 2003). Table 5.26 indicated that overall Career Orientations GM had a significant positive direct pathway to Gender; ( $\beta = .566$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: .401 to .731), (respectively, Male; ( $\beta = .132$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: -.032 to .296); The conclusion implies that Career Orientations GM relate to Gender which in turn related to flourishing.

Figure 5.10 is an indication of the male participants with higher GM scores in Flourishing compared to other gender groups with higher GM scores.



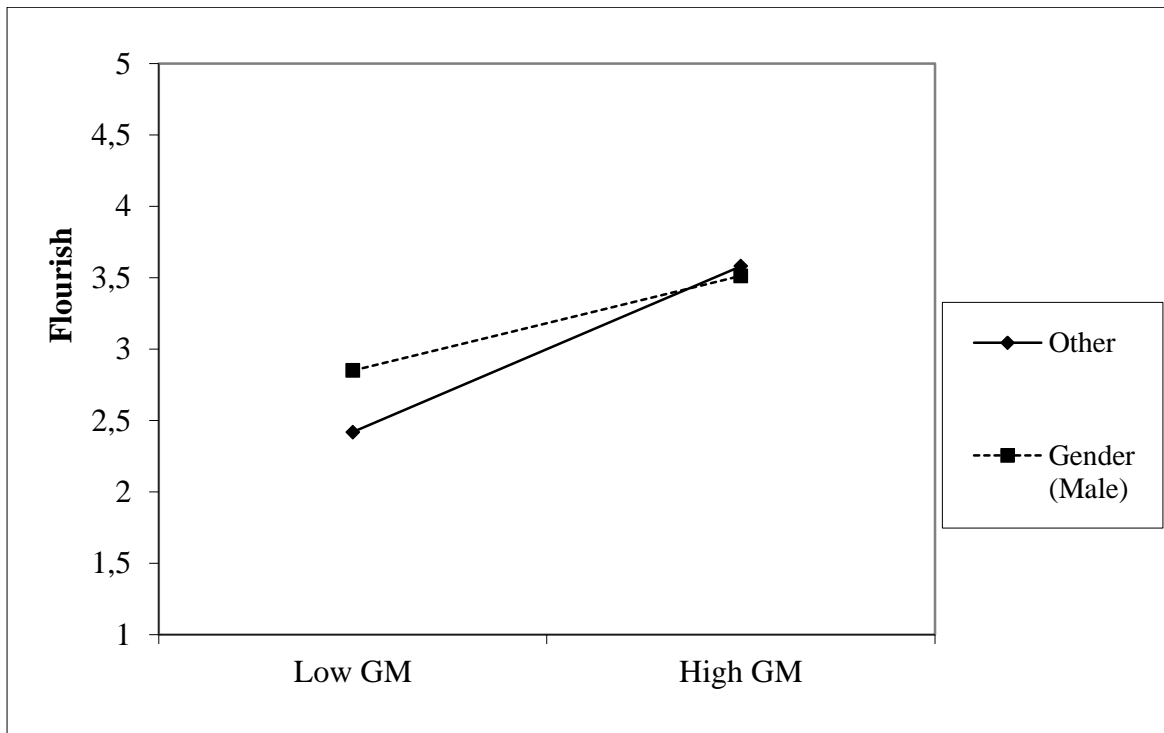


Figure 5.10: A two-way interaction effects for a binary moderator. Race as a moderator between the Career Orientation construct variable of General Management and flourishing. The moderators have values of 0 and 1.

#### 5.4.3.4 Years of Service as a moderator

There were some significant differences in Years of Service that acted as a significant moderating variable. The results are reported below.

Table 5.27

*Interaction (Moderating) Effect between Years of Service and Career Orientation Autonomy in Predicting Flourishing*

Variable	Coefficient $\beta$	SE	t	p	Bootstrap Confidence Interval LLCI	Bootstrap Confidence Interval ULCI	Model info
Constant	4.153	0.369	11.269	0.000	3.429	4.878	
Autonomy	-0.824	0.550	-1.499	0.135	-1.904	0.257	
W1: More than 2 but less than 5 years	1.056	0.394	2.679	0.008	0.282	1.831	
W2: More than 5 but less than 10	1.212	0.376	3.226	0.001	0.474	1.950	

<b>years</b>							
<b>W3: More than 10 but less than 15 years</b>	1.239	0.378	3.281	0.001	0.497	1.980	
<b>W4: More than 15 but less than 20 years</b>	1.206	0.380	3.174	0.002	0.459	1.953	
<b>W5: More than 20 years</b>	1.375	0.395	3.482	0.001	0.599	2.150	
<b>Autonomy X : More than 2 but less than 5 years</b>	1.072	0.582	1.841	0.066	-0.072	2.217	
<b>Autonomy X : More than 5 but less than 10 years</b>	1.091	0.561	1.946	0.052	-0.011	2.193	
<b>Autonomy X : More than 10 but less than 15 years</b>	1.443	0.565	2.553	0.011	0.332	2.554	
<b>Autonomy x More than 15 but less than 20 years</b>	1.457	0.565	2.580	0.010	0.347	2.567	
<b>Autonomy x More than 20 years</b>	1.072	0.566	1.896	0.059	-0.039	2.184	
<b>F</b>							6.372
<b>p</b>							.000
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>							.136
<b>Cohen f<sup>2</sup> (only for significant interaction effect- calculate R<sup>2</sup>/1 - R<sup>2</sup>)</b>							0.157

Note: N = 458. B, regression coefficient; SE, standard errors; t, t-test; p, probability value; R, multiple correlation coefficients; R<sup>2</sup>, proportion variance explained, A, Autonomy Flourishing is the dependent variable. \*, Statistically significant ( $p \leq .001$ ); \*\*, Statistically significant ( $p \leq .05$ )

Table 5.27 presents the moderation interaction effect of Career Orientations Autonomy on Years of Services. The ANOVA analysis indicated that the regression model significantly predicted Flourishing construct ( $t = -1.499$ ;  $p \leq .135$ ). The proportion variance explained (R<sup>2</sup>) for the model was .136 and F was 6.372. It is clear from table 5.27 that there were statistically significant main interacting effects for the Years of Services (respectively, More than 2 but less than 5 years,  $t = 2.679$ ;  $p \leq .008$ ; More than 5 but less than 10 years,  $t =$

3.226;  $p \leq .001$ ; More than 10 but less than 15 years;  $t = 3.281$ ;  $p \leq .001$ ; More than 15 but less than 20 years;  $t = 3.174$ ;  $p \leq 0.002$ ; More than 20 years;  $t = 3.482$ ;  $p \leq .001$ ).

Therefore, the current model reported  $f^2$  statistics ( $f^2 = .157$ ), indicated that the moderating effect of Years of Services was medium in practical effect (Cohen et al., 2003). Therefore, there was significant interaction found between Years of Services and the predictor variables in the model. Table 5.27 indicated that Career Orientation Autonomy in Predicting Flourishing had a significant positive direct pathway to Years of Service; ( $\beta = -.824$ ;  $p \leq .135$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: -1.904 to .257), (respectively, More than 2 but less than 5 years; ( $\beta = 1.056$ ;  $p \leq .008$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: -.282 to 1.831); More than 5 but less than 10 years; ( $\beta = 1.212$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: 0.474 to 1.950); More than 10 but less than 15 years; ( $\beta = 1.239$ ;  $p \leq .001$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: .497 to 1.980); More than 15 but less than 20 years; ( $\beta = 1.206$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: 0.459 to 1.953); More than 20 years; ( $\beta = .132$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: -.032 to .296); The conclusion implies that Career Orientations Autonomy to Years of Services which in turn related to flourishing.

Figure 5.11 illustrates that when applying the slope tests and graphic, the nature of the interaction effects for participants on Years of Service (More than 10 but less than 15 years) category have higher Autonomy in Flourishing as compared to other race groups with lower Autonomy scores.

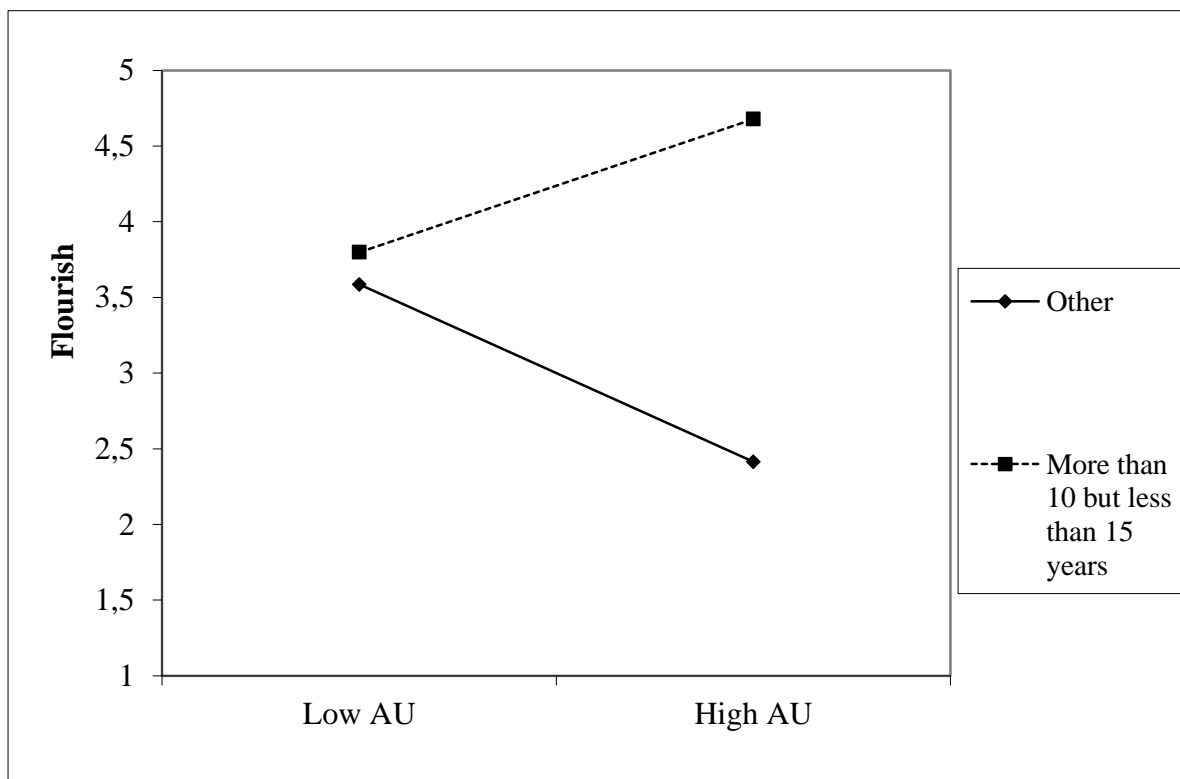


Figure 5.11: A two-way interaction effects for a binary moderator. Years of Service as a moderator between the Career Orientation construct variable of Autonomy and flourishing. The moderators have values of 0 and 1.

Table 5.28

*Interaction (Moderating) Effect between Years of Service and Organisational Commitment Affective in Predicting Flourishing*

Variable	Coefficient $\beta$	SE	t	p	Bootstrap Confidence Interval LLCI	Bootstrap Confidence Interval ULCI	Model info
Constant	4.136	0.404	10.229	0.000	3.341	4.931	
Affective	-0.573	0.536	-1.069	0.286	-1.627	0.481	
W1: More than 2 but less than 5 years	1.102	0.427	2.580	0.010	0.262	1.941	
W2: More than 5 but less than 10 years	1.229	0.411	2.994	0.003	0.422	2.037	
W3: More than 10 but less than 15 years	1.201	0.413	2.911	0.004	0.390	2.012	

<b>W4: More than 15 but less than 20 years</b>	1.225	0.415	2.953	0.003	0.410	2.040	
<b>W5:More than 20 years</b>	1.437	0.430	3.347	0.001	0.593	2.281	
<b>Affective X : More than 2 but less than 5 years</b>	0.860	0.556	1.546	0.123	-0.233	1.952	
<b>Affective X : More than 5 but less than 10 years</b>	0.790	0.542	1.459	0.145	-0.274	1.854	
<b>Affective X : More than 10 but less than 15 years</b>	0.910	0.543	1.676	0.095	-0.157	1.978	
<b>Affective x More than 15 but less than 20 years</b>	1.112	0.545	2.039	0.042	0.040	2.183	
<b>Autonomy x More than 20 years</b>	0.752	0.552	1.362	0.174	-0.333	1.836	
<b>F</b>							6.577
<b>p</b>							.000
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>							.139
<b>Cohen f<sup>2</sup> (only for significant interaction effect-calculate R<sup>2</sup>/1 - R<sup>2</sup>)</b>							0.122

Note: N = 458. B, regression coefficient; SE, standard errors; t, t-test; p, probability value; R, multiple correlation coefficients; R<sup>2</sup>, proportion variance explained, Flourishing is the dependent variable. \*, Statistically significant ( $p \leq .001$ ); \*\*, Statistically significant ( $p \leq .05$ )

Table 5.28 presents the moderation interaction effect of Years of Services on Organisational Commitment Affection. The ANOVA analysis indicated that the regression model significantly predicted Flourishing construct ( $t = -1.069$ ;  $p \leq .286$ ). The proportion variance explained (R<sup>2</sup>) for the model was .139 and F was 6.577. It is clear from table 5.28 that there were statistically significant main interacting effects for the Years of Services (respectively, More than 2 but less than 5 years,  $t = -1.499$ ;  $p \leq 0.135$ ; More than 5 but less than 10 years,  $t = -1.499$ ;  $p \leq 0.135$ ; More than 10 but less than 15 years;  $t = -1.499$ ;  $p \leq 0.135$ ; More than 15 but less than 20 years; More than 20 years). Therefore, the current model reported f<sup>2</sup> statistics (f<sup>2</sup> = .122), indicated that the moderating effect of Years of Services was medium in

practical effect (Cohen et al., 2003). Therefore, there was significant interaction found between Years of Services and the predictor variables.

Table 5.28 indicated that Organisational Commitment Affective in Predicting Flourishing had a significant positive direct pathway to Years of Service; ( $\beta = -0.573$ ;  $p \leq 0.286$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: -1.627 to .481), (respectively, More than 2 but less than 5 years; ( $\beta = 1.102$ ;  $p \leq .010$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: 0.262 to 1.941); More than 5 but less than 10 years; ( $\beta = 1.229$ ;  $p \leq .003$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: 0.422 to 2.037); More than 10 but less than 15 years; ( $\beta = 1.201$ ;  $p \leq .004$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: 0.390 to 2.012); More than 15 but less than 20 years; ( $\beta = 1.225$ ;  $p \leq .003$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: 0.410 to 2.040); More than 20 years; ( $\beta = 1.437$ ;  $p \leq .001$ ; LLCI – ULCI range: 0.593 to 2.281); The conclusion implies that Affective relate to Years of Services which in turn related to flourishing.

Figure 5.12 illustrates the interaction of participants' Years of Service (More than 15 but less than 20 years) category with low Affective commitment scores in Flourishing when compared to other race groups with higher Affective commitment scores.

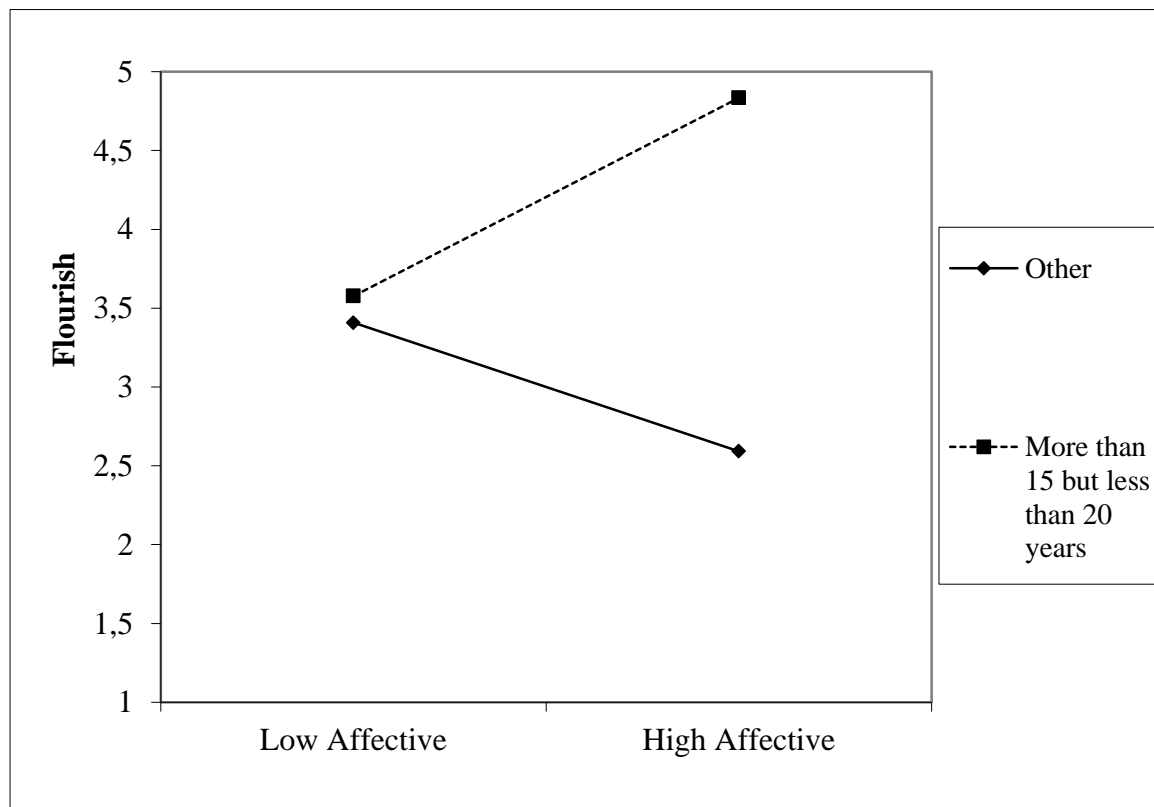


Figure 5.12: A two-way interaction effects for a binary moderator. Years of Service as a moderator between the Organisational Commitment variable of Affective Commitment and flourishing. The moderators have values of 0 and 1.

#### 5.4.3.5 Rank level as a moderator

There was no significant mean and differences in observed effects of junior leaders' rank levels. This implies that the rank levels do not act as significant moderators for the relationship between the dispositional attributes construct variables and the flourishing construct variable, and will therefore not be reported.

Table 5.29

*Summary of the Significant Moderating Effects Between the Dispositional Attributes and Flourishing Attribute that Acted as Significant Moderators*

<b>Dispositional attributes</b>	<b>Moderator: Age</b>	<b>Flourishing</b>
Career orientations: AU GM	Age Age	Flourishing
	<b>Race</b>	
Career Orientations: AU SE LS SV GM EC	Race	Flourishing
Organisational Commitment: Affective Continuance	Race	Flourishing
	<b>Years of Service</b>	
Career Orientations: AU	Years of Service	Flourishing
Organisational Commitment: Affective	Years of Service	Flourishing

#### **Preliminary analysis 3: The development of a psychological well-being profile.**

Based on the results, the current hierarchical moderated regression model was relevant:

**Model 1: Age, race, gender, and years of service variables acted as the main significant moderators between dispositional attributes and the flourishing attribute.**

In conclusion, the empirical results from the moderated regression analysis provided some supportive evidence for the current research hypothesis Ha5 in terms of age, race, gender, years of service, and rank: The biographical variables (age, race, gender, and years of service) were significant moderators of the relationship between the independent variables (dispositional constructs attributes) and the dependent variable (flourishing construct attribute). Even though the current hierarchical moderated regression analysis indicates practical evidences, there were no effects (moderating) between the key biographical information of rank levels and dispositional and flourishing constructs variable attributes.

A multiple regression analysis was applied as a preliminary step in identifying the most significant predictors of flourishing. This was followed by the hierarchical moderated regression analysis aimed at establishing the level to which biographical, demographic, or socio-demographic information variates functioned as significant moderators in explaining the variance in the dispositional and flourishing attributes. Moreover, the hierarchical moderated regression analysis results indicated that the main effects were evident, but there were no interaction (moderating) effects between the key biographical and socio-demographic variable of rank levels in prediction of flourishing.

Therefore, the current results indicate that when developing a psychological well-being profile, it is important to consider these main effects of age, race, gender, and years of service, as they would be crucial in determining and predicting how junior leaders flourish in the department. Following is the discussion on the Mean differences results for more than one test. In conclusion, the empirical results attained from the moderated regression analysis provide supportive evidence for the acceptance of research hypothesis H4 in terms of age and race:

***Biographical information of age, race, gender, years of service, and rank moderate the relationship between the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).***

#### **5.4.4 Reporting on the tests' significant mean differences**

This section involves stage 4 of the inferential statistical analysis. The Kruskal-Wallis test was applied to detect any significant mean differences between the biographical information categories that acted as the sub-groups to reach research aim 6:



*There are significant differences between sub-groups of the biographical information that acted as significant moderators between the independent dispositional attributes and dependent flourishing attribute.*

Considering the above test results, the test for significant mean differences was conducted in terms of age, race, gender, years of service, and rank in relation to their scores on positive and negative affect, career orientations, organisational commitment, and flourishing constructs. In the current study, the Shapiro-Wilk, Kolmogorov-Smirnov,(KS) Cramer-von Mises and Anderson-Darling tests were relevant, based on the non-normality of the data distribution (the  $p$ -value was greater than the chosen alpha level). Following in this section, it is appropriate to only report on the variances between variables that were found to be significant.

The results indicated that the non-parametric method Kruskal-Wallis H test was applicable to assess the significant differences between biographical information (age, race, gender, years of service and rank) in relation to the dispositional attributes and the Flourishing attribute. The Kruskal-Wallis H was therefore relevant if the dependant variable is either interval/ratio scale or ordinal (Rovia et al., 2013). It is performed by comparing the ranked totals of multiple independent groups (Rovia et al., 2013). This section indicates the variances between the biographical variables that were found to be significant. Table 5.30 is a summary and discussion of these test results.

Table 5.30

*Results of the Kruskal-wallis Test for Age: Dispositional Attributes and Flourishing*

Variable	Category	N	Mean	SD	Chi-Square	df	p
Positive Affect	26 - 35	219	228.20	1404.93	3.49	3	0001
	36 - 45	150	219.09	1319.94	3.49	3	
	46 - 65	57	256.08	928.42	3.49	3	
Negative Affect	26 - 35	219	220.56	1410.95	3.39	3	001
	36 - 45	150	245.64	1325.60	3.49	3	
	46 - 65	57	225.31	932.40	3.49	3	
Career	26 - 35	219	222.18	1414.76	2.02	3	0001

Orientations	36 - 45	150	235.41	1329.18	2.02	3	
	46 - 65	57	246.47	934.92	2.02	3	
Organisational Commitment	26 - 35	219	216.34	1414.57	4.43	3	0001
	36 - 45	150	239.77	1329.00	4.43	3	
	46 - 65	57	249.34	934.79	4.43	3	
Flourishing	26 - 35	219	231.30	1413.67	2.48	3	0001
	36 - 45	150	225.46	1328.15	2.48	3	
	46 - 65	57	247.69	934.19	2.48	3	

Note:  $N = 458$ ; 95% Confidence limit;  $***p \leq .0001$

Table 5.30 indicates that significant differences were observed on positive and negative affect, career orientations, organisational commitment and flourishing across the biographical age group categories. In terms of positive affect, age groups 26 - 35 ( $M = 228.20$ ;  $SD = 1404.93$ ;  $df = .03$ ) and 36 - 45 ( $M = 219.09$ ;  $SD = 1319.94$ ;  $df = .03$ ) scores were significantly lower than those for the 46 - 65 group ( $M = 256.08$ ;  $SD = 928.42$ ;  $df = .03$ ) (small practical effect size). In terms of negative affect, age groups 26 - 35 ( $M = 2.56$ ;  $SD = 1410.95$ ;  $df = .03$ ) and 46 - 65 ( $M = 225.31$ ;  $SD = 9.40$ ;  $df = .03$ , small practical effect size) scores were significantly lower than those of the 36 - 45 group ( $M = 245.64$ ;  $SD = 1325.60$ ;  $df = .03$ , small practical in size).

In terms of Career Orientations, biographical age group 26 - 35 ( $M = 222.18$ ;  $SD = 1414.76$ ;  $df = .03$ ) and age group 36 - 45 ( $M = 235.41$ ;  $SD = 1329.18$ ;  $df = .03$ ) scores were significantly lower than those reported for the 46 - 65 group ( $M = 246.47$ ;  $SD = 934.92$ ;  $df = .03$ , small practical effect size).

In terms of Organisational Commitment, age groups 26 - 35 ( $M = 216.34$ ;  $SD = 1414.57$ ;  $df = .03$ ) and 36 - 45 ( $M = 239.77$ ;  $SD = 1.00$ ;  $df = .03$ ) scores were significantly lower than those for the 46 - 65 group ( $M = 249.34$ ;  $SD = 934.79$ ;  $df = .03$ , small practical effect size). In terms of Flourishing, age group 26 - 35 ( $M = 231.30$ ;  $SD = 1413.67$ ;  $df = .03$ ) and age group 36 - 45 ( $M = 225.46$ ;  $SD = 1328.15$ ;  $df = .03$ ) scores were significantly lower than those for the 46 - 65 group ( $M = 247.69$ ;  $SD = 934.19$ ;  $df = .03$ , small practical effect size). Figures 5.13 to 5.17 illustrate the significant differences in terms of positive and negative affect, career orientations, organisational commitment, and flourishing across the age group categories.

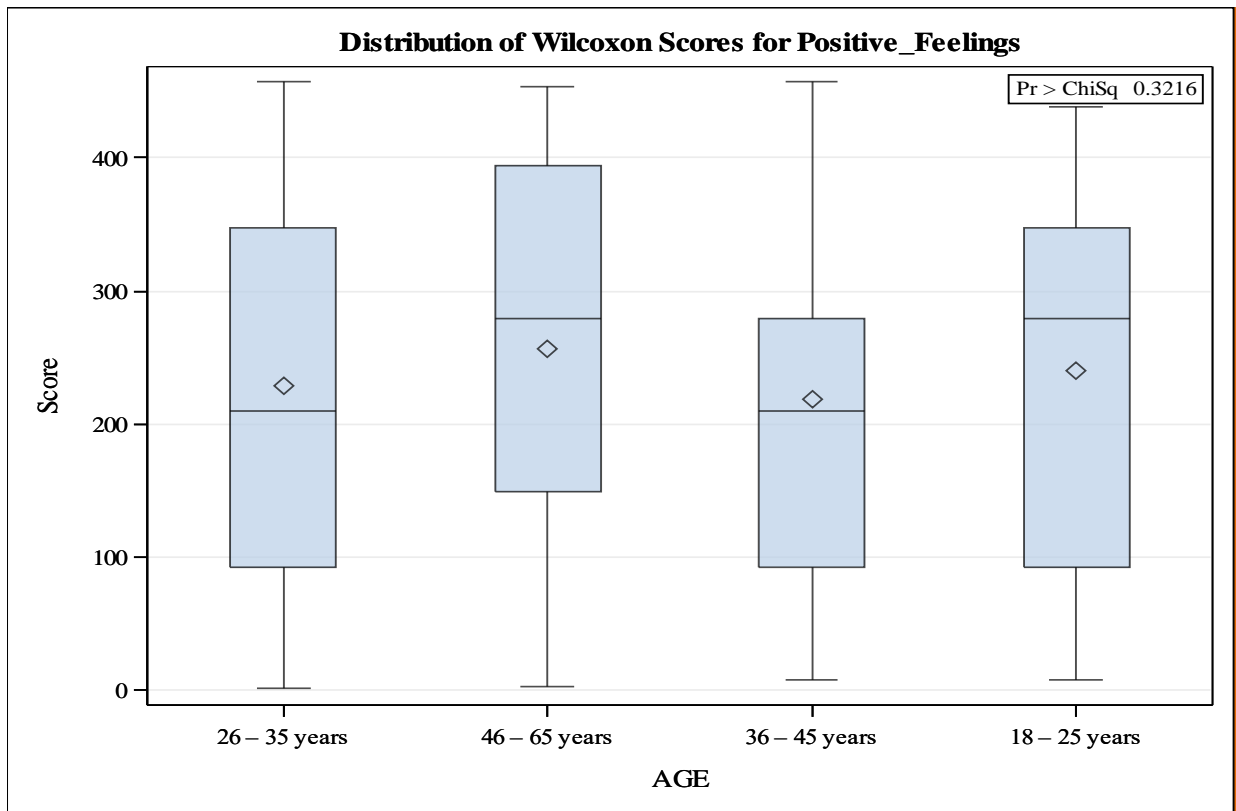


Figure 5.13: Kruskal-Wallis Test for the Effect of Age on Positive affect and Flourishing

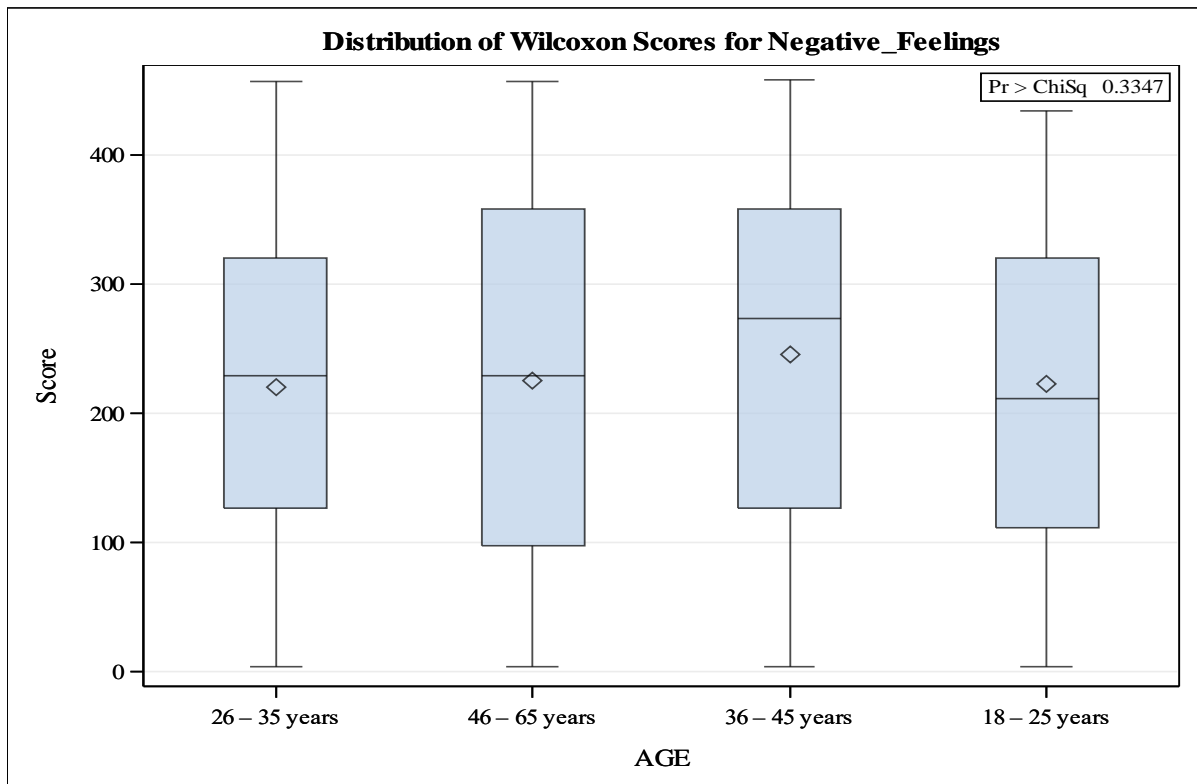


Figure 5.14: Kruskal-Wallis Test for the Effect of Age on Negative affect and Flourishing

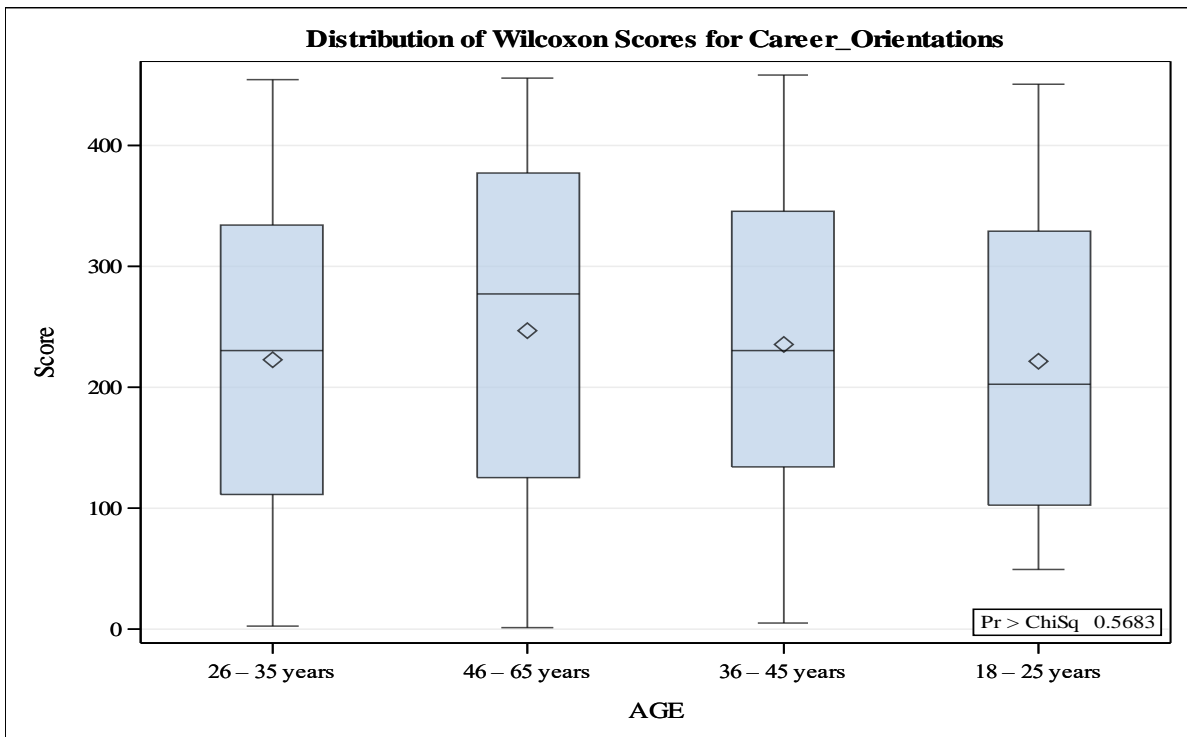


Figure 5.15: Kruskal-Wallis Test for the Effect of Age on Career Orientations and Flourishing

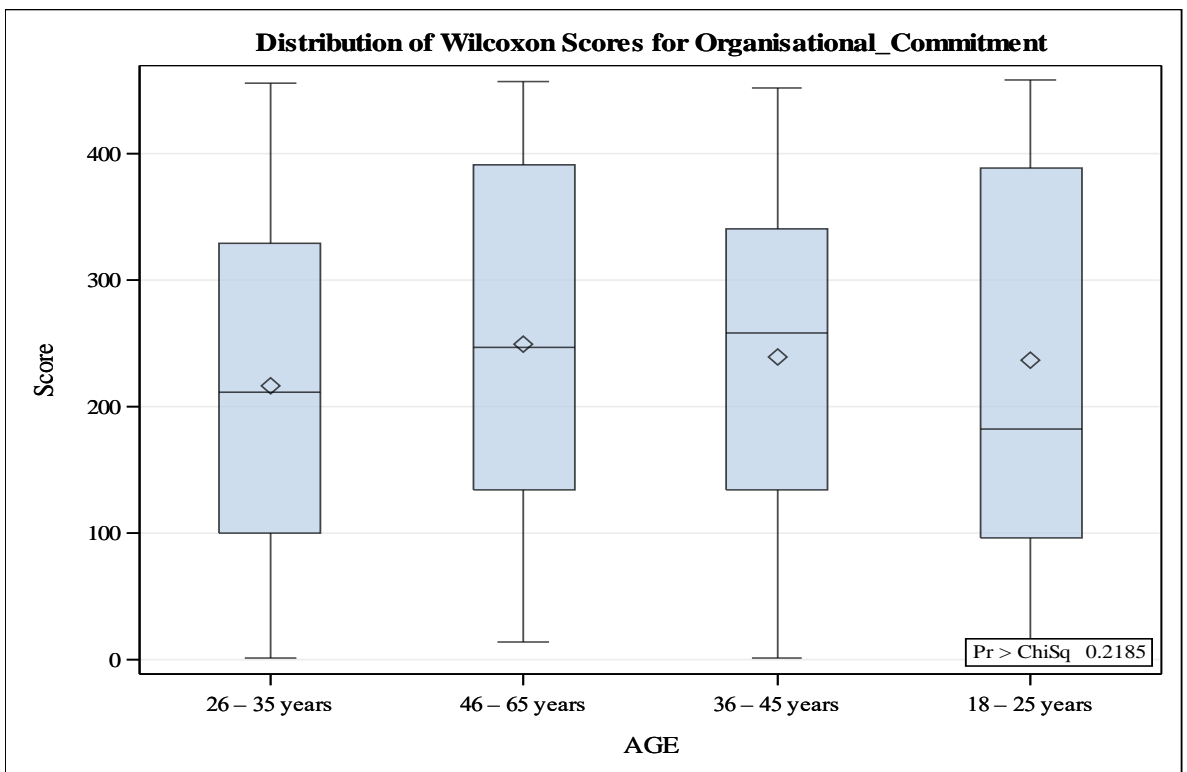


Figure 5.16: Kruskal-Wallis Test for the Effect of Age on Organisational Commitment and Flourishing

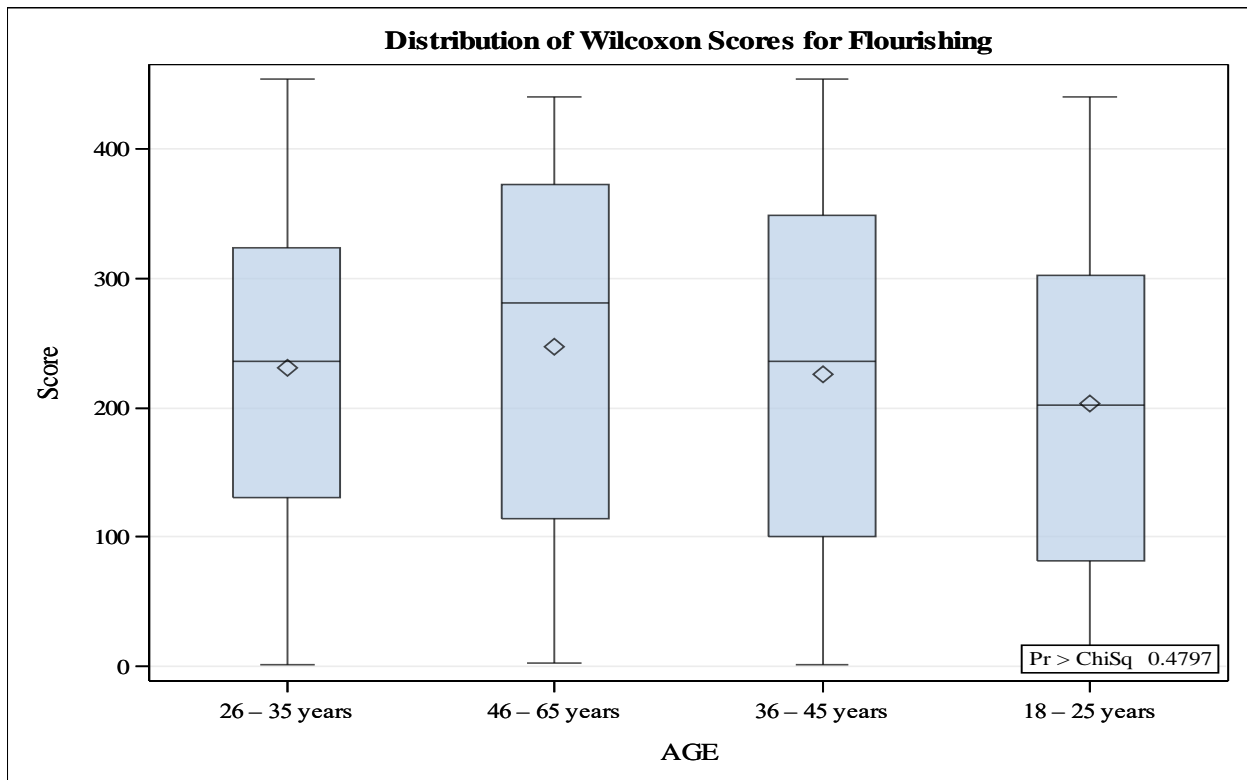


Figure 5.17: Kruskal-Wallis Test for the Effect of Age and Flourishing

Table 5.31

Results of the Kruskal-Wallis Test for Race: Dispositional Attributes and Flourishing

Mean scores for Coloured, Indian or Asian, and White race groups												
	Coloured			Indian or Asian			White			Chi-Square	df	p
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD			
Positive Affect	57	238.80	1144.78	96	223.58	467.07	13	216.33	928.41	3.58	3	.32
Negative Affect	57	250.39	1149.69	96	227.62	469.08	13	261.55	932.40	3.39	3	.34
Career Orientations	57	208.26	1152.80	96	184.42	470.34	13	162.89	934.92	2.02	3	.57
Organisational Commitment	57	224.15	1152.64	96	165.08	470.28	13	188.84	934.79	4.43	3	.22
Flourishing	57	231.60	1151.90	96	157.92	469.98	13	160.05	934.19	2.48	3	.48

Note: N = 458; 95% Confidence limit; \*\*\*p ≤ .0001

Table 5.31 indicates that there were significant differences in terms of race as a biographical variable and dispositional attribute and flourishing. According to the positive affect results reported in Table 5.28, Indians' ( $M = 223.58$ ;  $SD = 467.07$ ;  $df = .03$ ) and Whites' ( $M = 216.33$ ;  $SD = 928.41$ ;  $df = .03$ ) scores were significantly lower than the Coloureds' ( $M = 238.80$ ;  $SD = 1144.78$ , moderate practical effect). In terms of negative affect, Coloureds ( $M = 250.39$ ;  $SD = 1149.69$ ;  $df = .03$ ) and Indians ( $M = 227.62$ ;  $SD = 469.08$ ;  $df = .03$ ) scored significantly lower than the Whites ( $M = 261.55$ ;  $SD = 932.40$ ;  $df = .03$ , moderate practical effects). According to the Career Orientations results, Coloureds ( $M = 208.26$ ;  $SD = 1152.80$ ;  $df = .03$ ) and Indians ( $M = 184.42$ ;  $SD = 470.34$ ;  $df = .03$ ) scored significantly lower than the Whites ( $M = 162.89$ ;  $SD = 934.92$ , moderate practical effect). In terms of Organisational Commitment, Coloureds ( $M = 224.15$ ;  $SD = 1152.64$ ;  $df = .03$ ) and Indians ( $M = 165.08$ ;  $SD = 470.28$ ;  $df = .03$ ) scored significantly lower than Whites ( $M = 188.84$ ;  $SD = 934.79$ , moderate practical effect). According to the Flourishing results, Coloureds ( $M = 231.60$ ;  $SD = 1151.90$ ;  $df = .03$ ) and Indians ( $M = 157.92$ ;  $SD = 469.98$ ;  $df = .03$ ) scored significantly lower than Whites ( $M = 160.05$ ;  $SD = 934.19$ , moderate practical effect).

Figures 5.18 to 5.22 illustrate the significant differences in terms of positive and negative affect, career orientations, organisational commitment, and flourishing across the race groups as discussed above.

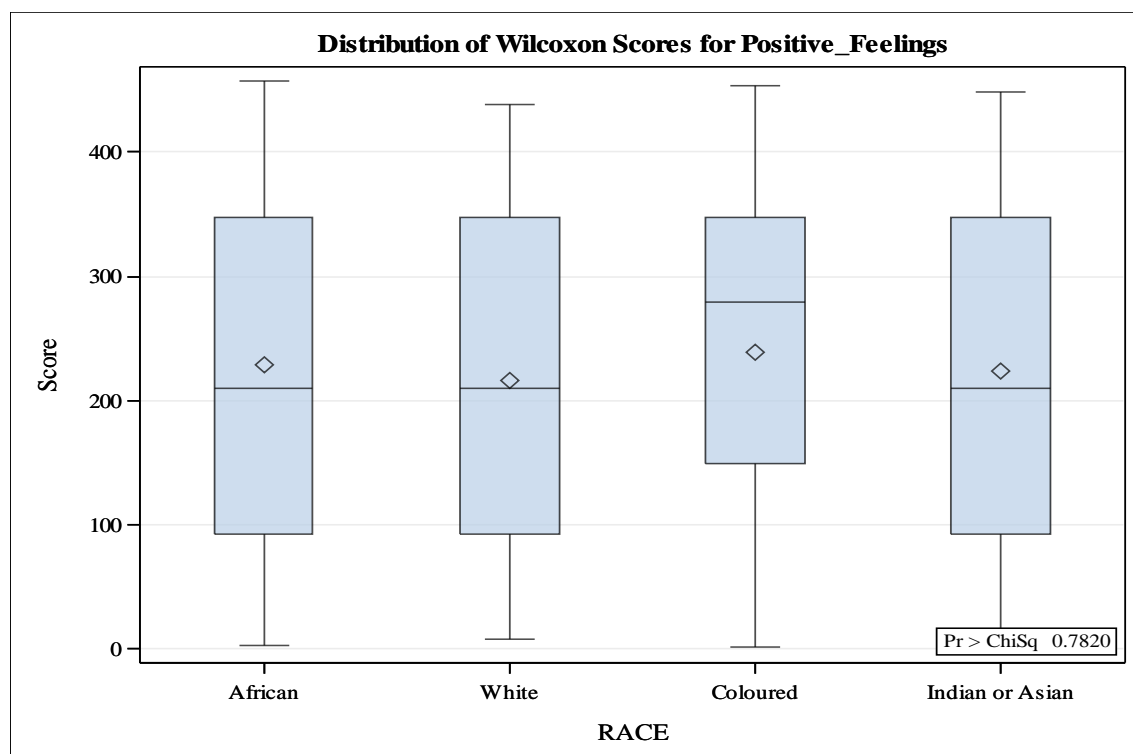


Figure 5.18: Kruskal-Wallis Test for the Effect of Race on Positive affect and Flourishing

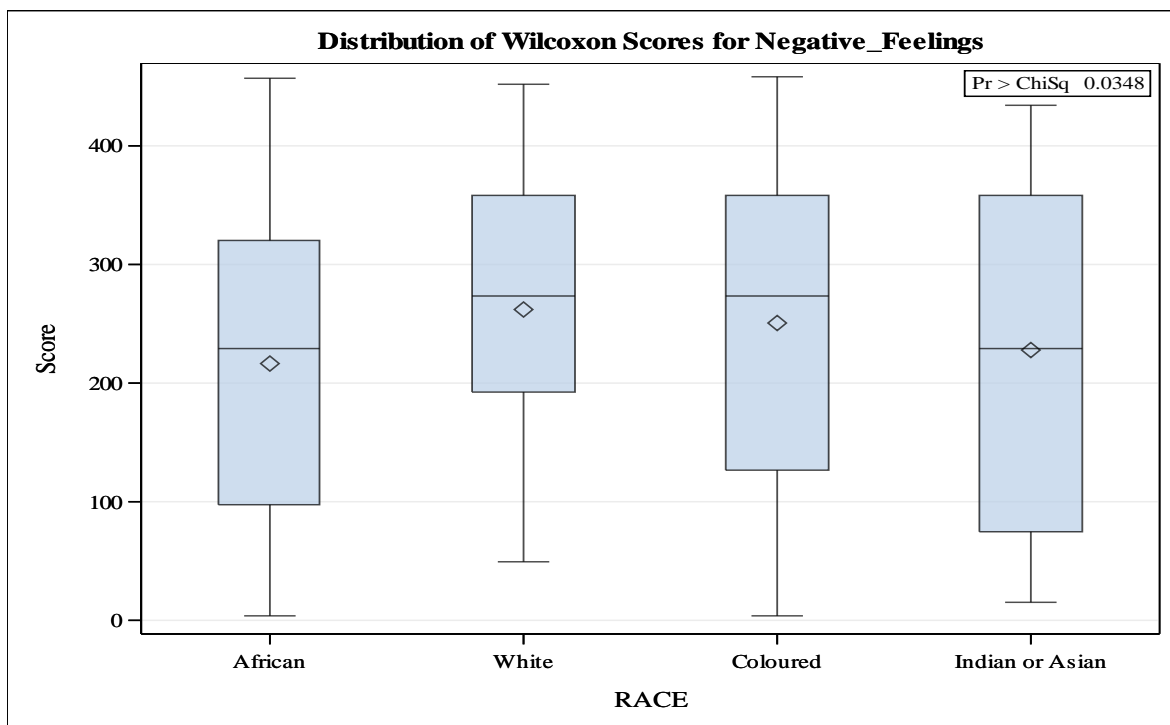


Figure 5.19: Kruskal-Wallis Test for the Effect of Race on Negative affect and Flourishing

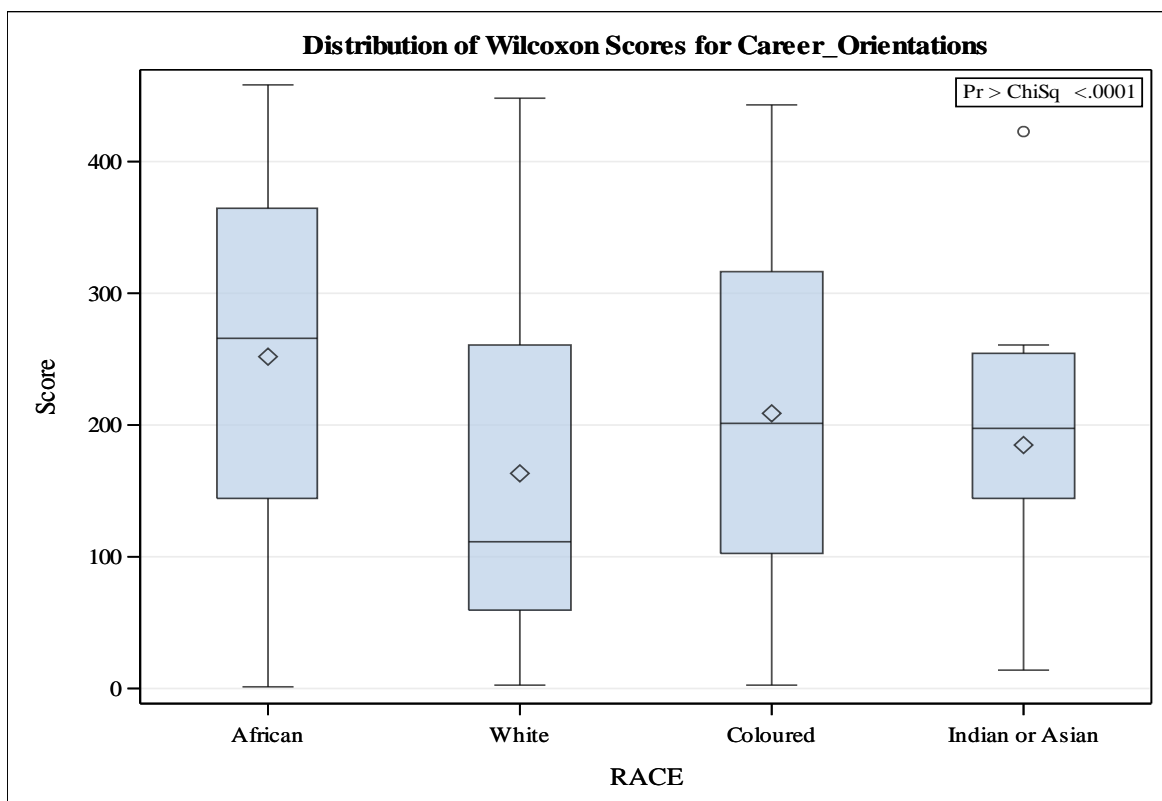


Figure 5.20: Kruskal-Wallis Test for the Effect of Race on Career Orientations and Flourishing

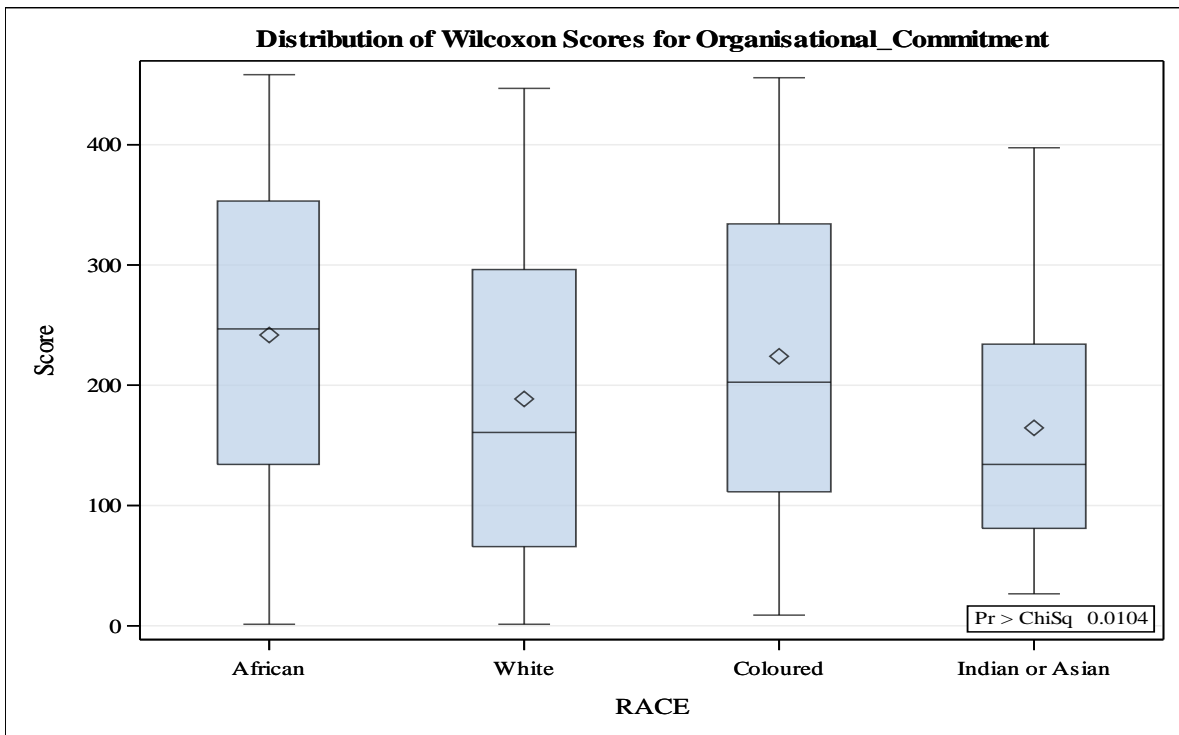


Figure 5.21: Kruskal-Wallis Test for the Effect of Race on Organisational Commitment and Flourishing

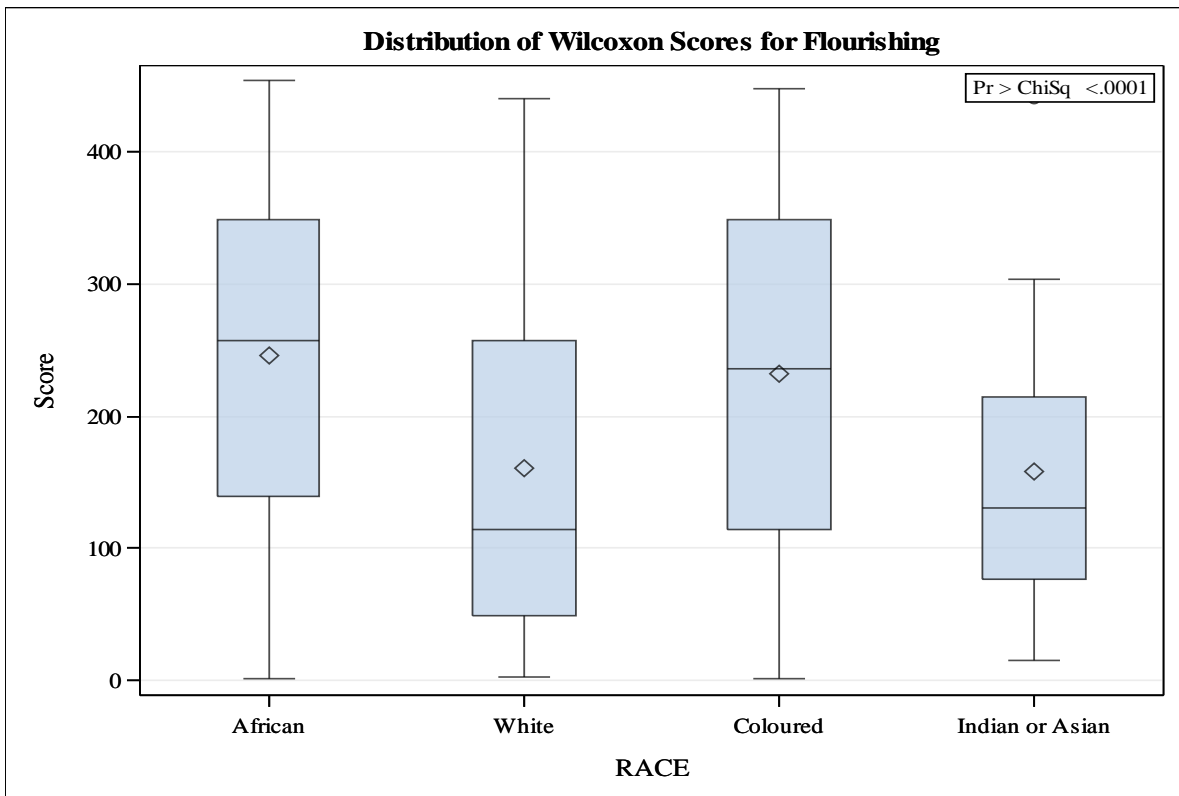


Figure 5.22: Kruskal-Wallis Test for the Effect of Race on Flourishing



Table 5.32

*Results of the Kruskal-Wallis Test for Gender: Dispositional Attributes and Flourishing*

	Male			Female			Chi-Square	df	p
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD			
Positive Affect	238	230.3	1405.18	220	228.6	1405.18	50282.5	.15	.883
Negative Affect	238	224.0	1411.21	220	235.4	1411.21	51797	.93	.355
Career Orientations	238	232.2	1415.0	220	226.6	1415.0	51797	.46	.648
Organisational Commitment	238	229.6	1414.83	220	229.4	1414.83	50465	.02	.996
Flourishing	238	235.1	1413.92	220	223.5	1413.92	49162.5	.94	.348

**Note:**  $N = 458$ ; 95% Confidence limit;  $***p \leq .0001$

Table 5.32 indicates that there were no significant differences observed in positive and negative affect, career orientations, organisational commitment, and flourishing across the biographical variable of gender groups. Positive affect results: Males ( $M = 230.3$ ;  $SD = 1405.18$ ;  $df = .15$ ) and Females ( $M = 228.6$ ;  $SD = 1405.18$ ;  $df = .15$ ). In terms of negative affect, Males ( $M = 224.0$ ;  $SD = 1411.21$ ;  $df = 93$ ) and Females ( $M = 235.4$ ;  $SD = 1411.21$ ;  $df = .93$ ). Thus, there were no significant differences observed. Career Orientations results: Males ( $M = 232.2$ ;  $SD = 1415.0$ ;  $df = .46$ ) and Females ( $M = 226.6$ ;  $SD = 1415.0$ ;  $df = .46$ ). There were no significant differences observed. Organisational Commitment results: Males ( $M = 229.6$ ;  $SD = 1414.83$ ;  $df = .02$ ) and Females ( $M = 229.4$ ;  $SD = 1414.83$ ;  $df = .02$ ). There were no significant differences observed. According to the Flourishing results, Males ( $M = 235.1$ ;  $SD = 1413.92$ ;  $df = .94$ ) and Females ( $M = 223.5$ ;  $SD = 1413.92$ ;  $df = .94$ ). There were no significant scores observed.

In addition to the biographical variable of gender, years of service, rank had no significant mean differences. There were also no effects in predicting psychological well-being profile factors. Therefore, these results will not be reported on. The empirical results obtained from the tests for significant mean differences partially provided supportive evidence for accepting research hypothesis H5 in terms of age and race:

***There are mean differences between the sub-groups that acted as moderators between dispositional attributes and flourishing (positive psychological function).***

#### **Preliminary analysis 4: The development of a psychological well-being profile for junior leaders**

In conclusion, the results from the statistical analyses indicate that the main construct variables that influence participants' psychological well-being profiles appear to be their career orientations, and the organisational commitment variables, which predict how the juniors tend to flourish within an organisation. This section also detailed how age and race tend to influence how participants express their emotions, which career anchors they tend to choose, and how they differ in terms of their level of organisational commitment. This section provided vital statistical analyses results for the development of a psychological well-being profile. The statistical results were reported by means of descriptive statistics, correlational statistics, and inferential statistics. The following section discusses the integration of empirical research results.

### **5.5 INTEGRATION AND THE DISCUSSION OF EMPIRICAL RESEARCH RESULTS**

#### **5.5.1 The biographical information of the sample and frequencies**

The current section discusses an overall study participation. The study results show that the main biographical sample characteristics that had to be considered when interpreting the empirical results are age, race, gender, and years of service. The distribution showed that there were more African participants and few Indians that participated in the study. The sample was predominantly represented by those participants in the early stages of their career establishment phase (Super, 1990) (middle adulthood life stage: 26 - 35 years) as opposed to the youngest age group of 18-25 years. Considering the above, participants were in the early stages of forming their psychological career contracts, which advocates and brings forth the development of realistic self-concept (Super, 1990; Coetzee, 2008; Cortés-sánchez & Grueso-Hinestroza, 2017).

Furthermore, results pointed out that the aforementioned age groups were in the process of adapting to the organisational settings, culture, values and tend to improve their work performance in view of flourishing (Savickas, 2010; Sharf, 2010; Jonck, De Coning, &

Radikonyana, 2018). Although the sample was spread over different biographical characteristics, there were more males participants than female participants. Furthermore, there were fewer participants with less than 2 years of service, while most participants had more than 5 but less than 10 years of service. The results revealed that there were more Corporals (Cpl) than Lieutenant Colonels (Lt Col) in the current sample in the SANDF ( $n = 458$ ).

### **5.5.2 Description statistics: Interpretation of the research results scores**

Interpretation of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), Rasch scales and the means scores of the four measuring instruments and the Cronbach's alpha coefficients. Tables 5.1, 5.2, 5.3, 5.4 5.5 and 5.6 are of relevance in this section.

Rasch analyses were conducted in order to determine the level of construct validity. It indicates those items that conformed to the assumptions of the Rasch analyses, and those that may not be the measure of the same construct. Rasch analyses pointed out that the data which did not provide relevant information was discarded as it was not a useful discriminator of the substantive sequence under investigation (Bond & Fox, 2001; Saidi & Siew, 2019). With Rasch analyses,  $t$  statistics standardised (ZSTD) becomes over sensitive when the sample group exceeds 300 participants, resulting in exaggerated scores. The current sample size is over 300, and for this reason only Infit and Outfit mean squares are reported for the items (Linacre, 2005; Saidi & Siew, 2019). The current  $t$  statistics standardised (ZSTD) items fall within these values. It therefore conforms to the Rasch model.

Overall, table 5.3 indicates that Scale for Positive and Negative Experiences (SPANE) items performed differently to what was expected by the Rasch model. These items have Infit or Outfit mean square values that are above or below the required value ranges of 0.7 – 1.3 (Linacre, 2005). The item separations for the sub-scales of the SPANE were also regarded as sufficient because they were at least 2.00 and/or higher (Hogg & Tanis, 2010; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011). Additionally, the recorded mean item fit and person fit were at acceptable levels, making the response levels acceptable. Therefore, the SPANE measure reflects a unidimensionality, as its Infit and Outfit were also recorded closer to 1.00, suggesting a good fit. In conclusion, the Rasch items and the person fit results of the SPANE were found to be suitable evidence that the participants understood and responded well to the items and/or that the items were aimed for this group (Dahlke & Wiernik, 2018; Saidi & Siew, 2019).

Table 5.4 illustrates that eight Career Orientations Inventory (COI) items performed differently to what was expected by the Rasch model, with Infit or Outfit mean square values that are above or below the expected value range of 0.7 – 1.3 (Linacre, 2005; Dahlke & Wiernik, 2018; Saidi & Siew, 2019). The item separation for COI anchors as regarded as sufficient and in line with the stipulated guideline (Hogg & Tanis, 2010; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011). However, the results show that the Security/Stability (SE) career anchor reflected the lowest person average measure. Overall, the item fit and the person fit means were at acceptable levels, indicating that all the responses were acceptable. Therefore, Rasch items and the person fit outcomes provided useful evidence that COI items are the reflections of the responded understanding of the items.

Table 5.5 indicates that the three Organisational Commitment Scales (OCS) performed differently to what was expected by the Rasch model. These scales have Infit or Outfit mean square values that are above or below the expected value ranges of between 0.7 and 1.3 (Linacre, 2005; Dahlke & Wiernik, 2018; Saidi & Siew, 2019). Therefore, the sub-scales of the OCS showed item consistencies and were sufficiently in line with the guideline of at least 2.00 (Hogg & Tanis, 2010; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011). However, it must be noted that the current recorded low person separation indices can be attributed to the manner in which participants from different ranks responded to the items randomly, or could be due to the fact that the items were not accurately targeted for the current study. For table 5.6, there was acceptable item reliability for the total Flourishing Scale (FS). The item separation indicates were regarded as sufficiently in line with the stipulated guidelines of 2.00 and/or higher (Hogg & Tanis, 2010; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011; Saidi & Siew, 2019).

#### 5.5.2.1 *Dispositional attributes profile*

This section interprets and discusses the mean scores of the dispositional attributes' for the (Emotional Affect, Career Orientations and Organisational Commitment) measuring instruments. Tables 5.7; 5.8 and 5.9 are relevant to this section.

Tables 5.7 and 5.9 results indicated that the junior leaders demonstrated strong positive affection (PA) and attachment towards their psychological well-being and, in turn, to their organisation. They therefore continue to maximise the General Management (GM) and tactical competencies that are needed to ascend to their next career of responsibilities (Cortés-sánchez & Grueso-Hinestroza, 2017). In line with the above, the current dispositional and psychological well-being profile revealed that there are general imbalances

in how junior leaders contribute to the organisation, as well as how they select certain careers that make them calculate the risks or benefits associated with staying committed to the course. It also indicates that junior leaders value the SANDF life style (LS), as it empowers them to be autonomous or to be independent thinkers (AU) in their bid to achieve better results. It also indicates that these junior leaders take on the challenges posed to them and on the leadership structures, and continue to commit themselves to the immediate and future goals of the SANDF (Seligman, 2011; Stoermer, Hitotsuyanagi-Hansel, & Froese, 2017).

The dispositional variables attributes mean revealed that junior leaders were feeling neither positive nor negative and have different career choices that enhance their level of commitment to their psychological well-being. However, these results should be interpreted with caution because there were very low reported internal reliability values. Junior leaders feeling positive seem to be well balanced in their feeling of working independently/autonomously (AU) and entrenching their General Management (GM) capacity in order to respond to their overall psychological well-being demands (Guest, 2017; Stoermer et al., 2017). This could also mean that most junior leaders are feeling increasingly confident when expressing their emotions openly in their respective work (Lee, 2018).

Furthermore, since participants between the ages of 26 and 35 years dominated the current study, these positive results could be an indication that they are operating in an empowering environment where they are feeling composed and free to choose career anchors that would enable them to relate to their work life and their current organisation's mission and towards their co-workers (Coetzee, 2008; 2010; Coetzee et al., 2015; Cortés-sánchez & Grueso-Hinestroza, 2017; Lee, 2018). Pillay, Viviers and Mayer (2013) found that individuals with high positive emotional affect tend to understand and view their life and careers mostly as rewarding. The study revealed that many junior leaders seemed to be feeling secure and tended to focus more on the costs associated (Continuance) with risks of leaving the SANDF (Stoermer et al., 2017; Van der Walt, 2018).

Conversely, the number of junior leaders who were feeling normative commitment (Normative) was slightly lower. They were feeling negative about their career orientations in the study, which implies that they may not be developing any obligation towards the SANDF (Ferreira, 2010; Yildirim & Alanazi, 2018; Van der Walt, 2018). It should be reminded that earlier the study revealed that the majority of junior leaders were young and in the early stages of their careers. Around the globe, current literature indicates that many military organisations are attracting many extremists that tend to spike rebel mobilisations and

uprisings (Marx & Liebenberg, 2019). Some of the extremist groups seek recognition, while some of them are operating as underground military operations using new and sophisticated ways to instil fear in the citizens (Daka & Tamira, 2019).

The military actions have a propensity for increasing pressure on many organisations in order to find ways to equip junior leaders in numbers to replace the ageing senior leaders (Gray, 2018; Marx & Liebenberg, 2019). Therefore, many of the junior leaders learn to anticipate those events that may trigger potential barriers to their development, restraints, or stressors, while developing ways in which they intend to deal with these unplanned events (Holmgreen, Tirone, Gerhart, & Hobfoll, 2017). The current results indicate that a psychological well-being profile will serve as one of the mechanisms that may be applied to manage their future career repertoires. Furthermore, the results show that junior leaders tend to develop mechanisms to challenge life circumstances, career disappointment, and career-threatening experiences (Abessolo et al., 2017).

Even in the face of strenuous life events, junior leaders showed resilience and develop character strength that helped them to cope with some of the military-related missions and operations (Rudolph, Lavigne, & Zacher, 2017; Niemac, 2018). However, low scores on negative affect may be an indication that junior leaders would regard negative events as motivation to stay positive in view, to cherish military culture, and agree to accomplish given instructions and accountabilities (Holmgreen et al., 2017). The compatible scores on Entrepreneurial Creativity (EC) may suggest that many junior leaders have grown the confidence to network more as junior leaders, and are able to share their lived military experiences and network more in order to overcome work and psychological stressors (Abessolo et al., 2017; Marx & Liebenberg, 2019).

In the 21<sup>st</sup> century and with the new labour developments and ever-changing employment settings, there are many relationships which are formed between individuals and the organisation. Bakker, Albrecht and Leiter (2011) and Cortés-sánchez and Grueso-Hinestroza (2017) established that those individuals who do not rearrange their personal resources would find it difficult to positively challenge the complexity and high levels of work stresses, which may contribute to their poor physical and psychological well-being (Mensah, 2018). In line with Goleman (2018) study on positive emotions, Slatten, Kerry and Philips (2011) agreed that individuals tend to be strongly influenced by their positive affection towards their work environments.

### 5.5.2.2 *Flourishing attributes profile*

The participants' results in this facet did not indicate that junior leaders have high consideration of how they flourish within their life or organisation. These results could imply that the majority of junior leaders were not aware of the importance of career development initiatives, which enhance their overall life styles and contributes to their mental fitness (Potgieter, Coetzee, & Ximba, 2017; Mensah, 2018). Overall, positive results in terms of the flourishing attribute may be an indication that many junior leaders tend to value their career anchors fully (Nzonzo, 2017; Van Wingerden, Bakker, & Derks, 2017).

The current study results indicate that those junior leaders who manage their careers effectively and are in control of their lives are able to adapt to difficult and demanding situations, and may improve their lives (Martínez-Martí & Ruch, 2017). Safely, these research results indicate that the flourishing attribute tends to be the cornerstone for improving leadership development programmes, workplace well-being practices, and increasing positive organisational outlook, all of which subsequently contributes to the quality of work life (Donaldson, Csikszentmihalyi, & Nakamura, 2011; Rudolph et al., 2017). Moreover, the results indicate that flourishing junior leaders tend to continually and emotionally stay committed to their organisation, surpass potential threats, and continuously seek those opportunities that support personal growth and goal accomplishment (Seligman, 2011; Rothman & Cooper, 2015; Abessolo et al., 2017).

The results proved that those junior leaders who manage their emotional expressions and exercise control over their career anchors take personal responsibility for their career path and work experiences, carry out missions and instructions clearly, overcome negatives and stressors better, and tend to flourish more often (Coetzee & Harry, 2013; Allin & Hand, 2017). A strong positive affect relationship result proved that positive emotions tend to be a basis for flourishing instead of languishing (Hefferon et al., 2017; Goleman, 2018). The current research has shown that junior leaders who are generally flourishing may demonstrate greater understanding of their future career and roles, which may result in them adapting more to the organisational demands (Craddock & Folse, 2015; Tyler & VanderWeele, 2017).

Studies have indicated that flourishing is part of a positive psychology which advocates for positive human experiences, healthy outcomes, and exposure to a full understanding of positive human and organisational functioning (Snyder, Lopez, & Pedrotti, 2011; Allin & Hand, 2017). Overall, the current mean scores of flourishing attribute may suggest that junior

leaders with positivity, and who choose suitable career anchors and have control over their vocation, and who display overall commitment, tend to regard resentments and work streams as worthy to challenge and would proceed to flourish (Holmgreen et al., 2017; Nzonzo, 2017). Moreover, based on the mean scores, junior leaders tend to view and understand factors that enhance flourishing differently. In conclusion, these results are consistent with the findings of Seligman (2011) and Ferreira (2012) which asserts that individuals with high positive scores on organisational commitment tend to view career disappointments and stressful situations as both challenging and as part of their ongoing growth, as well as considering their personal resources to use in their bid to flourish.

Therefore, flourishing junior leaders would understand themselves and know what they are doing, which would result in them involving themselves fully in the many situations of their lives (including work, family, interpersonal relationships, and social institutions) with a view to sustain their flourishing momentum (Ferreira, 2012; Tyler & VanderWeele, 2017; Niemac, 2018). The study therefore proved that flourishing is an important phenomenon in the development of a psychological well-being profile.

### **5.5.3 Research aim 1: Interpretation of the correlation results**

Tables 5.8 and 5.9 are of relevance to this section.

*To investigate the nature of the empirical statistical inter-correlational relationships between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientation, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning) as manifested in a sample of participants employed in the SANDF.*

This research aim is related to testing research hypothesis Ha1:

***There is a statistically significant positive inter-correlation between the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientation, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning) that constitutes an overall psychological well-being profile.***

Table 5.8 is related to this section



Table 5.8 indicates the dispositional attributes that are significantly and positively inter-related. The study showed that besides their independence/autonomy and authority/influence (AU), junior leaders seemed to be networking more in a team (entrepreneurial creativity (EC) and are grounded in their general management capacity (GM) (Stoermer et al., 2017). The emotional affect as part of personal resources and the three organisational commitment construct variables seem to point out that many junior leaders tend to focus on their management development capabilities and their tactical abilities development, which stimulates their practicality and creative application skills, career venturing, and overall development of their self-concept (Coetzee, 2017; Goleman, 2018).

Instantly, the study also managed to establish some positive relationships between the junior leader's positive emotional affects and the seven career anchors, with the exception of one construct variable of negative affect (Mueller, Wolfe, & Syed, 2017; Goleman, 2018). The strong relationship between career anchors and organisational commitment is an indication that junior leaders showed a strong need for being autonomous/independent workers, and also for being more involved in executing some of their management and technical functional competencies effectively, which may enhance their level of commitment (Coetzee, 2017; Ndlovu et al., 2019). The results indicate that junior leaders tend to relate to their career anchors, which would assist them to flourish and reach the next leadership or management echelon while technically devising ways to overcome any negativity (Gray, 2018).

Most junior leaders tend to stay focused on their organisational obligations and key objectives issues, and are more affectively attached to their organisations (Rudolph et al., 2017; Mensah, 2018). The results also indicated that junior leaders may be in a position to set up their long-term commitment goals or objectives and choose their careers based on their own career preference (Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2012; Coetzee, 2017). This could further suggest that junior leaders already in leadership positions tend to think deeper about the costs associated with the decision to leave the organisation, as well as the cost of entering the new organisation (Duffy et al., 2018; Daka & Tamira, 2019).

Junior leaders were found to use negatives and adversity as their emotional resources to enhance their personal decision to engage (Holmgreen et al., 2017; Goleman, 2018). As elaborated by Meyer and Allen (1991), the strong scores on the continuance commitment variable may mean that more junior leaders tend to have a strong connection with their organisation and are likely to stay longer because they feel it is necessary to do so and not

because they are not forced. Generally, the study established a good relationship amongst the current selected construct variables, while the literature also found that there are various organisational threats and stressors confronting junior leaders, which manifests themselves in real physical and psychological symptoms and could lead to serious consequences, such as culture shock, maladaptive behaviour, counterproductive behaviour, behavioural changes, or ill health, which may lead to abnormality or maladjustments (Giddens, 2013; Seligman, 2011; Martínez-Martí & Ruch, 2017). The literature also showed that many junior leaders in the military institutions tend to be attracted by the military values and culture, life style, and systems found in the organisation (Donald, Baruch, & Ashleigh, 2017; Daka & Tamira, 2019).

#### 5.5.3.1 *The relationship between dispositional attributes and the flourishing attribute*

Tables 5.8 and 5.9 are related to this section.

The study established moderate and positive correlations between the positive affect, career anchors, affective, normative, and continuance commitment variables and the flourishing of junior leaders. The current findings showed that almost all junior leaders dispositional attributes variables significantly and positively correlated with the flourishing variables (positive psychological functioning), indicating that junior leaders with a psychological career resources profile and high career adaptability, and who demonstrate positivity towards their life and career, are likely to experience a high level of psychological well-being and therefore flourish more in life and health in their respective organisations (Seligman, 2011; Martínez-Martí & Ruch, 2017; Strauss et al., 2017).

This is a significant observation because it could mean that, should junior leaders' emotions be managed and regulated well, there is an opportunity for them to flourish and may also turn adversity into an opportunity for growth (Donald et al., 2017; Goleman, 2018). The study also indicates the negative inter-relationship between emotional affect variable and flourishing. This may indicate that those junior leaders who were feeling negative found it difficult to conform to their organisational objectives, were unable to manage their emotional expressions, and found it difficult to confront work and health challenges (Donald et al., 2017; Goleman, 2018). In turn, the low correlation between negative affect and flourishing can be an indication that most junior leaders would rather use emotional setbacks as a drive to stay committed to the key objectives of the organisation (Mueller et al., 2017; Goleman, 2018).

A strong positive association between career orientations of life style, autonomy and flourishing attribute can be an indication that most junior leaders tend to appreciate their level of responsibility in the military. Therefore, the above suggests that junior leaders who stay positive tend to have high levels of morale and motivation, and may also make cognitive sense about their current and future competencies, which stimulates and improves their way of accomplishing tasks (Seligman, 2012; Mueller et al., 2017). Lastly, junior leaders may also develop career resilience in the process, which will enable them to view potentially dysfunctional situations as challenging, interesting, and manageable (Rothman & Viljoen, 2012; WHO, 2017; Meng et al., 2018). Junior leaders with general management competencies tend to set up goals or objectives that respond to their career choices (Buis, Shanafelt, Keran, Levin, Schwarz, Molano, & Cascino, 2017; Alreshidi 2018). This relationship could further suggest that junior leaders in a management position might think twice about the costs involved when faced with the decision to leave the SANDF.

#### 5.5.3.2 *The relationship between the biographical, independent and dependent construct variables*

The results shown in table 5.8 revealed that age, race, gender, and years of service are significant moderators, which are important when interpreting psychological well-being, and that the rank levels have no effect on how junior leaders express their emotions, choose certain anchors, and either stay committed or leave the SANDF. The results are in disagreement with the findings by Finkelstein (2014), which established that age does not determine how individuals' years of service are perceived as mutual obligations or their reaction towards unfulfilled organisational obligations. In line with Coetzee et al (2017), therefore, age, race, gender, and years of service were the most significant and positive predictors of the dispositional attributes and flourishing variable.

#### 5.5.3.3 *Significant findings: Synthesis*

The overall correlation results pointed out that dispositional constructs were significantly and positively related to the flourishing construct. The results of the current study revealed that career orientations were related to organisational commitment and significantly and positively related to the flourishing variable (Seligman, 2011; Coetzee, 2017). This indicated that junior leaders view their career anchors as vital to their commitment strategies and how they flourish (Hofstede, Hofstede Insights, 2018). However, the results also indicated a significant and negative relationship between emotional affect and flourishing constructs as showed by Ahmed (2017). Overall, junior leaders showed concern about their career

orientations, which will likely assist them to improve their psychological well-being and, in turn, flourish. They also showed a lack of concern about their emotional experiences when deciding on career anchors and organisational commitment strategies that allow them to flourish (Creed et al., 2017; Goleman, 2018). The study revealed that the biographical information of age, race, gender, and years of service had significant relationships with dispositional attributes and the flourishing attribute. Coetzee et al. (2015) and Coetzee et al. (2017) found a positive and significant relationship between the biographical variables of age, race, and gender, and emotional affect and career orientations (anchors).

#### 5.5.3.4 *Counter-intuitive finding*

The study could not reveal a positive and significant relationship between emotional affect and flourishing. In the case of biographical information of rank, the study could not find that it was significantly related to dispositional attributes and flourishing constructs.

### 5.5.4 **Research aim 2: Interpretation of the multiple linear regression results**

*Table 5.10 is of relevance to this section*

*To assess whether the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) predict the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).*

This research aim relates to testing research hypothesis Ha2.

<p><b><i>The (independent variables) dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) significantly predict (dependable variable) the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).</i></b></p>
--

#### 5.5.4.1 *Emotional affect as a predictor of flourishing*

The current study indicated that emotional affect (positive affect and negative affect) do not significantly predicts the type of career anchors junior leaders would value and select in order to pave a way for flourishing in their future commitments. In contrast, Yu-Chi (2011) and Goleman (2018) showed that many individuals with a high level of emotional intelligence tend to understand and manage their own emotions quite well. Therefore, these results

would mean that even though some junior leaders possess the willingness to manage and regulate their own emotions and are well motivated, there is a possibility that they may not flourish as expected (Seligman, 2011; Ahmed & Bashir, 2017; Busis et al., 2017).

#### 5.5.4.2 *Career orientations as a predictor of flourishing*

The study revealed that the career orientations tend to enhance individuals' ability to plan and organise their personal life experiences, identify long-term contributions, and establish criteria for success by which they can measure their capacity (Smit 1992; Papadimitriou, Winand, & Anagnostopoulos, 2017). Currently, the career orientations' high scores on Autonomy (AU), General Management (GM), and Service or Dedication to a cause (SE) may be an indication that junior leaders' positive emotional balance and commitment are key to their flourishing, and tend to be a way to alienate their negative feelings (Rothman, 2015; Coetzee et al., 2017; Williamson & O'Hara, 2017). The results showed that the Technical/Functional competence anchor exposes junior leaders' strong need for career specialisation in their area of learned expertise (Schein, 2006).

The study showed that junior leaders who are already in management levels and already empowered to deal with strategic and people management tend to experience strong feelings of emotional attachment to their current organisations and surroundings (Daka & Tamira, 2019). The General Management competence anchor indicated junior leader's desire for advancement to more responsible or a higher-level ladder of leadership (Schein, 2006; Niessen, Mäder, Stride, & Jimmieson, 2017). Meyer and Allen's (1997) and Ferreira et al. (2010) studies showed that having responsibility and the authority to influence the objects of the organisation are the two important aspects that increase sense of responsibility and motivation to continue to commit within the organisation.

#### 5.5.4.3 *Organisational commitment as a predictor of flourishing*

In terms of the junior leaders organisational commitment, the results explain that positively-inclined individuals would stay committed and flourish well (Duffy et al., 2018). The three organisational commitment variables of affective, continuance, and normative are best associated with the flourishing of junior leaders, and in turn with their psychological well-being. Those who tend to increase their organisational commitment strategies because they were exposed to some organisational benefits and motivating factors, would in turn tend to have a strong affection and increase ways to find congruence between their aspiration and flourishing (Maddi et al., 2009; Seligman, 2011; Rothman, 2015; Vallerand & Rapaport,

2017; Duffy et al., 2018). Therefore, junior leaders who are positively inclined are more sensitive to available opportunities at work and at home, and are more outgoing and optimistic (Rudolph et al., 2017). Therefore, when The SANDF provides more and sufficient growth opportunities and junior leaders execute the given opportunities well, they tend to feel more committed towards their organisation and develop ways to flourish more.

The three organisational commitment factors suggested that junior leaders emotional affect towards an organisation, specifically his or her lived emotional experience, was important in explaining their feeling of obligation towards development (Papadimitriou et al., 2017). The results showed that junior leaders who viewed their psychological well-being as important within an organisation were more likely to be satisfied with their current organisational commitment strategies and rewards (Hall et al., 2018). Overall, the study tends to show a significant and positive prediction between dispositional attributes (Career Orientations and Organisational Commitment) and the Flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning). In summary, the dispositional attributes acted as significant predictors of the flourishing construct.

#### *5.5.4.4 Significant findings: Synthesis*

The current study revealed that the emotional affect is not acting as a buffer between flourishing and career development, and would not predict how junior leaders respond to certain stimuli (Daubner-Siva et al., 2018). The junior leader's management preference and security/stability were among the strong predictors of their overall organisational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Coetzee et al., 2017; Donald et al., 2017). Overall, the three organisational commitment variables of affective, continuance, and normative were best associated with the flourishing of junior leaders, which in turn enhances their psychological well-being status. The result indicates that committed junior leaders tend to increase their technical and their general managerial competencies in order to achieve their set key objectives and flourish in their current organisations (Strauss et al., 2017). Generally, when junior leaders felt an obligated to stay within the SANDF, they are likely to stay positive for a sustained period (Sullivan & Willis, 2018).

#### *5.5.4.5 Counter-intuitive findings*

The study could not prove relationships between emotional affect constructs and the biographical information of gender and rank levels. Overall, the results indicate that junior leaders tend to stay positive and use their negative behaviour to regroup their ambitions to

achieve their career aspirations (Creed et al., 2017). The study reveals that junior leaders view their career anchors of functioning independently (autonomy) and reshaping their life style in order to suit the military culture so that they may stay comfortable and committed for long period. Studies have proven that autonomous thinking tends to assist individuals to cope and manage most complex organisational functions and work demands effectively (Holmgreen, Tirone, Gerhart, & Hobfoll, 2017; Sullivan & Willis, 2018; Daka & Tamira, 2019). This process may enhance their personal resources capacity and enable them to make better emotional and psychological judgements (Creed et al., 2017).

#### **5.5.5 Research aim 4: Interpretation of the Structural Equation Modelling results**

*Tables 5.11 to 5.13 and Figure 5.1 are of relevance to this section*

*Based on the overall statistical relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning), assess the fit between the elements of the empirical research models and the theoretically hypothesised profile.*

This research aim relates to testing research hypothesis Ha3:

***The theoretically conceptualised psychological well-being profile has a good fit with the empirically manifested structural equational model.***

The current study established that the structural equation modelling theoretically conceptualised a psychological well-being profile, and also established a fit with the empirically manifested structural model. In the current study, two goodness of fit models were tested, and the best fit model demonstrated that the dispositional attribute of negative affect and the three organisational commitment variables were the significant predictors to be considered when deciding on the interventions to capacitate flourishing junior leaders. The results indicated that career orientations led to flourishing of junior leaders, but in the current study results these career orientations variables were significant enough to predict flourishing.

The current results may be a thorough indication that most junior leaders are able to effectively generate alternative ideas that would help them to manage their career choices, and to take those decisions that would enable them to execute given instruction and responsibilities well, while in turn enhancing their chances of flourishing (Holmgreen et al.,

2017; Gray, 2018). Overall, the career anchors appeared to be the key determinant of individuals' future career choices, including the type of workplace that they aspire to work at (Schein, 1990; 1996; Donald et al., 2017).

Therefore, ability of junior leaders to overcome difficult and stressful events, military operations, and missions, while effectively engaging in their career development, would lead to happiness and overall well-being (Strauss et al., 2017; Niemac, 2018). The results showed that the Autonomy (AU) and Lifestyle (LS) career anchors tend to enhance junior leaders desire to balance their work ethic and life situations effectively. However, junior leaders with strong affective and continuance attachments career anchors are motivated because these career anchors enhance their total career development paths (Bailyn, 1989; Schein, 1996; 2006; Potgieter et al., 2017; Van der Walt, 2018). Furthermore, the Entrepreneurial Creativity (EC) career anchor is connected to Flourishing, in that it may indicate that junior leaders tend to forge new relationship management skills that would help them get promoted to the next leadership echelon (Schein, 2006; Raza, Ali, Ahmed, & Ahmad, 2018).

#### 5.5.5.1 *Main findings: Synthesis*

The current SEM results pointed out that The SANDF should implement flourishing strategies and capacitate junior leaders so that there are those fields that will make them explore more careers. The study showed that many junior leaders are affectively committed to their organisational functions and objectives (Vallerand & Rapaport, 2017). In other words, junior leaders embodied a strong desire to remain in their respective careers and keep themselves abreast of new and challenging developments, due to the opportunity they were given and being satisfied in their area of responsibilities (Evetts, 2017; Lee, 2018). The study revealed that psychological well-being can be arranged into cognitive, affective, conative functioning, and relations management dimensions. The current tested model also indicated that positive affect, the seven career anchors, and the three organisational commitment construct variables are positive contributors to the psychological well-being concept and can explain how junior leaders flourish.

The functional elements are explained as follows:

On the *cognitive functioning* element, the results suggested that junior leaders who were influenced by the general management capacity and were dedication to the organisation tend to exert control/influence over their life events by changing their perceptions about



certain situations (Evetts, 2017; Ryff, 2018). Moreover, junior leaders tend to consider and evaluate their ability to act consciously and think better to resolve the stumbling situations that prevented them from flourishing (Rangritz & Mehrabi, 2010; Van Zyl & De Bruin, 2012). The junior leaders may feel a sense of obligation and responsibility towards their organisation (normative commitment), which will influence their cognitive process when making the decision not to leave the organisation (Damane, 2018).

In terms of *affective functioning*, results suggested that junior leaders tend to be influenced by the manner in which they express and managing their own emotions. Most junior leaders would show affective functioning, which would assist them in the creation of a passage of livelihood that would enable them to maintain their psychological well-being (Stoermer et al., 2017; Goleman, 2018). Junior leaders would take responsibility for their own career developments and engage in activities that promote their overall psychological well-being (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012; Mueller et al., 2017).

On *conative (motivational) functioning*, the results suggested that junior leaders are typically motivated by feeling secure and by their strong dedication to the cause of action, and tend to function independently/autonomously while remaining resilient. These junior leaders value their service commitment strategies and are actively involved in daily efforts that cultivate a purposeful life (Potgieter et al., 2017; Rozkwitalska, 2018). On this level, career orientations help junior leaders to maximise the competencies, motives, values, and talents that are related to work (Schein, 2006; Damane, 2018; Qaiser, Abid, Arya, & Farooqi, 2018). Junior leaders seemed to be well-oriented with themselves and would prefer to work in an environment where they could take control over certain situations and make crucial decisions (Martínez-Martí & Ruch, 2017). This could also boost their motivation.

In terms of *relations management*, more emphasis is on cooperation and joint efforts that balance junior leader's psychological well-being. In fact, the results suggested that junior leaders are influenced by their entrepreneurial creativity, which is guided by their cognitive resources (self/other skills) and cooperation with other workers in the organisation (Strauss et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2019). In this instance, it is very important that junior leaders develop those social awareness skills, which may be needed to effectively handle interpersonal and intrapersonal relations and elicit desirable responses from others (Goleman, 1998; 2018; Holmgreen et al., 2017). On this relations level, junior leaders would seek cooperation and guidance in order to fulfil certain management or leadership functional competencies (Papadimitriou et al., 2017). Therefore, the flourishing of junior leaders is

viewed as an opportunity for growth and tolerance towards fellow colleagues and subordinates (Latif, 2010; Choi et al., 2012; Strauss et al., 2017; Stoermer et al., 2017).

### 5.5.5.2 Empirically manifested psychological well-being profile for junior leaders

Table 5.33

Empirically Manifested Psychological Well-being Profile Constituting Dispositional Attributes and Flourishing Attribute

Psychological well-being dimensions	Biographical information			Flourishing attribute
	COI	OCS	BI	FL
Cognitive	General management Functional (GM) Service dedication (SV)		Age Race Gender Years of service	Flourishing
Affective	Life style (LS)	Affection	Race Years of service	Flourishing
Conative	Security (SE) Autonomy (AU)	Normative	Age Race	Flourishing
Relations Management	Entrepreneurial creativity (EC)	Continuance	Race	Flourishing

In summary, the main variables that were identified in the empirically manifested structural model were dispositional attributes and flourishing which are immersed in terms of cognitive, conative, affective functioning and relations management dimensions, and the biographical information of age, race, gender and years of services that would underpin the current psychological well-being profile.

### 5.5.5.3 Counter-intuitive findings

The results indicated that overall, positive affect did not adequately converge with flourishing. Therefore, did not form part of current set of constructs in the development of a psychological well-being profile. The study unearthed evidence that many junior leaders felt obligated to offer their knowledge and competencies to the organisation in the fulfilment of certain objectives (normative commitment), and also felt that strong continuance

commitment develops when they invest their time and effort in order to gain required efforts and attention (Coetzee et al., 2012; Coetzee, 2017; Goleman, 2018). However, it would also appear that relationships of cooperation and team efforts are slightly less important for junior leaders, as the results showed that those who scored high on autonomy/independent (AU) career orientations felt less positive about working in joint-operation tasks. The results indicated that junior leaders also tend to choose those career anchors that boost their ego and cognitive competencies to be able to accomplish those given instructions and to use organisational resources to improve their psychological well-being, with a view to flourish in their careers and in life.

#### **5.5.6 Research aim 4: Interpretation of the hierarchical moderated regression results.**

*Tables 5.15 to 5.29 and Figures 5.2 to 5.12 are of relevance to this section*

To assess whether biographical variables (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) significantly moderate the relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).

This research aim relates to testing research hypothesis Ha5:

***Biographical information of age, race, gender, years of service, and rank moderate the relationship between the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).***

**Model 1: Age, race, gender, and years of service acted as the main significant moderators between dispositional attributes and the flourishing attribute.**

The empirical results from the moderated regression analysis provided supportive evidence that the biographical variables (age, race, gender, and years of service) were indeed significant moderators of the relationship between the independent variables (dispositional constructs attributes) and the dependent variable (flourishing construct attribute), with the exception of the SANDF member's rank level. The current results showed biographical variable of age significantly moderates the relationship between the independent variables (dispositional constructs attributes) and the dependent variable (flourishing construct

attribute). The majority of the junior leaders were aged between 26 and 35 years; thus, they are in their early career development and life stages. Moreover, biographical character of age was found to have a positive significant moderating effect on the relationship between the dispositional career orientations construct variables of Autonomy (AU) and General Management (GM), and the flourishing construct.

Generally, the literature also indicated that age influences the way in which junior leaders manage their own emotional expressions, specifically in terms of their command and control in the military environment (Khoreva et al., 2018; Rudolph et al., 2017). Race was found to have a negative moderating effect on the relationship between the Career Orientations variables of Autonomy (AU), Security/Stability (SE), General Management (GM), Service dedication (SV), Entrepreneurial/ Creativity (EC), and Life Style (LS), and the flourishing construct. However, race also was found to have a significant positive moderating effect on the relationship between the organisational commitment variables of affective and continuance, and the flourishing construct (Coetzee et al., 2015; Coetzee et al., 2017).

The results imply that race groups would not be a determinant or influence psychological well-being. However, race play a significant role in how different race groups view and understand risks associated with the choice to stay with or leave certain organisations (Stoermer et al., 2017). The current study showed that gender seemed to significantly moderate the relationship between some of the independent variables (dispositional constructs attributes) and the dependent variable (flourishing construct). The study found that gender has no influence on the relationship between the dispositional variables of positive affect and negative affect, the organisational commitment variables of affective, continuance, and normative, and flourishing (Evetts, 2017; Goleman, 2018).

Therefore, being male or female has no influence on the manner in which junior leaders express their emotions, how they tend to choose certain career orientations, or how they intend to stay committed to their respective organisations (Latif, 2010; Coetzee & Harry, 2014; Goleman, 2018). There were some significant mean differences in the observed effects of years of service. This implies that years of service acted as a significant moderating variable for the relationship between the independent variables (dispositional constructs attributes) and the dependent variable (flourishing construct). In this case, years of service was found to have a positive significant moderating effect on the relationship between the career orientations of autonomy and the flourishing construct. For the rank variable, the main effects were evident, but there were no interaction (moderating) effects.

#### 5.5.6.1 *Main findings: Synthesis*

The main findings showed that, overall, the hierarchical moderated regression analysis contributed to the development of the psychological well-being profile. The current results revealed that age, race, gender, and years of service were the main moderators between the key biographical information dispositional attributes and flourishing. The study showed that psychological well-being interventions should include race as a matter of importance, to eliminate any unfair labour relations practices that may arise during interventions addressing career and rank-level challenges.

Very importantly, Coetzee et al. (2015) and Coetzee et al. (2017) found a significant relationship between the career-related behaviour of junior leaders and their level of commitment towards their organisation. The study indicated that the years of service of junior leaders and their career orientations may provide a useful framework for examining career anchors that are related to organisational commitment levels (Smit 1992; Coetzee et., 2017; Donald et al., 2017; Ariza-Montes et al., 2018).

#### 5.5.6.2 *Counter-intuitive findings*

The results revealed no interaction effect between rank and the dispositional attributes in predicting flourishing of junior leaders. Even though many personnel need feelings of security at workplaces, the study showed that older people view predictable events and stable career progressions as determinants of their level of commitment (Schein, 2006; Segura-Camacho et al., 2017; Rozkwitalska, 2018). Junior leaders who are between 26-35 years old, which is regarded as the career-establishment phase (Super, 1990; Dawson & Phillips, 2013), dominated the study. In this phase, individuals tend to become motivated and somewhat anxious about their future developments, their next level of rank promotion, and future occupations.

#### **5.5.7 Research aim 5: Interpretation of the tests for significant mean differences results**

*For research aim 5, tables 5.30 to 5.33, and figures 5.13 o 5.22 are of relevance to this section.*

***To assess whether any significant differences exist between the sub-groups of biographical variables (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) that acted as significant moderators, the dispositional attributes, and the flourishing attribute***

This research aim relates to testing research hypothesis Ha5:

***There are significant differences between sub-groups of the biographical information that acted as significant moderators between the independent dispositional attributes and the dependent flourishing attribute.***

The results indicated that significant differences were observed of age and race on career orientations, organisational commitment, and flourishing group categories. Junior leaders dominated the current sample in their early stages of the career-establishment phase of 26-35 years old age group than the 18-25 old age groups (Super, 1990; Dawson & Phillips, 2013). This age group is considered to be entering the first level of employment settings and beginning to assimilate organisational settings (Adams & Bloom, 2017; Taneva & Arnold, 2018). In contrast, Nel and Villiers (2004) found out that where the majority of the junior leaders are younger than 28 years of age, the level of emotional affect tends to be higher. According to the findings, gender, years of service, and rank had no significance mean differences on the dispositional construct variables and flourishing, and also had no effect in predicting psychological well-being profile factors.

#### *5.5.7.1 Main findings: Synthesis*

Generally, the study indicated that biographical differences exist and should be considered when developing a psychological well-being profile. The biographical variables of age and race showed significant differences in moderation. This indicates that biographical information plays a vital role in the organisational setting and should be taken into account when deciding on the psychological well-being strategies that enhance flourishing. In this country, much of this biographical information is covered by the Bill of Rights, enshrined in the RSA Constitution 1996.

#### *5.5.7.2 Counter-intuitive findings*

No significant mean differences were observed between biographical characteristics of gender, years of service, and rank levels in predicting flourishing

### 5.5.7.3 *Synthesis: Developing a psychosocial well-being profile for junior leaders*

The central hypothesis of this study was that a dynamic relationship exists between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the positive psychological functioning attribute (flourishing). The study furthermore hypothesised that, based on the empirically derived dynamic relationship among the variables, an overall psychological well-being profile for junior leaders will be developed to inform flourishing and psychological well-being practices. Additionally, it is assumed that the junior leaders' biographical variables (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) will moderate the relationship between the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the positive psychological functioning attribute (flourishing). Furthermore, junior leaders of different ages, races, genders, years of service, and ranks will differ significantly in relation to their dispositional attributes and positive psychological functioning attribute.

***The significant results between the construct variables highlighted the following elements to be considered when developing flourishing practices;***

Generally, rank level does not play a significant role when personnel decide on certain career orientations or commitment strategies, or in terms of flourishing. A significant and positive relationship was evident between the career anchor of Technical function and Flourishing, indicating that those junior leaders who possess technical and general managerial skills tend to feel positive and would explore many career choices. Career orientations and organisational commitment attributes are important in predicting overall psychological well-being and flourishing of personnel.

The results of the hierarchical moderated indicates that age, race, gender, and years of service variables need to be considered when developing the psychological well-being profiles of junior leaders, since these variables acted as the main significant moderators between dispositional attributes and the flourishing attribute. The mean differences showed that age and race tend to influence how participants express their affection, which career anchors they tend to choose, and how they differ in terms of their level of organisational commitment. Finally, the results indicated that the main construct variables that constituted junior leaders psychological well-being profiles were their selected career orientations, and organisational commitment variables, which predicted how the juniors tend to flourish within an organisation. Based on the empirically tested psychological well-being profile, the

following interventions should be considered for flourishing practices: At a cognitive functioning dimension, interventions should include training and development initiatives that are geared towards capacity building and development of further general and technical competencies that will assist junior leaders to function to their fullest potential.

At an affective functioning dimension, junior leaders should be assisted in channelling their negativity towards flourishing and increasing positive opportunities that help them to develop the required knowledge, increase their career resilience, and adopt military culture and rituals (Life Style) as a way of life. These interventions should focus more on addressing rules, regulation, uniformity, and discipline as a way of instilling the military life style and positive postures.

At conative (motivational) functioning dimensions, junior leaders should increase their motivation to stay with an organisation. It also entails their psychological contract and an increase in commitment to the organisation. Training on emotional intelligence should be prioritised, and an awareness campaign on the junior leaders ability to manage their own careers should be developed.

At relations management dimensions, junior leaders should be assisted in working as a team, working in project management, and continuing to enhance their cooperativeness. Junior leaders should learn entrepreneurial and networking skills to solve organisational challenges as a team. In summary, figure 5.23 provides an overview of the psychological well-being profile that can be constructed to guide flourishing practices of junior leader.



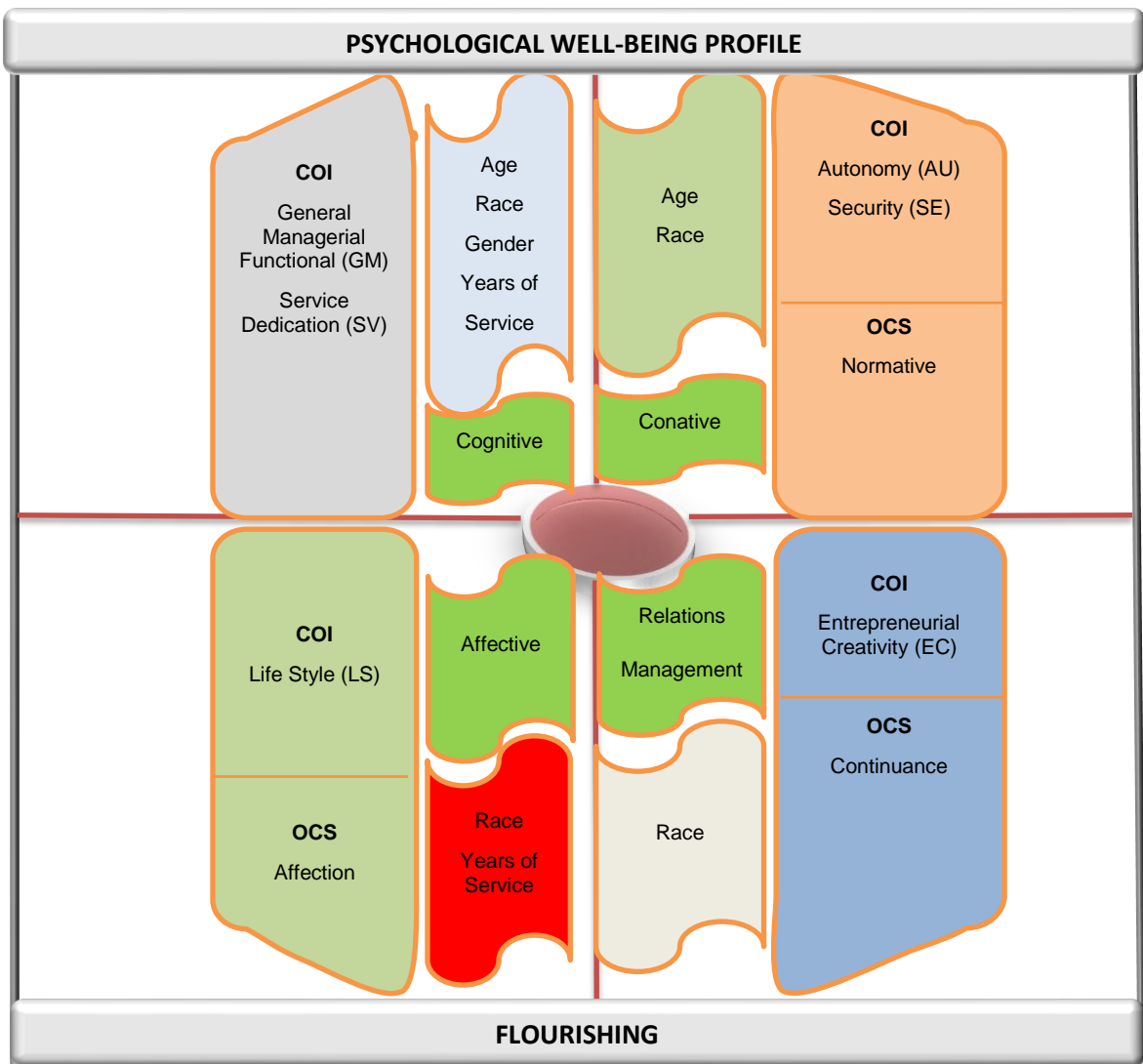


Figure 5.23: Empirically Manifested Psychological Well-Being Profile

## 5.6 Decisions regarding the research hypothesis

Table 5.34

### *Summary of Decisions Regarding the Research Hypothesis*

<b>Research Aims</b>	<b>Hypothesis</b>	<b>Research hypothesis</b>	<b>Statistical procedures</b>	<b>Supportive Evidence</b>
<b>Research Aim 1</b>	Ha1	There is a statistically significant positive inter-correlation between the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning) that constitutes an overall psychological well-being profile.	Correlation analysis	Yes
<b>Research Aim 2</b>	Ha2	The (independent variables) dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) significantly predicts (dependable variable) the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).	Multiple regression analyses	Partially
<b>Research Aim 3</b>	Ha3	The theoretically conceptualised psychological well-being profile has a good fit with the empirically manifested structural equational model.	Structural equation modelling	Yes
<b>Research Aim 4</b>	Ha4	Biographical information of age, race, gender, years of service, and rank moderate the relationship between the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).	Hierarchical moderated regression	Partially
<b>Research Aim 5</b>	Ha5	There are significant differences between sub-groups of the biographical information that acted as significant moderators between the independent dispositional attributes and the dependent flourishing attribute.	Tests for significant mean differences	Partially

This section summarised the key conclusions regarding the study. This completed all the steps in the empirical research, and the empirical research questions are considered to have been answered.

## **5.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

The aim of this chapter was to interpret the results from the empirical research on the nature of the statistical relationships established between the psychological dispositional attributes (Emotional affect, Career orientations, and Organisational commitment as a set of independent variables) and the positive psychological functioning (Flourishing as a dependent variable).

The general aim of the current study was to determine the relationship between junior leaders' emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment (psychological dispositional attributes), and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning). It also aimed to determine whether an overall psychological well-being profile can be developed to inform junior leaders' psychological well-being. Moreover, the study also aimed to determine if the biographical characteristics (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) for junior leaders significantly moderate the relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes and the flourishing attribute.

**Generally, the above general research aims were achieved**

**The following empirical research aims were achieved:**

**Research aim 1:** To investigate the nature of the statistical inter-correlational relationships between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning), as manifested in a sample of participants employed in the SANDF.

**Research aim 2:** To assess whether the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) significantly predict the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).

**Research aim 3:** Based on the overall statistical relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning), assess the fit between the elements of the empirically researched profile and the theoretically hypothesised models.

**Research aim 4:** To assess whether biographical variables (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) significantly moderate the relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).

**Research aim 5:** To empirically investigate whether significant differences exist between the sub-groups of the biographical variables that acted as significant moderators between the independent dispositional attributes and the dependent flourishing attribute.

*The following Chapter 6 will address the empirical research aim 6; namely, to formulate recommendations for psychological well-being and flourishing practices. The chapter also discusses some practical recommendations for IOP study and future research.*

## CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The chapter highlighted the conclusions and the limitations of the study and suggested recommendations for the practical application of the findings and for future research. It also addressed the empirical research aim 7, namely;

***To formulate recommendations for the psychological well-being and flourishing practices. And also, propose practical interventions for industrial and organisational psychology, psychological well-being, health and well-being practices and future research.***

### 6.1 CONCLUSIONS

In this section several conclusions were suggested, based on the literature and empirical research in relation to the research aims as outlined in chapter 1.

#### 6.1.1 Conclusions regarding the literature review

The general aim of the current study was to determine the relationship between junior leaders' emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment (psychological dispositional attributes), and flourishing attributes (positive psychological functioning), and whether an overall psychological well-being profile can be developed to inform junior leaders' psychological well-being. The study also aimed to determine if the biographical variables (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) for junior leaders significantly moderates the relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes and the flourishing attribute. The general aims were achieved by addressing and achieving the specific aims of the research. Conclusions were also drawn in relation to each of these specific aims.

#### **Conclusions regarding each specific literature aim of the study.**

6.1.1.1 *Research aim 1: To conceptualise psychological well-being for junior leaders in relation to emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment, and flourishing attributes in the military environment.*

This aim was achieved in chapter 2 (Meta-theoretical context of psychological well-being and dispositional attributes of junior leaders).

**The following conclusions are essential:**

The literature strongly indicated that junior leaders were vastly challenged by multiple career ambitions and available career information. These multiple career ambitions and information were accompanied by many career challenges and untimed constraints, including differing career and life stages. The current literature was in agreement with Cascio et al. (2003) and Adams and Bloom (2017) in that psychological well-being was described as an initiative that the organisation can employ to manage employees' health and well-being. It can also be regarded as a useful tool to assist personnel to remain committed to the organisation by rewarding them with benefits for performing their jobs effectively, and to ensure harmonious working relations between personnel and their leaders, while also maintaining a safe and healthy work setting (Rozkwitalska, 2018).

The literature found that in the current workplace settings junior leaders showed symptoms of being less positive about their current organisations, and they often felt that their organisations were neglecting or not caring about their overall psychological well-being (Worral & Cooper, 2014; Hefferon et al., 2017). The study revealed that junior leaders who were exposed to excessive stressful conditions tend to report depression, cognitive deficiencies, and unsatisfactory performance. It also indicated that they were often exposed to dangerous situations which were not conducive to flourishing (Ryff, 2018). In this study it was revealed that emotional affect, as explained within the context of the military environment, was explained by learnt attitudes and behaviours that are associated with the feeling of liking or disliking a command, instruction, event, or situation (Ivancevich et al., 2005; Allin & Hand, 2017; Hentschel & Kutscher, 2017).

Van Dyk (2015) and Marx and Liebenberg (2019) revealed that factors such as catastrophic events, peacekeeping or conventional warfare operations, stress, depression, inconsistency in career management amongst junior leaders, post-deployment stress, and suicidal thoughts were particularly disturbing trends that affect the overall well-being of military members. Moreover, the nature of the activities or operations that junior leaders engaged in exerted a large amount of stress or anxiety, which impacted negatively on junior leaders' overall psychological and physical well-being (Van Dyk, 2009; Defence Review, 2013; Marx & Liebenberg, 2019). The literature review revealed that other key challenges faced by junior

leaders were career disjuncture, coping with work demands, exploring talent, dynamic workplace structures, environmental stressors, organisational commitment, and promotion and career opportunities. The literature pointed out that most chosen career anchors tend to impact directly on individuals' psychological functioning and their strength (Super, 1990; Schein, 1990; Feldmann & Bolino, 2006; Coetzee et al., 2017). The current results indicated that more often than not, junior leaders reflected on their multiple career competencies, which are a key component for sustaining employability and promotion to the next level of responsibility (Bezuidenhout, 2010; Raza et al., 2018).

Therefore, since careers are becoming more boundaryless and multidirectional (Baruch, 2004), Myers and Diener (2018) study stressed the very important practice of creating further career choices which are congruent with a person's overall self-concept. The study concurs with Rothmann and Cooper (2015) and Yildirim and Belen (2018) research that psychological well-being tends to be a contributor to overall human flourishing. Furthermore, psychological well-being was regarded as one of the most important health and wellness initiatives needed to overcome the 21<sup>st</sup>-century work and health challenges faced by many organisations (Siberhagen et al., 2010; Abessolo et al., 2017a). In line with the current study's conclusions, Luthans (2002) and Farnia et al. (2018) showed that psychological well-being tends to embody the health, happiness, positive mental state, and strong character strength of an individual who is geared to enhancing performance within the workplaces.

Although research indicated that psychological well-being is a matter of personal health responsibility, Wright (2003; 2017) was of the view that part of the challenge facing many 21<sup>st</sup>-century organisations is their ability to take care of their personnel's psychological well-being, wellness, and overall health. The study showed that where career choices were congruent with a person's overall self-concept, there is a possibility that the image of the organisations they work for would improve - in this case, the SANDF posture was enhanced. Overall, the study also pointed out that the military organisation would rely on leaders – and not managers – to accomplish the primary missions and the multiple operational roles and functions (Jaiswal & Dhar, 2017; Myers & Diener, 2018).

Since the current study has shown that junior leaders' careers are actually shaped by their psychological state, social, family, organisation, and well-being factors, as well as by some external factors (Riforgiate & Komarova, 2017), it was also important to envisage a psychological well-being profile that embodies the flourishing of junior leaders for optimal performance. From the literature review, it emerged that there are several different definitions of psychological well-being:

- Psychological well-being was been defined as a broad positive mental state that includes emotional reactions, judgement, and satisfaction with life events, which impacts on the positive psychological functioning of an individual (Akhter et al., 2017; Goleman, 2018; Ryff, 2018).
- Psychological well-being included relatedness and human connections, self-assurance, self-acceptance, and self-confidence (Diener et al., 2010; Myers & Diener, 2018).
- It falls within the ambit of a scientific study that empower individuals to flourish while focusing more on their optimal expression of potentials through positive well-being, relationships, traits, and positive organisation commitment postures (Seligman & Csikszentimihaly, 2000; Schotanus-Dijkstra et al., 2019).
- Ryff (2018) defined psychological well-being as positive psychological functioning which is actually related to a person's positive affect.
- The WHO (2003; 2017; 2019) defined well-being as a person's overall health assessments in relation to job satisfaction and happiness about life in general.

6.1.1.2 *Research aim 2: To conceptualise the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and flourishing (positive psychological functioning) attributes by means of theoretical models in the literature.*

This aim was achieved in chapters 2 and 3 (conceptualising dispositional attributes and flourishing attribute as explained by the theoretical model).

**The following conclusions are essential:**

**(a) Conclusions relating to the construct of emotional affect**

Generally, emotional affect referred to the thinking and emotional reactions (positive-sympathetic or compassionate or negative-exhausting or resentment) that triggered a strong probability of incurring awareness and behavioural changes (Norman, 2004; Goleman, 2018; Goller, Steffen, & Harteis, 2018). Emotional attachment is usually linked to the belief that the identified reward strategies are justified by the aspiration to retain committed personnel and to be fair in the treatment of personnel (Döckel et al., 2006; Raza et al., 2018). The literature indicated that positive emotions and healthy and well-functioning junior leaders tend to be



more committed to their organisation and flourish (possess high energy/vitality) because their social and career needs were well catered for (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Yildirim & Belen, 2018).

Emotional affect was therefore defined as a state of physical or mental, positive or negative expressions about an event, person, situation, or object (Watson et al., 1988; Schotanus-Dijkstra et al., 2019). Positive affect would provide junior leaders with positive personal resources that prepare them for their long-term well-being and thriving (Fredrickson, 2001), while negative emotions tend to evolve over time and restricted thought-action processes (Houdmont, Leka, & Sinclair, 2012; Cordaro, Sun, Keltner, Kamble, Huddar, & McNeil, 2018). In actuality, negative emotional affect is necessary to trigger, guide, and motivate junior leaders to be able to deal with certain emotional and life setbacks (Fredrickson & Losada, 2005; Riforgiate & Komarova, 2017; Cordaro et al., 2018).

Rothmann (2009) cautioned that negative affect in the form of constant mood swings, irritability, or tiredness may hamper positive psychological functioning and individual ability to stimulate hope and positivity towards organisational performances. The study revealed that emotional affect is therefore regarded as an expression of feelings or emotional actions which tend to trigger response actions (Gregg & Seigworth, 2010; White, 2017). Positive affect is the emotional state of feeling joy, excitement, and contentment (Williamson & O'Hara, 2017). However, Yildirim and Belen (2018) found that, in most instances, a negative affect triggers feelings of sadness, stress, depression, anxiety, and unhappiness. The literature positively showed that junior leaders who reported a high positive affect tend to be more optimistic and maintain a positive posture in hardship (Riforgiate & Komarova, 2017; Schotanus-Dijkstra et al., 2019).

## **(b) Conclusions relating to the construct of career orientations**

The study indicated that career orientations would assist junior leaders to understand the patterns of their self-perceived talents, abilities, basic values, evolving motives, and needs, in order for them to make good career choices (Schein, 1990; Taneva & Arnold, 2018). Career orientations were found to embrace the abilities and activities that allow individuals to perform a realistic self-assessment of their own talents and capabilities in line with the organisation's opportunities (Cortés-Sánchez & Grueso-Hinestroza, 2017). Career anchors are therefore non-monetary elements that help individuals to choose the career most suited to them (Schein, 2000; Cortés-Sánchez & Grueso-Hinestroza, 2017).

Career orientation were defined as a broad concept that provides valuable information on what drives junior leaders' career motives and career choices (Coetzee et al., 2015; Coetzee et al., 2017; White, 2017). Career orientations require that individuals have ample time and opportunity to engage in a range of career choices and career self-management activities that create various options regarding their personal career resources, which will enhance their future employability prospects (Schotanus-Dijkstra et al., 2019). The study revealed that, currently, careers are becoming more transitional and more flexible. However, the dynamics of organisational career development are somewhat problematic. Feldman and Bolino (1996) and Cortés-Sánchez and Grueso-Hinestroza (2017) affirmed that when junior leaders find congruence between their careers preferences, work, organisation, and family, they achieve more desirable results. It can be concluded that junior leaders are facing a constant challenge to decide which careers will enable them to grow and apply their skills and talent in order to realise their potentials (Becton et al., 2017; Mueller et al., 2017)

Junior leaders must acquire the necessary skills and knowledge to enhance their psychological career resources and responsibility to manage their careers as effectively as possible (Taneva & Arnold, 2018). Therefore, it was important that junior leaders select career preferences which match their organisational career management and progressions systems, which allow them to flourish more (Feldman & Bolino, 1996; Cortés-Sánchez & Grueso-Hinestroza, 2017; Duffy et al., 2018). These career orientations may stimulate junior leaders to realise their psychological career resources, which enhance their potential, thoughts, feelings, and motives to remain committed to the course of action (Schein, 1996; White, 2017). The psychological career resources of junior leaders entail career preferences, career values, career motives, and career harmonisers which are needed by an individual to thrive (Coetzee, 2008; Coetzee, 2017).

### **(c) Conclusions relating to the construct of organisational commitment**

The study revealed that organisational commitment was linked to individuals' emotional commitment and the moral obligations that are geared towards a specific organisation (Mowday et al., 1982; Sheldon et al., 2019). Meyer and Allen (1991) conceded that, in many instances, organisational commitment has a psychological connection and conditions that differentiate relationships within an organisation, and also has repercussions for the choices that maintain membership to the organisation. Organisational commitment entailed a positive analysis and decision to stay within the organisation for a longer period (Sheldon, 1971).

The literature indicated a direct and positive collaboration between junior leaders' level of commitment and their health and well-being (Meyer, Maltin, & Thai, 2012; Rausch, Seifried, & Harteis, 2017). Organisational commitment was defined as a psychological function, and not a stagnated process, which describes how junior leaders were physically and emotionally connected to their current organisation, and if they intend to quit or stay (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993; Williamson & O'Hara, 2017). Meyer and Herscoted (2001) and Wang (2018) postulated that organisational commitment includes aspects of emotions, behaviour, and values which would add value to individuals' personal resources.

Organisational commitment can be explained as an emotional and psychological connection or psychological obligation (Marchiondo et al., 2018). The study successfully showed that organisational commitment was regarded as an ethical responsibility or an obligation towards an identified key objective, goal, or an organisation (Ferreira, 2009; Sheldon et al., 2019). Commitment was therefore regarded as an emotional attachment towards the organisation, and acknowledging the consequences related to leaving or staying in the organisation (Jonck et al., 2018; Engelbrecht et al., 2019).

Affective commitment as an attribute of commitment was defined as an emotional attachment to the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991; White, 2017), while normative commitment was regarded as a psychological contract between junior leaders and their organisation of choice, which tends to involve attractive elements such as rewards, involvement, and loyalty towards their current organisation (Sheldon et al., 2019). Organisational commitment consisted of inner feelings and other meanings of psychological commitment, satisfaction, motivations, and decisions related to career preferences (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009; Brown et al., 2018).

#### **(d) Conclusions relating to the construct of flourishing**

The study showed that flourishing is characterised by the self-esteem and resilience factors of positive psychological functioning and positive cognitive thoughts (Seligman, 2011). The study unearthed that, even though there were different ways to explain flourishing, it tends to bring forth many different patterns of positive feelings and positive psychological functioning. In other words, a flourishing junior leader would be able to manage their overall cognitive functioning, mental well-being, functioning effectiveness, and positively-inclined mind (Keyes, 2007; Ryff, 2018).

The literature concurs with Keyes' (2005) and Yildirim and Belen (2019). Findings that flourishing is a psychological syndrome of well-being which combined a good feeling (emotional well-being) and positive functioning (psychological and social well-being), which is important for military posture and culture (Nzozzo, 2017). The study found that flourishing was actually aimed more at individuals' ability to manage their work-related stressors effectively, demonstrating a high level of commitment to their organisation, performing at a high level, and being happier in life (Seligman, 2011; Sheldon et al., 2019). In the context of this study, flourishing was explained as positive psychological functioning which ignites positive thought processing, through which junior leaders can enhance their positive thoughts, strengthen resilience, and strengthen their military characters, while maintaining their positive mental health functioning in order to act on set objectives (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Rothmann, 2013; Ryff, 2018).

In line with, Dienier et al. (2010) and Rudovic et al. (2018), flourishing embraced psychological resources and cognitive functioning, and aims to optimise human and growth potential. The literature pointed to a gap in the relationship between demographic information of age, race, gender, years of experiences and different rank levels in relation to flourishing of junior leaders in the military environment (Niemic, 2018; Mensah, 2018). The study unearthed that, generally, flourishing embraced the characteristics of resilience, striving and thriving, well-being, and character strength, ultimately aiming to reduce life risks, unhealthy behaviour, and diseases, and prolonging life (Ryff, 2015; 2018).

*6.1.1.3 Research aim 3: To conceptualise the nature of the theoretical relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and flourishing attribute (positive psychological function), and to explain this relationship in terms of integrated theoretical models in the literature.*

This aim was achieved in chapters 2 and 3, and was to conceptualise the nature of the theoretical relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological function), and to explain this through integrated theoretical models in the literature.

**The following conclusions are essential:**

**(a) Conclusions relating to the theoretical relationship between emotional affect and flourishing**

If junior leaders were more positively inclined towards their career and able to adapt to the context of the military environment, it would be easier for them to commit fully to the organisation, make the most of new opportunities, and flourish. The study pointed out that Junior leaders would use their own and others' emotions to plan, motivate, and achieve their set career and life priorities (Colfax, 2010; Riforgiate & Komarova, 2017). The literature also provided a clear understanding of how emotions play a tremendous mediating role in building healthy and well-adjusted junior leaders.

**(b) Conclusions relating to the theoretical relationship between career orientations and flourishing**

The study revealed that junior leaders with well-developed and balanced career orientations would exploit career opportunities available in order to find a balance between life style and work, would show a stronger indication to remain committed to the mission and organisation, and would manage their career trajectories effectively (Ariza-Montes et al., 2018). Such junior leaders may view any challenges in their work or career world in a positive manner (Wong, 2017). Therefore, junior leaders with well-balanced career and work-life determinations, may be able to develop proactive career development plans to ensure that their next promotion and/or their next career life is balanced (Lee, 2018; Kleine et al., 2019).

Overall, career orientations were regarded as career anchors. Accordingly, career anchors are grounded on the construct of self-concept (Schein, 1978). Self-concept is an indication of person's career conscious, values and his or her motives (Coetzee, et al., 2017). The study showed that junior leaders who plan their careers carefully tend to develop confidence, remain committed, and select career anchors that will assist them in making the most of career opportunities and making certain life decisions which are in line with organisational decisions (Farnia et al., 2018).

**(c) Conclusions relating to the theoretical relationship between organisational commitment and flourishing**

Committed junior leaders would turn career opportunities and challenges into positive lived experiences that encourage the organisation to retain them because they feel positive and happy and satisfied (Donald et al., 2017; Papadimitriou et al., 2017). Most organisations are striving to improve on their returns, while at the same time meeting their personnel's needs and career aspirations in order to encourage them to stay committed to their current organisation for a longer period (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007; Kleine et al., 2019). The study revealed that since organisational commitment influences a person's feelings, values, convictions, and goals in terms of their current jobs (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009; Van der Walt, 2018), loyalty to the organisation seems to be directly associated with how well junior leaders are treated in times of career uncertainty and organisational changes, and also how their career aspirations are nurtured in view of them flourishing (Holbeche, 1997; Hughes & Half, 2009; Zang, 2018).

A well-developed psychological well-being profile showed junior leaders strong feeling of commitment towards the organisation. The literature indicated that junior leaders tend to remain emotionally committed (affective) to an organisation and would not willingly leave it, due to the benefits and the cost associated with commitment to the organisation (Janse van Rensburg, et al., 2017). Generally, junior leaders' career motives, values, and increased psychological resources have an impact on their career decisions and psychological commitments towards an organisation, and also have an impact when these junior leaders choose flourishing occupations (Feldman & Bolino, 2000; Ferreira, 2010; Van der Walt, 2018).

**(d) Conclusions relating to the overall theoretical relationship between the dispositional constructs attribute and the flourishing attribute**

The literature has shown that junior leaders who possess positive emotional affect are likely to choose those careers anchors that strengthen their positivity and optimism and help them gain promotions and improve on their health and social well-being (Cook & Geldenhuys, 2018). Additionally, they are committed to the organisation for a long time and avoid negative feelings that hampered their career progression (Meng et al., 2018). There were individual differences indicating how fast and how much junior leaders would change the

negative life events that impedes on their flourishing in order to reach their potential (Papadimitriou et al., 2017).

Furthermore, the literature confirmed that if junior leaders experienced positivity and there was greater congruence between their role expectations, strength, and self-concept, there was a possibility that they committed their personal efforts to achieve their personal and organisational goals and will then flourish more (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Van der Walt, 2018). Flourishing junior leaders were able to lead and provide constructive feedback to their subordinates and to their senior leaders while maintaining their positive psychological strengths (Rothmann & Cooper, 2015; Strauss et al., 2017).

*6.1.1.4 Research aim 4: To propose a conceptual psychological well-being profile for junior leaders based on the theoretical relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute, which may be used to inform psychological well-being practices.*

**The following conclusions are essential:**

The literature successfully established that, overall, the hypothesised psychological well-being profile was categorised into four dimensions: affective (emotional), cognitive (psychological/relatedness competencies), conative (motivational), and relations management (working relations in the organisation and with other workers). The results indicated that in terms of cognitive functioning, junior leaders tend to develop means to monitor their own and others' thinking, learned to study the emotions which facilitated positive thought processes (Meng et al., 2018). Junior leaders also enhanced their potential to make certain life and career decisions regarding general managerial and technical competencies, which propelled them in their bid to excel in the execution of given responsibilities (Barrett et al., 2019).

Overall, the study discovered that on an affective functioning dimension, flourishing tends to be influenced by positive and negative expressions of feeling (affect) aspects, life styles, service/dedication to a cause, and autonomous career anchors (Adams & Bloom, 2017; Coetzee et al., 2017). Furthermore, junior leaders were aware of their emotions and displayed different emotional expressions, which assisted them in resolving any psychological tensions and stressful situations that make the work environment unbearable and damaging for their well-being (Segura-Camacho et al., 2018).

At a conative functioning dimension, flourishing junior leaders were influenced by positive functioning experiences and continuance and normative commitment strategies which entice them to dedicate their experience, while taking their life style and service/ dedication to the cause seriously in order to find a fit between their chosen careers and jobs and the people they work with (Rudolph et al., 2017; Khoreva et al., 2018).

On the relations management dimension, flourishing junior leaders established and build relationships, and entrepreneurial skills of networks that enhanced their ability to flourish in life. Junior leaders then achieved positive psychological well-being state by being socially and emotionally connected, and accepted others as team members in their workplaces (Low, Bordia, & Bordia, 2016; Cook & Geldenhuys, 2018).

*6.1.1.5 Research aim 5: To evaluate how biographical characteristics influence the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).*

This aim was achieved in chapters 2 and 3. The aim was to evaluate how biographical characteristics influence the development of the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).

The following conclusions are essential:

**(a) Conclusions relating to the theoretical relationship between the emotional affect and biographical information**

- Junior leaders' emotional feelings tend to increase as they grew older (Khalili, 2012; Young & Burton, 2018).
- Junior leaders who are 25 and younger showed greater self-esteem with regards to their ability to achieve their set career goals and connect well with their intrinsic emotions when compared to those who are 56 years and older (Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010; Plate et al., 2018).
- Junior leaders with a self-compassionate attitude towards their life and behaviour indicated enhanced emotional well-being and contentment in life. They also fostered a positive mind-set encompassing elements such as happiness and



optimism, which in turn strengthened their psychological well-being and flourishing stances (Neff, 2011; Albertyn, Van Coller-Peter, & Morrison, 2018).

- The flourishing Junior leaders have greater chances of a balanced emotional attachment to an organisation work longer hours, and live positive personal and social lives (Keyes, 2002; Ryff, 2018).
- Junior leaders from different race groups managed their emotional expressions differently (Cordaro et al., 2018).
- Male and female gender groups expressed their emotions differently (Barrett et al., 2019).
- Long-service junior leaders experienced and expressed their emotions more often than younger and shorter-service participants (Sullivan & Willis, 2018).
- Short-term service junior leaders absorb their emotional setbacks more effectively than long-term serving junior leaders (Sullivan & Willis, 2018).

**(b) Conclusions relating to the theoretical relationship between the career orientations and biographical information**

- Junior leaders who were between 40 and 45 years old possessed managerial competencies, while those participants who were 30 to 39 years old possess management competence and entrepreneurship and prefer to work autonomously (Slabbert, 1987; Pradhan & Singh, 2017).
- Junior leaders from the African group preferred for security career anchor than other race groups (Sullivan & Willis, 2018; Rozkwitalska, 2018).
- Junior leaders who were already serving on a leadership level showed a preference for entrepreneurial skills that help them to build relationships and seek challenging careers (Rozkwitalska, 2018).
- Female junior leaders indicated a significantly stronger need for career opportunities that would enable them to flourishing when compared to their male counterparts (Pradhan & Singh, 2017)
- Female junior leaders in the group preferred managerial-type competencies on a greater scale than male participants (Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010; Raza et al., 2018).
- Older Junior leaders were more loyal and committed to the organisation than those junior leaders serving for a short term (Ferreira et al., 2010; Taneva & Arnold, 2018).

- Moreover, senior-ranking leaders serving for a long period of time were negative towards their subordinates (Moss & Duffy, 2010; Xu, Zhao, Li, & Lin, 2017).

**(c) Conclusions relating to the theoretical relationship between the organisational commitment and biographical information**

- The older junior leaders enhanced their positive emotional balances more often than the younger personnel (Ng & Feldman, 2010; Riforgiate, & Komarova, 2017).
- Junior leaders from the white race group showed less commitment to their organisation than other race groups, while junior leaders in the African race group were committed to their current organisation (Lumley et al., 2011).
- The study shows that males and females were equally committed to their organisations (Rozkwitalska, 2018).
- Junior leaders with long service records were more likely to remain committed to their current organisation than those personnel with shorter service records (Van der Walt, 2018).
- Senior-ranking personnel showed strong affective commitment because they are willing to commit to their organisation more times than other ranks (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Riforgiate & Komarova, 2017).

**(d) Conclusions relating to the theoretical relationship between the flourishing and biographical characteristics**

- Essentially, older junior leaders who possessed positive emotional experiences and positive mental states tend to flourish more (Steptoe et al., 2015; Niessen, Mäder, Stride, & Jimmieson, 2017).
- Moreover, older junior leaders were seen to be continuously increasing their positive emotional balances and commitment strategies more than young participants (Ng & Feldman, 2010; Marchiondo et al., 2018).
- Junior leaders from different race groups differed on how they view their way of flourishing in their life and careers (Marijke, Pieterse, Drossaert, Westerho, de Graaf, Have, Walburg, & Bohlmeijer, 2016; Woodson & Harris, 2018). Junior leaders from the white race group preferred safe and secured (tenure) careers more than junior leaders in the African/black race group, who tend to change jobs more often (Naidoo, 1993; Niessen et al., 2017).

- Junior leaders from different race groups differed in how they build personal resources that enable them to flourish well in life. Junior leaders from the white race group have more opportunities to flourish than those from other race groups (Steptoe et al., 2015; Raza et al., 2018).
- Moreover, male junior leaders were more actively committed to their military combat activities and environment than their female counterparts (Marx & Liebenberg, 2019). The male and female junior leaders differed on how they view flourishing (Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010; Qaiser et al., 2018). Furthermore, male and female junior leader groups differed in their career preferences and how they chose certain careers (Coetzee & Du Toit, 2012). Male junior leaders have more access to work and career opportunities in a male-dominated work station than females do (Bezuidenhout, 2010; Marchiondo et al., 2018).
- Male and female junior leaders differed in relation to how they intend to flourish (Woodson & Harris, 2018).
- Junior leaders with a long service period tend to differ in terms of how positive organisational behaviour and organisational citizenship behaviour contribute to their psychological well-being and how they flourish (Ali et al., 2018).
- Flourishing junior leaders needed more years of experience to learn to express positive emotions, rather than allowing negative emotions to rule (Larsen & Prizmic, 2008; Marchiondo et al., 2018). Meanwhile, older and longer-serving junior leaders showed more loyalty and committed to their current organisations than those serving for short periods (Ferreira et al., 2010 Qaiser et al., 2018).
- Junior leaders enhanced their general managerial competencies more in order to flourish than other same-ranking leaders (Keyes, 2002; Ali et al., 2018).
- Younger junior leaders show greater confidence in their ability to achieve their career goals and flourish than older junior leaders (Niessen et al., 2017).

6.1.1.6 *Research aim 6: To critically evaluate the implications of psychological well-being profile of junior leaders within the SANDF.*

This aim was achieved in chapter 2 and 3. The aim was to critically evaluate the implications of the psychological well-being profile of junior leaders.

The following seven conclusions are essential:

1. The literature showed that the implications of the current psychological well-being profile constructs for junior leaders affect all facets of psychological well-being. Since psychological well-being was seen as a predisposition or propensity to sustain the integration of the junior leaders' flourishing in the organisation, it was vital that these implications are not ignored. Psychological well-being was strongly regarded as a personal engagement with the real and existential challenges of lives, which aimed to enhance positive and optimal functioning in the organisation (Niessen et al., 2017; Woodson & Harris, 2018). Therefore, the current envisaged profile embracing dispositional and flourishing attributes would benefit the junior leaders and the organisation.
2. A psychological well-being profile was important and contributed to the understanding of junior leaders' overall well-being, and could be one of the mechanisms used to relieve personal stressors, depression, and many unbearable conditions at work stations. For this reason, it is essential not to overlook these implications (as indicated in the study) so that there is a thorough understanding of junior leaders' dispositional attributes and flourishing as an overarching premise of maintaining junior leaders' well-being and their potential optimisation.
3. As shown earlier, the chief aim striving for flourishing practices in the SANDF was to create awareness and inform training interventions on psychological and psychosocial well-being strategies, and may also be to introduce some personal psychological career resources management and career trajectories that would enhance flourishing among junior leaders.
4. Essentially, the current study has unearthed a number of psychological well-being and flourishing strategies, and many facets that contributed to the promotion of positive thinking, affective balance, solid cognitive functioning, human relations management, well-being, and growth potential of junior leaders (Diener et al., 2010; White, 2017; Ryff, 2018).
5. In light of the evidence, it is essential that the current department takes cognisance of the dispositional and flourishing elements and mechanisms that

contributed to the effective optimisation and utilisation of their junior leaders, in order to enhance their growth and potential, positivity, and overall well-being.

6. Not addressing the psychological well-being of junior leaders may hamper their positive thought process, commitment and degree of attachment, and flourishing, and ultimately resulted in a decline in career ambitions and increasing inclination to leaving the organisation in the future (Meng et al., 2018; Strauss et al., 2018; Marx & Liebenberg, 2019).
7. Junior leaders could benefit from psychological well-being interventions and practices, as these could help them manage career distractions, focus on their growth and development, and increase their career ambitions in a bid to flourish more.

### **6.1.2 Conclusions regarding the empirical study aims**

**In terms of the empirical study, the following empirical research aims were achieved:**

1. Aim 1: To investigate the nature of the statistical inter-correlational relationships between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning), as manifested in a sample of junior leaders employed in the SANDF. *This was achieved by empirically testing research hypothesis Ha1.*
2. Aim 2: To assess whether the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) significantly predicted the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning). *This was achieved by empirically testing research hypothesis Ha2.*
3. Aim 3: Based on the overall statistical relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning), assess the fit between the elements of the empirically-researched profile and the theoretically-hypothesised models. *This was achieved by empirically testing research hypothesis Ha3.*

4. Aim 4: To assess whether biographical variables (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) significantly moderate the relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning). *This was achieved by empirically testing research hypothesis Ha4 and Ha5.*
5. Aim 5: To empirically investigate whether significant differences exist between the sub-groups of the biographical variables that acted as significant moderators between the independent dispositional attributes, and the dependent flourishing attribute. *This was achieved by empirically testing research hypothesis Ha5.*
6. Aim 6: To formulate recommendations for psychological well-being and flourishing practices, and to propose practical interventions for industrial and organisational psychology, psychological well-being, health and well-being practices, and future research.

The applicable statistical processes were applied and the supportive evidence for hypotheses Ha1, Ha2, Ha3, Ha4 and Ha5 were addressed. The findings for each of the research aims and the hypotheses were presented as conclusions.

The following research-aim conclusions, which are in line with the research hypothesis, are drawn:

**6.1.2.1 *Research aim 1: To investigate the nature of the statistical inter-correlational relationships between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning), as manifested in a sample of participants employed in the SANDF.***

**This aim was achieved in chapter 5. The empirical results provided supportive evidence for research hypothesis Ha1.**

## **Conclusions:**

*There was significant inter-correlation between psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).*

### **(a) Conclusions relating to the empirical relationship between emotional affect, and flourishing**

The results indicated that there was a positive and significant correlation between the independent dispositional attributes and the dependent flourishing construct variable. These results suggested that negative emotions expressed, was a driver to choose suitable career anchors that motivated junior leaders to either stay committed or leave the organisation (Bozionelos & Singh, 2017). It was also revealed that the positive emotions expressed were significantly and negatively related to the overall flourishing attribute. The results indicated that emotions facilitated decisions and motivation to choose and maintain those careers that entice individuals to perform optimally and either stay or leave the organisation with a view to flourish (Strauss et al., 2018).

Overall, junior leaders who managed their own emotions and possessed high gravity of positive perceptions about their leadership capacity and career perspectives, were able to enhance their overall psychological well-being (Martínez-Martí & Ruch, 2017; Strauss et al., 2018). Positive-feeling junior leaders generated more positive thoughts that help them to manage their own careers which, in turn, assist them managing their psychological well-being and thereby flourish effectively (Nzozzo, 2017).

### **(b) Conclusions relating to the empirical relationship between career orientations and flourishing**

The sample group was dominated by junior leaders in the early stages of their career-establishment phase (middle adulthood life stage: 26 - 35 years), rather than by the group of individuals aged 18 to 25, which was the youngest group. In brief, those junior leaders feeling positive seem to be well-balanced with regards to their feeling of working independently/autonomously (AU) and entrenching their general

management (GM) capacity, in order to respond to their overall psychological well-being demands (Coetzee, 2017; Coetzee et al., 2017).

In the continually- changing military cultures, junior leaders needed the psychological career resources and capacity to establish themselves and increase their employability, which could include training, development, and possible capabilities deployments. Junior leaders who strive for growth, development, and authority, who took their careers seriously, and who are capable of facing, tracking, or acknowledging changing career preferences, are attached to the military environment (Marx & Liebenberg, 2019). The study showed that, besides their independence/autonomy (AU), junior leaders seemed to be networking more (entrepreneurial creativity) (EC), and are cautious about their general management capacity (GM) career anchor. Negatively-affected junior leaders would feel that, by attempting to control or influence their subordinates, they may change a demanding or undesirable situation to one less stressful (Joshnloo, 2017).

**(c) Conclusions relating to the empirical relationship between organisational commitment and flourishing**

The strong relationship between career anchors and organisational commitment were an indication that junior leaders showed a strong need for being autonomous/independent workers and being more involved in executing some of their managerial and technical functional competencies effectively, which entice their level of commitment (Coetzee et al., 2017). Therefore, junior leaders who know their career paths fit and linked well to the organisation and tend to stay longer (Sullivan & Willis, 2018). Junior leaders in managerial positions think twice about the costs involved when faced with a decision to leave or stay within the organisation (Janse van Rensburg et al., 2017).

Moreover, junior leaders with a higher drive and who can adapt in the military managed their negative emotions and connect well with their subordinates, while seniors experienced stronger affections of belonging in organisation (Marx & Liebenberg, 2019). Junior leaders who take career challenges seriously may sacrifice their needs to remain with the organisation, which have a positive impact on their ability to flourish and be beneficial to the organisation (Nzonzo, 2017; Segura-Camacho et al., 2018).



**6.1.2.2 *The second aim: To empirically assess whether the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) attributes significantly predict the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).***

This was achieved in chapter 5. Supportive evidence was provided for research hypothesis Ha2.

**a *Conclusions relating to career orientations competencies as a significant predictor of flourishing.***

**On the basis of the empirical results, the following conclusion can be drawn:**

Some of the career anchors competencies predicted junior leaders ways of flourishing, while other career anchors are not positively and significantly seen to predict flourishing. The results suggest that the career orientations of autonomy (AU), general management (GM), and security (SE) are an indication that junior leaders' positive feelings and their commitment could contributed to flourishing (Coetzee et al., 2015; Bozionelos & Singh, 2017; Rothman, 2015). These results showed that, the Technical/Functional (TF) competence anchor exposes junior leader's strong need for career specialisation in their area of learned expertise (Schein, 2006). Therefore, junior leaders with well-developed emotional awareness and career orientations will probably be concerned about their career mobility, involvement, and future operational deployments (Coetzee, 2008; 2011; 2017; Zhang, 2018).

Furthermore, these junior leaders explored possible ways to enhance their well-being in order to alleviate stress, depression, moods, anger, and dissatisfaction (Akhtar et al., 2017). Therefore, this study successfully showed that junior leaders' career choices and years of experience significantly and positively predict their career movements and overall psychological well-being in view of flourishing (Wiernik et al., 2018). Therefore, junior leaders career anchors should be regarded as important in explaining career satisfaction and commitment to their current organisation for longer periods (Alreshidi, 2018).

Should junior leaders perceive that chosen career anchors enhance their fit with the job or organisation and social connections, there was the possibility that they could develop an inner drive or motivation to attempt to deal responsibly with the undesirable events or situations that hamper their psychological well-being (Akhtar et al., 2017). They also might use these career resources to sharpen their future to approach flourishing positively.

**(b) Conclusions relating to organisational commitment strategies as a significant predictor of flourishing.**

**On the basis of the empirical results, the following conclusion can be drawn:**

Organisational commitment strategies (Affective, Continuance, and Normative) significantly predict flourishing. Junior leaders who show high levels of curiosity in their health and well-being could experience strong positive affection and commitment to their current organisation (Ahmed & Bashir, 2017). Junior leaders with managerial preferences and who strive for autonomy in their job or career would probably experience strong feelings of commitment, and flourishing in their career and life (Farnia et al., 2018).

Moreover, capacitated junior leaders with positive affect and career orientations may feel the need to commit fully to their organisation, work teams, deployment groups, and their families (Janse van Rensburg et al., 2017). These junior leaders felt connected to their feelings of involvement and feel the need to improve their health and well-being, while taking cautious account of the cost associated with leaving their job and organisation (Jacobs & Van Niekerk 2017; Janse van Rensburg et al., 2017).

The three organisational commitment variables of affective, continuance, and normative are best associated with the flourishing of workers, and in turn with their psychological well-being. If the military organisation provides resources and career path opportunities for their junior leaders, and enhances their psychological well-being, there is the possibility of them committing to their organisation for a longer period, which would contribute to their flourishing (Bozionelos & Singh, 2017; Nzonzo, 2017).

Junior leaders who thrive and who are motivated tend to be the catalysts in their work stations and are more likely to remain with their current organisation, because they regard the repercussions of leaving the organisation as costly (Janse van Rensburg et al., 2017; Segura-Camacho et al., 2018). Overall, the results revealed that junior leaders tend to view the career anchors of functioning independently (autonomy) and life style as a way to foster their comfort and commitment for longer periods.

**6.1.2.3    *The third aim: Based on the overall statistical relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning), assess the fit between the elements of the empirically-manifested structural model and the theoretically-hypothesised profile.***

This was achieved in chapter 5. Supportive evidence was provided for research hypothesis Ha3.

**Conclusion relating to the structural equation model:**

***A psychological well-being profile included affective functioning, cognitive functioning, conative functioning dimensions, and relations management, coupled with biographical information that should be considered when developing psychological well-being practices and interventions for junior leaders.***

At the *cognitive functioning dimension*, psychological well-being practices were informed by junior leaders' dispositional attributes of General Management function (GM) Service/dedication to a cause (SV), and flourishing attribute. The study showed that the General Management functions (GM) and Service/ dedication to a cause (SV) career anchors would indicate those junior leaders' management capabilities, including learned years of services tend to have a positive effect on how they would flourish. It is clear from the study that junior leaders' age and growth, possible promotion to next level of management echelon, and fitness in the organisation create cognitive commitment that complements other areas of their life, such as how they relate to other race groups and how they would flourish (Holtom & O'Neil, 2004; Potgieter et al., 2017).

On an *affective functioning dimension level*, psychological well-being practices were informed by junior leaders' years of experiences, and their negative affect and Life style (LS) affective commitment and flourishing attribute. Junior leaders possessing a higher level of ability to manage and utilise their emotions within the career context enhance their psychological well-being, and could also assist the SANDF to motivate other potential personnel to stay committed (Martínez-Martí & Ruch, 2017).

On a *conative functioning dimension level*, psychological well-being practices were informed by junior leaders' Security (SE), Autonomy (AU) normative commitment and flourishing attributes. It is important to note that many career resources interventions should consider age and race relationship factors that could help junior leaders understand how to forge their self-management and growth potentials in a variety of operations, and possibly to remain motivated to commit to their organisation in view to flourishing (Gray 2018; Ryff, 2018).

On *relations management dimension*, psychological well-being practices are informed by junior leaders' Entrepreneurial Creativity (EC), continuance commitment and flourishing attribute. It is very important to note that effective relations, management of race relations, and social connection with family, seniors, subordinates, and clients would enhance individuals' positive feelings of security and autonomy, which may have a positive effect on their organisational commitment (Strauss et al., 2017; Ali et al., 2018). It is also essential that the organisations help junior leaders find a fit in the organisation and assist them in dealing with the connection and sacrifices associated with the work situation, family, and clients (Papadimitriou et al., 2017). The results of the structural model on junior leaders' psychological well-being illustrated that junior leaders would have a sense of personal responsibility and control over their future careers, as well as feelings of attachment, and may explore possible career paths to pursue their career aspirations.

These junior leaders would positively relate their ability to stay attached and, in many instances, would better fit in with the job and the organisation (Adams & Bloom, 2017). Should junior leaders feel negative and perceive a bad fit with their job or organisation, there is a possibility that they might not have the confidence and inner drive or motivation to attempt to deal responsibly with undesirable setbacks (Meng et al., 2018). A possible reason for this is that the junior leaders were concerned about the costs involved when making a decision to leave or stay within the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Strauss et al., 2018). The psychological well-being profile may assist in managing or explaining personal fit with the work group, job, or organisation as an aspect of their careers.

**6.1.2.4 The fourth aim: To assess whether biographical variables (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) significantly moderate the relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).**

This was achieved in chapter 5. Supportive evidence was provided for research hypothesis Ha4.

***Age, race, gender, and years of service acted as the main significant moderators between dispositional attributes and the flourishing attribute.***

**(a) Conclusions relating to the empirical significance of age**

The current study indicated that age played a significant role in moderating the relationship between the independent variables (dispositional constructs attributes) and the dependent variable (flourishing construct attribute). The study showed that the department can make use of the majority of the junior leaders who are between 26 and 35 years old to steer interventions and lead organisational growth and career-development initiatives. Moreover, age was found to facilitate the relationship between the feelings of functioning independently and how general managerial experiences could assist junior leaders to flourish (Coezee et al., 2015; Ariza-Montes et al., 2018). Age also influenced the way in which junior leaders express or manage their own emotional experiences, specifically when executing commands and control in the military environment (Coetzee et al., 2017; Khoreva et al., 2018).

**(b) Conclusions relating to the empirical significance of race**

Race also played a significant role in moderating the relationship between the independent variables (dispositional constructs attributes) and the dependent variable (flourishing construct attribute). The study indicated that the organisation should have affirmative action and employment equity policies (Employment Equity Act, 98 of 1998) in place when addressing the issues of careers, promotions, and leadership development in the department. Race played a significant role when management manages relationships and change-management interventions to pave the way for their personnel's psychological well-being (Stoermer et al., 2017).

**(c) Conclusions relating to the empirical significance of gender**

Gender significantly moderated the relationship between the dispositional constructs and the flourishing construct. Junior leaders' gender has an impact on his or her career orientations and organisational commitment strategies, which may include the manner in which they prefer to give their best in their career direction (Sullivan & Willis, 2018). The current results revealed that females and males appeared to be better at managing their own emotions, and exploring commitment strategies simultaneously (Coetzee et al., 2017). Therefore, gender has an influence on the manner in which junior leaders deal with emotions and how they choose certain careers, or how they intend to stay committed to their respective organisations (Employment Equity Act, 98 of 1998; Latif, 2010; Coetzee & Harry, 2014; Coetzee, 2017; Janse van Rensburg et al., 2017).

**(d) Conclusions relating to the empirical significance of years of service**

The personnel's years of service acted as a significant moderating variable for the relationship between the independent variables (dispositional constructs attributes) and the dependent variable (flourishing). Junior leaders experiences and exposure to organisational values, culture, and rituals have an impact on how they tend to flourish and how they predict their future work settings (Duffy et al., 2018; Gray, 2018). In this case, the number of years that the junior leader has worked in the organisation and been attached to the organisational functions and leadership positions has an impact on how they would flourish and shape their life style around their potential growth (Gray, 2018; Marx & Liebenberg, 2019).

**6.1.2.5 *The fifth aim: To assess whether any significant differences exist between the sub-groups of biographical variables (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank) that acted as significant moderators between the dispositional attributes and the flourishing attribute***

This was achieved in chapter 5. Supportive evidence was provided for research hypothesis Ha5.

***Significant differences exist between the sub-groups of biographical variables of age and race that acted as significant moderators between the dispositional attributes and flourishing attribute***

**(a) Conclusions relating to the empirical significance of age**

The results indicated that significant differences were observed with relation to the effect of age on positive and negative affect, career orientations, organisational commitment, and flourishing group categories. Therefore, the biographical variable of age showed significant differences in moderation (Coetzee et al., 2017; Mwangi, 2017). The study indicated that junior leader's age may influence the way in which they relate to their peers and co-workers and how they flourish (Myers & Diener, 2018). Older junior leaders with stable career anchors and a having variety of creative ideas at their workplaces are likely to be committed to the life activities for long periods, while young junior leaders' careers change often (Coetzee et al., 2017; Khoreva et al., 2018). Therefore, older junior leaders viewed negative emotions and potentially stressful events as thrilling and inspiring instead of as unhealthy and distractive (Daka & Tamira, 2019).

**(b) Conclusions relating to the empirical significance of race**

The results indicated that significant differences were observed for junior leaders in terms of the effect of race on positive and negative affect, career orientations, organisational commitment, and flourishing race group categories (Rozkwitalska, (2018). Therefore, the biographical variable of race should be considered when organisations embark on change-management interventions and career-development initiatives for their personnel. The aforementioned strategy will be in line with affirmative action and employment equity act policies, which aim to balance and promote equity and fairness in the organisation. Different race groups indicated that they tend to overcome adversity and manage career choices and commitment barriers differently (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2008; Coetzee et al., 2017; Khoreva et al., 2018; Kleine et al., 2019).

**6.1.2.6** *The sixth aim: To formulate recommendations for the psychological well-being and flourishing practices. And, also propose practical interventions for industrial and organisational psychology, psychological well-being, health and well-being practices, and future research.*

The current chapter 6 summarised the empirical research aim 6. The chapter also discussed some conclusions and some practical recommendations for IOP study and future research. Supportive evidence was provided for research hypotheses Ha1, Ha2, Ha3, Ha4, and Ha5.

**6.1.3** **Conclusions relating to the central hypothesis**

The central hypotheses of the study stated that the relationship dynamics between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the positive psychological functioning attribute (flourishing) will constitute a psychological well-being profile for junior leaders, which can be utilised to nurture the career enrichment, flourishing, and psychological well-being practices of junior leaders. Additionally, junior leaders' biographical information (age, race, gender, years of services, and rank) moderated the relationship between the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the positive psychological functioning attribute (flourishing). Furthermore, significance differences existed between the sub-groups of biographical variables that acted as significant moderators between the dispositional attributes and the flourishing attribute. Both the literature review and the empirical study provided evidence in support of the central hypothesis. The central hypothesis is, therefore, accepted.

**6.1.4** **Conclusions relating to the field of industrial psychology**

Below are several conclusions.

**6.1.4.1** *Conclusions in terms of the literature review*

The results from the literature review were important contributors to the field of industrial and organisational psychology, the military environment, and to those organisations with similar structure and flourishing practices. The literature review indicated that dispositional attributes and biographical information are firmly related to the concept of flourishing junior leaders. Moreover, the literature review provided a new insight into various theoretical concepts that



contribute to the psychological well-being concept, emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment, and the flourishing construct.

The literature provided insight into the elements that have to be considered when developing flourishing strategies. The results showed that organisations and industrial and organisational psychology practitioners must focus more on the concepts and theoretical models that influence the variables of the dispositional and flourishing factors. Based on the literature review, a provisional psychological well-being profile was developed, consisting of four dimensions (cognitive, affective, conative functions, and relations management), which should form part of the psychological well-being profile for junior leaders. The empirical study results pointed out the variables that would contribute most when explaining those constructs that acted as predictors of the flourishing variable. The (independent variable) dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) significantly predicted (dependable variable) the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning).

#### *6.1.4.2 Conclusions in terms of the empirical study*

The empirical study showed how junior leaders' psychological well-being can be developed to create a broader perspective and understanding of how junior leaders flourishing strategies can be initiated. The current findings should assist junior leaders to address their career development and concerns about their careers orientations/preferences, which may in turn have a positive impact on their health and well-being. In line with above, the organisations should keep abreast of any new career-development tactics and incentives to keep personnel committed within their organisations. The results of the correlational analyses showed that the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) are significantly related to the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning). These elements are crucial in the construction of an overall psychological well-being profile for flourishing practices.

The results also showed that the multiple regression analysis elements were important and significant predictors of flourishing junior leaders. The structural model highlighted the cognitive, affective, conative functions, and relations management as the cornerstone for developing a psychological well-being profile of junior leaders. Overall, the results showed that both the literature reviewed and the empirical results contributed new knowledge to the fields of both industrial and organisational psychology, developing a psychological well-being profile, and, mainly, in designing flourishing practices for junior leaders.

#### 6.1.4.3 *Conclusions regarding the field of industrial and organisational psychology*

In light of the above, the literature review provided valuable theoretical information about junior leaders in the military environment and their psychological well-being. It also showed how they manage and express their emotions, how they choose certain careers, and how they develop certain commitment strategies with the intention to flourish in life. The literature relates and linked the selected psychological dispositional and flourishing constructs together, and provided new knowledge on the psychological well-being of personnel. This knowledge was important for practitioners when they established environments conducive to psychological well-being practices. Moreover, practitioners should consider the theoretical models of emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment with the biographical information of age, race, gender, and years of service when designing interventions.

Furthermore, practitioners should continue paying more attention to the psychometric properties (reliability and validity) of different measuring instruments (SPANE, COI, OCS, and FS) prior to applying them, chiefly within the South African organisational settings. The industrial psychologist should initiate interventions that enable individuals to be aware of their and others' emotions, and bring forth the career orientations that will help them to improve the psychological well-being of personnel, increase cohesion and capacity building, and build relationships with an aim to flourish more. Industrial psychologists should also conduct career counseling and mentoring for junior leaders and remove uncertainty about their career choices and environment.

Junior leaders should be given a chance to choose careers that are attractive and in line with their personal goals, and provide constructive feedback that is clear and comprehensive, in a supportive and unthreatening environment. When the above is implemented, the majority of junior leaders will function independently and apply career decision-making strategies that will guide them to flourish and manage their overall psychological well-being.

## **6.2 LIMITATIONS**

The following section discusses the limitations of the literature review and the empirical study conducted:

### **6.2.1 Limitations of the literature review**

- The study was conducted in the purely military environment, and may therefore not provide a general indication in terms of the problem of the psychological well-being in all South African organisations. Although a wide range of studies on psychological well-being have been conducted, there is little research has been conducted on junior leaders or managers in the South African military context.
- Little or no research has been conducted on the relationship between dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment), the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning), and the highlighted biographical variables (age, race, gender, years of service, and rank).
- The literature review was limited to the following instruments: Scale for Positive and Negative Experiences (SPANE) instrument developed by Diener et al. (2010); Career Orientations Inventory (COI) (Schein, 1990); Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS) (Meyer & Allen, 1993), and Flourishing Scale (FS) developed by Diener et al. (2010).
- There has been limited research conducted on the junior leaders' psychological well-being and how they flourish, specifically in the military context. This limitation made it difficult to refer to previous literatures.

### **6.2.2 Limitations of the empirical study**

- Although the current study was well balanced in terms of the demographics of the sample, it may be difficult to generalise its finding on a broader scale since the study was conducted in a purely military environment.
- The dependent variable was limited to the one construct of flourishing. The inclusion of other construct variables might influence the results in different ways.

- The biographical information was limited to age, race, gender, years of service, and rank. The inclusion of other biographical variables might influence the results differently.
- The current measuring instruments (SPANE, COI, OCS, and FS) were primarily based on the personal opinions, perceptions, and experiences of the participants, which may have influenced the validity of the research results

Despite the above-mentioned limitations, the study provided insight into the factors that influence emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment, and the flourishing variable, as well as their association with a view to develop a psychological well-being profile for junior leaders.

### **6.3 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

In accordance with the university ethics committee, Bill of Rights, and the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998, the researcher selected psychological instruments that were regarded as valid, fair, and reliable. The researcher obtained permission to use the assessment from the relevant authors. The results were also used for research purposes only. The Health Professions Council of South Africa's (HPCSA) ethical guidelines and standards and the University of South Africa (UNISA) Policy on Research Ethics were adhered to. Ethical clearance was obtained from the UNISA IOP research ethics committee (Refer to appendix B).

Permission to conduct research was obtained from the Chief Director of Defence Intelligence (Refer to appendix A) and the General Officer Commanding, Training Command (GOC, TRG COMD), as well as to access learning institutions (SANWC, CECE, CCDT, PS School), where the majority of personnel are working as junior leaders. The specific morals and general ethical principles of the particular institution where the research was conducted were adhered to. The researcher informed participants of the ethical rules, and they were advised to report any unethical conduct or behavior to either the UNISA IOP research ethics committee or HPCSA. Psychometric battery questionnaires were administered in a paper-based form. All participants' information was treated with respect and confidentiality.

## **6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS**

In this section, a number of recommendations regarding the field of industrial psychology and further research in this field are highlighted and discussed.

### **6.4.1 Recommendations for the field of industrial psychology**

The main aim of the study was to determine the relationship between junior leaders' emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment (psychological dispositional attributes), and the flourishing attributes (positive psychological functioning), and to establish whether an overall psychological well-being profile can be developed to inform junior leaders' psychological well-being. The study also aimed to determine if biographical information (age, race, gender, and years of service) significantly moderates the relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes and flourishing attribute.

The research findings regarding the relationship of the constructs under study are that organisations should consider emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment practices when implementing individual interventions. The findings provided valuable insights in response to the stated research aims. The current study findings highlighted the significance of bringing forth interventions and practices that will strengthen career development, emotional affect, career orientations, and commitment strategies, and that will enhance both the psychological well-being and flourishing of junior leaders. Research has shown that both psychological well-being and the flourishing concepts have the propensity to increase junior leaders' performance and health optimisation (Rothmann, & Cooper, 2015; Myers & Diener, 2018; Van der Walt, 2018). Figure 6.1 and table 6.1 provide a summary of the discussions on flourishing and psychological well-being profile interventions and practices on both individual and organisational levels.

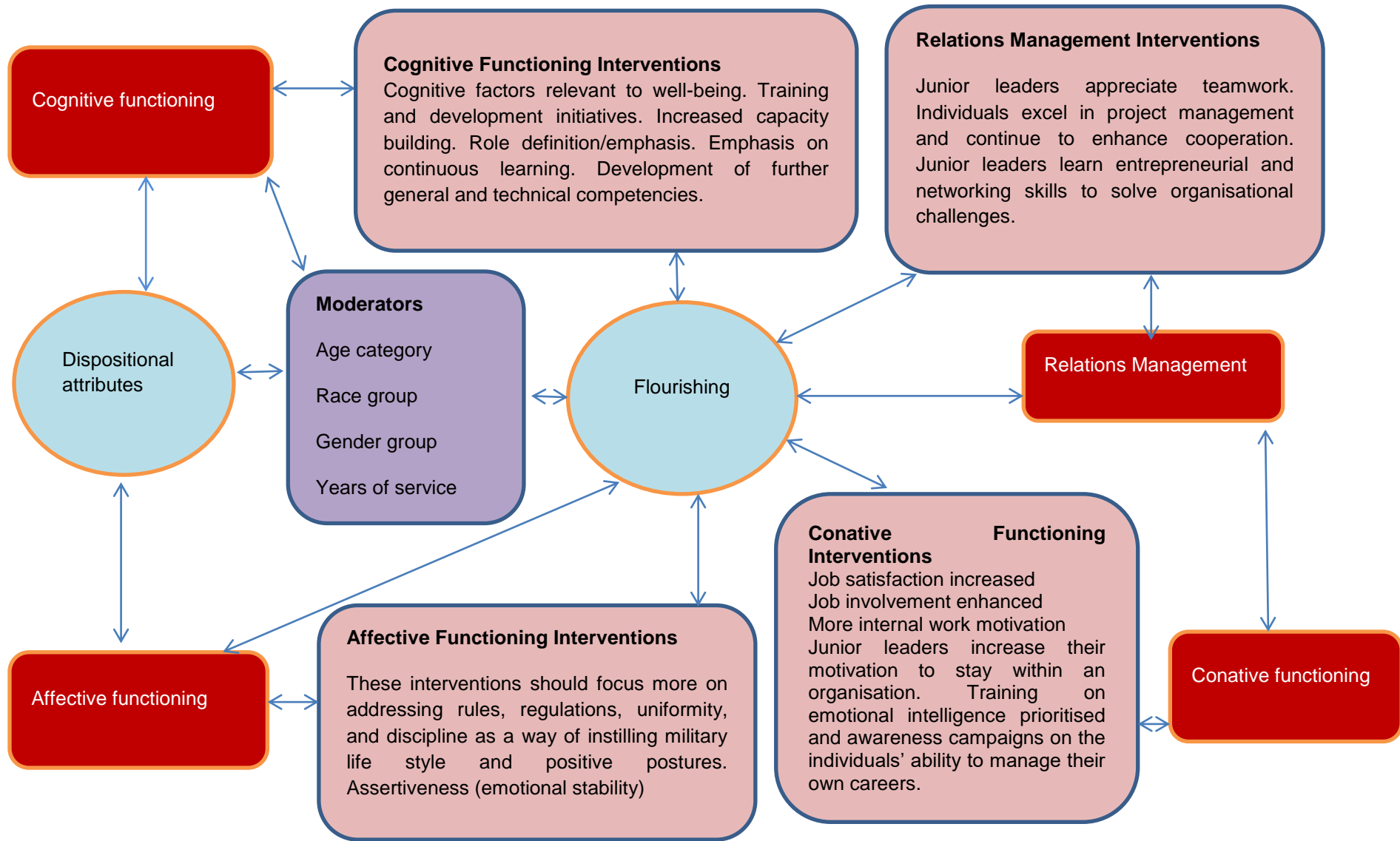


Figure 6.1: Overview of the dispositional interventions

Table 6.1

Summary of Recommended Interventions

INDIVIDUAL LEVEL				
SPANE	COI	OCS	Biographical Information (BI)	FL
<b>Cognitive functioning dimension</b>	General management functional (GM)		Age	Flourishing
	Service/ dedication to a cause (SV)		Race Gender Years of service	
	<p>There was an increased motivation for well-being and career development. Junior leaders participate in a learning environment and grow further. Junior leaders orientate themselves to different career anchors. Junior leaders found a balance between emotional stability, health, and well-being. Junior leaders with managerial preferences who strive for independence experience strong</p>		<p>Junior leaders in the early stages of career establishment (26 - 35 years) engaged in career, life, and leadership development. Male and female participants need similar cognitive and technical capacity development to grow. Junior leaders with more than 5 but less than 10 years of experience tend to engage in capacity development and enhance their managerial competencies.</p>	<p>Junior leaders learned to arrange a range of cognitive learning experiences that pave the way for their flourishing.</p>

	feelings of commitment, control, and challenge in their careers.				
<b>Affective functioning dimension</b>	Negative affect	Life style (LS)	Affection	Race Years of service	Flourishing
	Junior leaders used negativity or rejection as a motivator for flourishing. Junior leaders used positive opportunities to enhance and promote military culture and rituals.	Junior leaders harnessed value and life style (LS). Junior leaders are empowered to be autonomous leaders or to be independent thinkers.	Junior leaders were positively inclined towards their general and technical capacity. Junior leaders showed affective commitment towards their organisation. Individuals show high levels of curiosity in careers. Junior leaders experience strong feelings of emotional attachment to the organisation. Junior leader's emotional commitment is enhanced by strengthening sources of social support, particularly from psychosocial groups.	Different race groups and expressed emotions differently. Junior leaders with long service records tend to manage emotions differently than those with short service records.	Junior leaders with a high score on positive emotional affect found ways to challenge life and manage the expectations, which would pave ways for flourishing.
<b>Conative functioning dimension</b>		Security (SE) Autonomy (AU)	Normative	Age Race	Flourishing
		Junior leaders were	Junior leaders with	Junior leaders from	Junior leaders with



	<p>being motivated to enhance flourishing. Junior leaders learned to deal with demanding or undesirable situations. Negatively-influenced Junior leaders use positive affect as a drive or motivation. Should the Junior leaders perceive a low fit with the job or within the organisation, they grow the confidence and inner drive or motivation to attempt to deal responsibly with the undesirable situation.</p>	<p>multiple career anchors remain committed to their current organisations. Junior leaders felt that their health and psychological well-being are well looked after.</p>	<p>different age groups were motivated and learned to be flexible and to adapt to the changing organisational settings, culture, and values, and strive to improve work performance. An employment equity action plan with race as a factor is to be considered when providing development opportunities and retaining valuable junior leaders.</p>	<p>high positive emotional affect select appropriate career anchors and commitment strategies that enhance their career paths and continue to stay committed to their respective organisations.</p>
<p><b>Relations management dimension</b></p>	<p>Entrepreneurial Creativity (EC)</p>	<p>Continuance</p>	<p>Race</p>	<p>Flourishing</p>
	<p>Junior leaders' overall career management was shown by their sense of personal control over their further</p>	<p>Junior leaders who thrive on challenge are motivated to become catalysts in their organisation in order to</p>	<p>Junior leaders should learn to work with different race groups in order to increase teamwork and group efforts.</p>	<p>A strong positive affect of relationship results proved that positive emotions tend to be a basis</p>

training and vocational development. Junior leaders showed career curiosity by exploring possible selves and future career scenarios. Junior leaders showed tendencies to cooperate with other workers in their career management. Career support structures and continuous career counseling enhances junior leaders' self-concept.

flourish more. Junior leaders were poised to remain with their current organisation because they take cognisance of the costs of leaving.

Junior leaders monitor their emotional affect and social bonding to increase cohesion.

for flourishing instead languishing of

#### ORGANISATIONAL LEVEL

- The study showed that The SANDF should appreciate junior leader's efforts to redefine careers and recognise the best practices which are required to pave the way for individuals to grow and develop further.
- Junior leaders tend to experience emotional attachment to the organisation when their career aspirations, abilities, and values are congruent to the workplace settings, when their needs for career movements in the organisation are managed well, and they have ample opportunities to prosper.
- In order to increase motivation for career development, organisations need to create a learning environment in which junior leaders could orientate themselves to different career anchors that will enhance their emotional stability, health, and well-being.
- The SANDF should consider introducing an appropriate junior leadership development paradigm that includes psychological well-being, so that these junior leaders can be sensitive towards their subordinates and respond positively to their senior leaders.

- In order to increase flourishing prospects, the SANDF should consider revising their current career-development structures.
- The SANDF should develop clear career-advancement opportunities and provide career orientation and support structures that junior leaders can access in order to flourish.
- The SANDF leaders should consider aligning career opportunities with the junior leadership development programme, and also allow these junior leaders to participate in well-being training and career development opportunities.
- The SANDF should consider applying strategies, incentives, and various career paths and promotional paths that are consistent with the junior leaders' underlying capabilities, years of experience, skills, attitude, and behaviour, in order to retain valuable junior leaders and encourage them to remain committed.
- The SANDF should explore the extent to which junior leader's health and well-being are being managed and eliminate those negative factors that increase stress and depression and tend to dislodge personnel's future endeavours.
- The SANDF should consider using the Scale for Positive and Negative Experiences Scale (SPANE), Career Orientations Inventory (COI), Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS), and Flourishing Scale (FS) to identify specific factors that would help to develop and manage the psychological well-being of junior leaders junior leaders.
- The SANDF are poised to confront career uncertainties and lay the foundation for overall well-being and fair opportunities, to allow personnel to develop positive feelings about flourishing.

### **Individual-level interventions:**

The following individual-level interventions were recommended:

Junior leaders should know and understand how careers are managed and also learn how their current organisation provides opportunities for flourishing.

Junior leaders with multiple career anchors counter their career disillusion, and would also remain committed to their current organisation if they felt that their health and psychological well-being are well catered for.

Junior leaders value the SANDF life style (LS), as it empowered them to be autonomous or to be independent thinkers (AU) and achieve better results.

Junior leaders take on the challenges presented to them and continue to commit themselves to the immediate and future goals of the SANDF.

In general, junior leaders were positive towards their general and technical capacity and showed affective commitment towards their current organisations.

Junior leaders should consider reflecting on the emotional affect, both positive and negative, and respond appropriately to their career preferences.

The SANDF should consider junior leaders level of commitment that is enhanced by various incentives and career paths which allow them to enhance their flourishing.

Junior leaders should be encouraged to explore a wide variety of careers related to their self-development and career goals, and subsequently find harmony at the organisation.

Junior leaders' educational qualifications, accreditations, and experience should inform their career orientations, growth, and future developments.

### **Organisational-level interventions:**

The following organisational-level interventions are recommended:

The study showed that The SANDF appreciate junior leaders efforts to redefine their career and recognise the best practices which were required to pave the way for individuals to grow and develop further.

Junior leaders experienced emotional attachment to the organisation when their career aspirations, abilities, and values are congruent to the workplace settings, their needs for career movements in the organisation are managed well, and they have ample opportunities to prosper.

In order to increase motivation for career development, the SANDF need to create a learning environment in which junior leaders could orient himself or herself to different career anchors that will enhance emotional stability, health, and well-being.

The SANDF should consider introducing an appropriate junior leadership development paradigm that includes psychological well-being, so that these junior leaders can be sensitive towards their subordinates and respond positively to their senior leaders.

In order to increase flourishing prospects, The SANDF should consider revising their current career-development structures.

The SANDF should develop clear career-advancement opportunities and provide career orientation and support structures that junior leaders can access in order to flourish.

The SANDF should consider aligning career opportunities with the junior development programme, and also allow these junior leaders to participate in training and development opportunities.

The SANDF should consider applying strategies, incentives, various career paths, and promotional paths that are consistent with the junior leaders' underlying capabilities, years of experience, skills, attitude, and behaviour, in order to encourage valuable personnel to remain committed.

The SANDF should explore the extent to which junior leaders health and well-being are managed and eliminate those negative factors that increase stress and depression and dislodge personnel's future endeavors.

The SANDF should explore career orientations and the re-organisation of jobs and career paths to enhance optimisations and flourishing and incorporate the health and well-being aspects of junior leaders.

The SANDF should consider using the Scale for Positive and Negative Experiences Scale (SPANE), Career Orientations Inventory (COI), Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS), and Flourishing Scale (FS) to identify specific factors that would assist them in developing and managing the psychological well-being of their junior leaders.

The SANDF should be poised to tackle career uncertainties and lay foundations for overall well-being and fair opportunities, for junior leaders to develop positive feelings about flourishing.

#### **6.4.2 Recommendations for future research**

The study added more value to the field of industrial and organisational psychology and recommended the development of an individual and organisational psychological well-being interventions and strategies to help junior leaders to flourish. The current results showed that future research efforts should focus more on increasing the representative sample. This study was limited by the choice of the junior leaders in a sample.

The sample was dominated by young individuals in the early stage of their careers. The sample consisted predominantly of lieutenants and captains in terms of rank groupings. Future research studies should make efforts to add more biographical variables and larger, independent samples, to increase the generalisability of the findings. There was a need for more research on the psychological well-being and flourishing of junior leaders in environments other than the current military sample in South Africa. Further studies would be important to enhance the practical implementation of the psychological well-being and flourishing practices for junior leaders and further study to link the four (4) identified dimensions of the hypothesised Psychological well-being profile.

Furthermore, it was recommended that the relationship between psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute be explored in a larger sample, outside the military environment, to promote the development of a balanced and meaningful psychological well-being profile for junior leaders (junior managers) around the globe. The study would assist industrial and organisational psychologists to make more meaningful interpretations of the findings and develop strategies for retaining committed junior leaders to assist them to flourish.

#### **6.5 EVALUATION OF THE STUDY**

The general aim of the current study was to determine the relationship between junior leaders' emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment (psychological dispositional

attributes), and flourishing attributes (positive psychological functioning), and whether an overall psychological well-being profile can be developed to inform junior leaders' psychological well-being. The results pointed to the relationship dynamics between the variables of relevance to this study and that the aforementioned variables may provide insight into some flourishing practices.

### **6.5.1 Value added on a theoretical level**

On a theoretical level, the literature review confirms the existence of a relationship between emotional affect, career orientations, organisational commitment (psychological dispositional attributes), and flourishing attributes (positive psychological functioning). The current literature has been the cornerstone for constructing a theoretical psychological well-being profile for junior leaders. In light of this aim practitioners entrusted should consider differences in biographical groups in terms of their attitudes towards the organisation when profiling their overall psychological well-being. Junior leaders who understand their emotional up and down swings are well vested with their own emotional expressions, and promote their positive life style and healthy work tendencies.

Theoretically, the current study unearthed the complexity and underlying problem encountered in the relationship between dispositional attributes and flourishing in the implementation of a psychological well-being profile. The study added value to the sphere of industrial psychology, career psychology, and human relations, in that it also identified a positive relationship between the constructs of emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment (dispositional) attributes and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning). The study successfully showed that junior leaders feelings have an effect on the way in which junior leaders would position their career trajectories and capacity in order to commit fully to the organisation, with a view to flourish in all career categories. The literature showed that the hypothesised psychological well-being will fit well in multi-cultural environments and in the South African context.

### **6.5.2 Value added on an empirical level**

On an empirical level, this research has potentially contributed to the development of an empirically-tested psychological well-being profile that can be applied when developing psychological well-being and flourishing practices. Significant relationships were established between the constructs variables of dispositional attributes that influence the flourishing of personnel. Thus, this study unearthed the relationship between constructs that will contribute to the psychological well-being, since there was no existing study on these relationship dynamics.

Therefore, this study is original in its form, investigating the relationship dynamics between dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and

flourishing, with a view to develop an empirically-tested psychological well-being profile for junior leaders. The results were crucial for developing interventions on the management of emotions, choosing relevant career anchors, commitment strategies, flourishing strategies, and psychological well-being, as well as how leaders or managers can manage biographical characteristics to help facilitate the career needs of the entire, diverse junior leaders group.

### **6.5.3 Value added on a practical level**

On a practical level, the study empowered industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners to make better and informed decisions about various interventions that are needed to empower junior leaders to make better career choices and to flourish in life. The study was practical in the sense that it empowered human resources practitioners and training managers to understand how junior leaders can be developed in line with their biographical information, specifically that of age and race, in order to retain their well-capacitated junior leaders for longer periods.

Very importantly, the study showed that most junior leaders would prefer to work autonomously/independently (AU), in a service dedicated (SV) career anchor, and while being secure in their jobs. Previous studies have indicated that flourishing is part of positive psychology, advocating for positive human experiences, healthy outcomes, and exposure towards a full understanding of positive human and organisational functioning (Snyder, Lopez, & Pedrotti, 2011; Gray, 2018; Ryff, 2018). Where empirically-tested practical and significant associations were found in this study, these findings should inspire other researchers to explore further in future. In conclusion, the researcher trusts that the findings of the study should also entice junior leaders to explore more career choices, with the aim of flourishing in life and their career.

## **6.6 REFLECTION ON DOCTORATENESS AND CONCLUSION**

The researcher was very optimistic that the results of the current study will provide a clear overview and broaden understanding on the nature of the statistical inter-correlational relationships between the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning), as manifested in a sample of junior leaders employed in the SANDF. The researcher was also of the view that the results of this study have provided theoretical knowledge on the current literature on psychological well-being and flourishing of junior leaders in the military environments.

The psychological well-being profile contributed to the perspective on how junior leaders view their careers and flourish. It is suggested that the SANDF should put measures in place to ensure that they take care of their health and psychological well-being and create favourable conditions for



junior leaders to flourish in their careers. The theoretical literature of the psychological dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) significantly predicted the flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning) factors.

The moderated relationship between the psychological dispositional attributes and flourishing attribute (positive psychological functioning) has also extended on the theory of psychological well-being and career development. It is anticipated that industrial and organisational psychologists, human resource practitioners, and managers will be able to apply this new knowledge to enhance their junior leaders' psychological well-being strategies in view of flourishing. The results showed that the main biographical sample characteristics that had to be considered when interpreting the empirical results are age, race, gender, and years of service. The research findings, conclusions, and recommendations for future research contributed positively to the field of industrial and organisational psychology in the military context.

The researcher also gained a tremendous amount of knowledge in terms of data analysis and reporting on statistics. From the data analyses and reporting, the researcher learned to think of the bigger picture in terms of flourishing and not to focus on the face-value results, and of the psychological well-being and the impact that the concept may have on the junior leader's ladder of career inferences. While completing this study, the researcher learned valuable lessons in perseverance, patience, collegiality, and multi-tasking.

For the industrial psychologist and other related practitioners, the researcher was prompted to consider his own psychological well-being and the psychological well-being of subordinates that he interacts with at his workplace. The research study exposed the researcher to a wide variety of interventions that he could apply as an industrial psychologist to maximise the psychological well-being and flourishing of personnel at work. At the end, the researcher felt that he has also travelled the less-travelled journey and hoped he had made remarkable footprints in the field of Industrial and Organisational psychology.

## **6.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter discussed the conclusions regarding the current study in relation to both theoretical and empirical aims. The limitations and ethical considerations of the study regarding both theoretical and empirical facets were highlighted. Furthermore, recommendations were made for future research on the relationship between the dispositional attributes (emotional affect, career orientations, and organisational commitment) and flourishing. Finally, an integration of the research were provided, indicating the extent to which the study findings supported the relationship between

the dispositional attributes, flourishing, and the biographical variables, and how this integration and relationship supported the development of a psychological well-being profile for junior leaders.

Overall, chapter 6 achieved research aim 6, which was to formulate recommendations for psychological well-being and flourishing practices. It also aimed to propose practical interventions for industrial and organisational psychology, psychological well-being, health and well-being practices, and future research.

## REFERENCES

- Abessolo, M., Rossier J. & Hirschi, A. (2017). Basic values, career orientations, and career anchors: Empirical investigation of relationships. *Front. Psychol.* 8: 1556. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2017.01556.
- Adams, C., & Bloom, M. (2017). Flourishing in ministry: Well-being at work in helping professions. *Journal of Psychology and Christianity*, 36(3), 254–259.
- Adil, A., & Kamal, A. (2013). Moderating role of affectivity in emotional labor and emotional exhaustion among customer service representatives. *Psychological Studies*, 58(1), 89-98.
- Aiken, L.S., & West, S.G. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Ahmed, S., & Bashir, S. (2017). Power of negative emotions at workplace: Envy, subjective career success, thriving at work with moderating role of self-control. *Journal of Managerial Sciences*, 11, 427-448.
- Akhtar, M.W., Ghufuran, H., & Fatima, T. (2017). The effect of emotional intelligence on turnover intentions: The role of employee well-being, engagement and perceived organizational support. *Jinnay Business Review*, 5(2), 69–80.
- Ali, M., Lei, S., Jie, Z.S., & Rahman, M.A. (2018). Empowering leadership and employee performance: A mediating role of thriving at work. *International Journal of Asian Business and Information Management*, 9, 1–14.
- Albertyn, R.M., Van Coller-Peter, S., & Morrison, J. (2018). A multi-level researcher development framework to address contrasting views of student research challenges. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 32(1). 13–30.
- Allin, P., & Hand, D.J. (2017). New statistics for old?—Measuring the wellbeing of the UK. *J R Stat Soc Ser A Stat Soc* 180: 3–24. NORC (2017) General Social Survey (GSS). Available at [www.norc.org/research/projects/pages/general-social-survey.aspx](http://www.norc.org/research/projects/pages/general-social-survey.aspx). Accessed 22 September 2018.
- Allen, N.J., & Meyer, J.P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63, 1-18
- Allen, N., & Meyer, J.P. (1991). A Three–component conceptualisation of organisational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, 1, 61-89.
- Allen, T., & Katz, R. (1992). Age, education and technical ladder. *IEEE Transactions on Engineering Management*, 39(3), 239-245.
- Allen, D.G., & Shannock, L.R. (2012). Perceived organizational support and embeddedness as key mechanisms connecting socialization tactics to commitment and turnover among new employees. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 34(3), 350–369.

- Alreshidi, M. (2018). *The impact of a training intervention on emotional intelligence, leadership styles, self-efficacy and perception of sense of power in a university nursing faculty in Saudi Arabia*. A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. University of Salford. Saudi Arabia.
- Antonovsky, A. (1987). *Unravelling the mystery of health: How people manage stress and stay well*. San Francisco: CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Antonovsky, A. (1993). The structure and properties of the sense of coherence scale. *Social Sciences Medical Journal*, 36(6), 724-735.
- Ariza-Montes, A. Molina-Sánchez, H. Ramirez-Sobrino, J., & Giorgi, G. (2018). Work engagement and flourishing at work among nuns: The moderating role of human values. *Front. Psychol.* 9: 1874.
- Avolio, B.J., & Gardner, W.L. (2005). Authentic leadership development: Getting to the root of positive forms of leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16, 315-338. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2005.03.001>.
- ávila-Pérez, P., Longoria-Gándara, L.C., García-Rosales, G. (2018). Monitoring of elements in mosses by instrumental neutron activation analysis and total X-Ray fluorescence spectrometry. *Journal of Radio analytical and Nuclear Chemistry*, 317, 367-380.
- Babbie, E., & Mouton, J. (2007). *The practice of social research*. London: Thomson and Wadsworth.
- Babbie, E., & Mouton, J. (2009). *The practice of social research*. Cape Town: Oxford University.
- Babbie, E., & Mouton, J. (2011). *The practice of social research*. Cape Town: Oxford Press.
- Baumeister, R.F., & Landau, M.J. (2018). Finding the meaning of meaning: emerging insights on four grand questions. *Review of General Psychology*, 22(1), 1–10.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise control*. New York: Freeman Press.
- Bandura, A. (1982). The assessment and predictive generality of self-percepts of efficacy. *J. Behav. Ther. & Exp. Psychiat*, 13(3), 195-199.
- Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived Self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning. *Educational Psychologist*, 28(2), 117-148.
- Bartz, D., Thompson, K., & Rice, P. (2017, July). Principals managing and developing their human capital. *In National Forum of Educational Administration & Supervision Journal*, 35(4).
- Barrett, L.F., Adolphs, R., Marsella, S., Martinez, A.M., & Pollak, S.D. (2019). Emotional expressions reconsidered: Challenges to inferring emotion from human facial movements. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, 20, 1–68.
- Bartlett, M.S. (1954). A note on the multiplying factors for various chi square approximations. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society*, 16 (Series B), 296 – 298.

- Bakker, A.B., & Demerouti, E. (2018). *Multiple levels in job demands-resources theory: Implications for employee well-being and performance*. In E. Diener, S., Oishi, & L. Tay (Eds.), *Handbook of well-being*. Salt Lake City, UT: DEF Publishers. Retrieved from <https://www.nobascholar.com/chapters/36/download>.
- Basson, M., & Rothmann, S. (2002). Sense of coherence, coping and burnout of pharmacist. *South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences*, 5(1), 35-62.
- Becton, J.B., Carr, J.C., Mossholder, K.W., & Walker, H.J. (2017). Differential effects of task performance, organizational citizenship behavior, and job complexity on voluntary turnover. *Journal of Business Psychology*, 32, 495–508.
- Bell, B.S. (2017). *Strategies for supporting self-regulation during self-directed learning in the workplace*. In R.A. Noe & J.E. Ellingson (Eds.), *Autonomous learning in the workplace* (pp. 117–134). New York: Routledge.
- Bergh, Z.C. (2014). *Introduction to work psychology*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- Bergh, Z.C., & Theron, A.L. (2009). *Psychology in the work context* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- Bertolotti, F., Di Norcia, M., & Vignoli, M. (2018). *Service design principles for organizational well-being: Improving the employee experience through design thinking*. Linköping University Electronic Press. Retrieved from <http://www.ep.liu.se/ecp/150/062/ecp18150062>.
- Bellamy, A.J., & Williams, P.D. (2010). *Understanding peacekeeping (2nd Ed.)*. Polity Press, UK
- Bezuidenhout, M. (2010). *The development and evaluation of a measure of graduate employability in the context of new world of work*. Unpublished Masters Dissertation, department of human resources, university of Pretoria. RSA.
- Bezuidenhout, A., & Cilliers, F.N. (2010). Burnout, work engagement and sense of coherence in female academics in higher–education institutions in South Africa. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 36(1), 872-882.
- Bordens, K.S. & Abbott, B.B. (2011). *Research design and a process approach*. New York: McGraw-Hill
- Bouma, G.D., & Ling, R. (2010). *The research process* (5<sup>th</sup> ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Borgogni, L., Consiglio, C., Allesandri, G., & Schaufelli, W.B. (2012). “Don’t throw the baby out with the bathwater”. Interpersonal strain at work and burnout. *European Journal of Work & Organisational Psychology*, 21(6), 875-898.
- Buis, 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.
- Bozionelos, N., & Singh, S.K. (2017). The relationship of emotional intelligence with task and contextual performance: More than it meets the linear eye. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 116, 206–211. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016>.

- Brackett, M.A., Crum, A., & Salovey, P. (2009). Emotional intelligence. In S.J. Lopez (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Positive Psychology*, 1, (pp. 310-315). New York: Blackwell.
- Brackett, M.A. & Mayer, J.D. (2003). Convergent, discriminant, and incremental validity of competing measures of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 29(9), 1147–1158.
- Breitsohl, H., & Ruhle, S.A. (2016). The end is the beginning – The role of residual affective commitment in former interns' intention to return and word-of-mouth. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 25(6), 833–848.
- Brenton, M.W., & Kostal, J.W. (2019). Protean and boundaryless career orientations: A critical review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 66(3), 280–307.
- Brown, A, Bimrose, J. Barnes, S., & Hughes, D. (2012). The Role of career adaptabilities for mid-career changers. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 80(3), 754-761. <https://doi.org/10.1016>.
- MacCallum, R.C., Browne, M.W., & Sugawara, H.M. (1996). Power analysis and determination of sample size for covariance structure modeling. *Psychological Methods*, 1, 130-149.
- Brown, D.J., Arnold, R., Fletcher, D., & Standage, M. (2017). Human thriving. *European Psychologist*, 22, 167-179. doi:10.1027/1016.
- Briscoe, J.P., & Hall, D.T. (2006). The interplay of boundaryless and protean careers: Combinations and implications. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 69(1), 4–18. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2005.09.002>.
- Cascio, W.F., & Boudreau, J.W. (2014). *Short introduction to strategic human resource management*. Cambridge University Press.
- Cartwright, S., & Cooper, C.L. (2002). *Asset: An organisational stress screening tool*. The Management Guide. Manchester: RCL.
- Coetzee, M. (2008). Psychological career resources and subjective work experience of working adults: A South African survey. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 34(2), 32-41
- Coetzee, M. (2011). *Exploring distance learning students' gradueness in relation to their employability*. Unpublished research article, Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, University of South Africa, Pretoria.
- 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 experience of working adults: An exploratory study. *South African Business Review*, 13(2), 1–31.
- Coetzee, S.C., & Rothmann, S. (2005). Occupational stress, organizational commitment and ill health employees at a higher education institution in South Africa. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 31(1), 47-54.

- Coetzee, M., & Roythorne-Jacobs, H.L. (2012). *Career counselling and guidance in the workplace: A manual for career practitioners*. Cape Town: Juta.
- Coetzee, M., & Schreuder, A.M.G. (2009a). Using the career orientations inventory (COI) for measuring career orientation in the South African organisation context. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 35(1), 703-806.
- Coetzee, M., Schreuder, D., & Tladinyane, R. (2014). Employees' work engagement and job commitment: the moderating role of career anchors: original research. *South African Journal of Human Resource Management*, 12(1), 1–12.
- Coetzee, M., Schreuder, D., & Tladinyane, R. (2007). Career anchors and its relation to organisational commitment. *South African Business Review*, 11(1), 65–86.
- 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.
- Cook, G., & Geldenhuys, D.J. (2018). The experiences of employees participating in organisational corporate social responsibility initiatives. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 44(0), a1481.
- Cohen, J. (1992). Quantitative methods in psychology: a power primer. *Psychological Bulletin*, 112(1), 155–159.
- Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S., & Aiken, L. (2003). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioural sciences (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.)*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Cohen J. (2013). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioural sciences*. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Florida: Academic Press.
- Converse, P.D., Pathak., De-Haddock, A.M., Gotlib, T. & Merbedone, M. (2012). Controlling your environment and yourself: Implications for career success. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 80, 148-159.
- Constitution of the RSA. (1996). [www.gov.za/government](http://www.gov.za/government) printing work. Pretoria
- Cortés-sánchez, J.D., & Grueso-Hinestroza, M.P. (2017). *Factor analysis evaluation of Schein's Career Orientations Inventory in Colombia* 18: 186–196
- Cordaro, D.T., Sun, R., Keltner, D., Kamble, S., Huddar, N., & McNeil, G. (2018). Universals and cultural variations in 22 emotional expressions across five cultures. *Emotion*, 18, 75–93. doi:10.1037/emo0000302
- Cilliers, F.V.N. (2000). Team building from a psychodynamic perspective. *Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 26(1), 18-23.
- Cilliers, F.V.N., & May, M. (2010). The popularisation of positive psychology as a defence against behavioural complexity in research and organisations. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 37(1), 933-947.

- Cumming, T.G., & Worley C.G. (2009). *Organisational development & change*. Cincinnati, OH: South-Western Publishing, International student edition.
- Chang, K., & Lu, L. (2007). Characteristics of organizational culture, stressors and wellbeing. The case of Taiwanese organizations. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 22(6), 549-568.
- Chen, L., Chen, S. & Su, C. (2018). An innovative service quality evaluation and improvement model. *The Service Industries Journal*, 38(3/4):228–249.
- Child, D. (1990). *The essentials of factor analysis* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). London: Cassell Educational
- Crawford, J.R., & Henry, J.D. (2004). The Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS): construct validity, measurement properties and normative data in a large non-clinical sample. UK: University of Aberdeen. *British Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 43, 245–265.
- Creswell, J.W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J.W., & Poth, C.N. (2018). *Qualitative inquiry & research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Singapore: Sage Publications.
- 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>.
- Christensen, L. (2001). *Experimental methodology*. (8<sup>th</sup> ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Christensen, D. (2010). *Primary and secondary emotions*. Ithica, NY: Cornell University Press.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1975). *Beyond boredom and anxiety*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Daubner-Siva, D., Ybema, S., Vinkenburg C. J., & Beech, N. (2018). The talent management paradox: talent management as a mixed blessing. *Journal of Organizational Ethnography*, 7(1), 74–86.
- Dahlke, J.A., & Wiernik, B.M. (2018). psychmeta: An R package for psychometric meta-analysis. *Applied psychological measurement*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0146621618795933>
- Daka, A. & Tamira, S. (2019). Rural communities, development policies and social sciences practice: Advocacy for a citizenship of research in Sub-Saharan Africa. *Open Journal of Social Sciences*, 7, 51-62. <https://doi.org/10.4236/jss.2019.79005>.
- Damane, M. (2018). The macroeconomic impact of shocks in the US Federal funds rate on the Republic of South Africa: *An SVAR Analysis*. *Modern Economy*, 9, 796-829. <https://doi.org/10.4236/me.2018.94053>.
- Dawson, A. & Phillips, P. (2013). Coach career development: Who is responsible? *Sport Management Review*, 16(4), 477-487.
- Delpont, A. (2009). *Emotions, social transformation and education* (1<sup>st</sup> ed.). Pretoria: University of South Africa.



- De Souza, A.C., Alexandré, N.M. C., & Guirardello, E.D.B. (2017). Psychometric properties in instruments evaluation of reliability and validity. *Applications of Epidemiology*, 26(3), 1–10.
- Diener, E. (2000). Subjective well-being. The science of happiness and a proposal for a national index. *Am Psychol*, 55, 34–43.
- Dienier, E., & Seligman, M.E.P. (2002). Very happy people. *Psychological Science*, 13, 81-84.
- 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(2), 143-156.
- 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.
- Douglas, C., Montgomery, E.A., Peck, G., & Vining, G. (2012). *Introduction to linear regression analysis* (5<sup>th</sup> ed.). Canada: Wiley & Sons.
- Döckel, A., Basson, J., & Coetzee, M. (2006). The effect of retention factors on organisational commitment: An investigation of high technology employees. *South African Journal of Human Resource Management*, 4(2), 20-28.
- Durrheim, K., & Tredoux, C, (Eds.). (2014). *Numbers, hypothesis & conclusions: A course in statistics for the social sciences*. Cape Town: UCT Press.
- Ehrlich, K., Emami, A. & Heikkilä, K. (2017). The relationship between geographical and social space and approaches to care among rural and urban caregivers caring for a family member with dementia: a qualitative study. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies on Health and Well-being*, 1–12. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/17482631.2016.1275107>.
- Engelbrecht, A.S., Heine, G., & Mahembe, H.B. (2017). Integrity leadership of ethics, trust and work engagement. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 38(3), 1–18.
- Erasmus, W. (2009). *Development of military leadership: A proposal model for the South African National Defence Force*. Phd dissertation. University of Stellenbosch.
- Erlingsson, C., & Brysiewicz, P. (2017). A hands-on guide to doing content analysis. *African Journal of Emergency Medicine*, 7, 93–99.
- Evetts, J. (2017). *Women in primary teaching: career contexts and strategies*. Routledge.
- Faircloth, A.L. (2017). *Resilience as a mediator of the relationship between negative life events and psychological well-being*. Electronic theses & dissertations. 1373. <http://digitalcommons.georgiasouthern.edu/etd/1373>
- Farnia, F., Nafukho, F.M., & Petrides, K.V. (2018). Predicting career decision-making difficulties: The role of trait emotional intelligence, positive and negative emotions. *Front. Psychol*, 9: 1107. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2018.01107.

- Feldman, D. (2000). Career patterns of the self-employed: Career motivations and career outcomes. *Journal of Small Business Management (July)*, 53-63.
- Ferreira, N. (2012). *Constructing a psychological career profile for staff retention*. Unpublished doctoral thesis. University of South Africa, Pretoria.
- Ferreira, N., Basson, J., & Coetzee, M. (2010). Psychological career resources in relation to organisational commitment: An exploratory study. *South African Journal of Human Resource Management*, 8(1), 1–10.
- Field, A. (2012). *Discovering statistical using IBM SPSS statistical (4<sup>th</sup> ed.)*. And sex and drugs and rock 'n' roll. London: Sage Publications.
- Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistical using IBM SPSS statistics (4<sup>th</sup> ed.)*. London: Sage Publications.
- Finegan, J.E. (2000). The impact of person and organisational values on organisational commitment. *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology*, 73, 149.
- Fineman, S. (2000). *Emotions in organizations*. London: Sage.
- Finestone, N., & Snyman, R. (2005). Corporate South Africa: Making multicultural knowledge sharing work. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 9(3), 128-141.
- Fotaki, M., Kenny, K., & Vachhani, S.J. (2017). Thinking critically about affect in organization studies: Why it matters. *Organization*, 24(1), 3–17.
- Foxcroft, C., & Roodt, G. (2009). *An introduction to psychological assessment in the South African context (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.)*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press
- Fredrickson, B.L. (2001). The role of positive emotions in positive psychology: the broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions. *American Psychologist*, 56, 218-226.
- Fredrickson, B.L., & Losada, M.F. (2005). Positive affect and the complex dynamics of human flourishing. *American Psychologist*, 60, 678-686.
- Gerrish, K., & Lacey, A. (2010). *The research process in nursing*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Goleman, D. (1996). *Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D. (1998). *Working with emotional intelligence*. New York. Bantam.
- Goleman, D. (2004). What makes a leader? *Harvard Business Review*, 82(1), 82-91.
- Goleman, D. (2018a). *The benefits of coaching... and being coached*. Retrieved from <https://www.kornferry.com/institute/emotional-intelligence-coaching-mentor>.
- Goleman, D. (2018b). *The perfect profile for a leadership coach*. Retrieved from <https://www.kornferry.com/institute/coaching-leadership-trust>.
- Goller, M., Steffen, B., & Harteis, C. (2018). Becoming a nurse aide: An investigation of an existing workplace curriculum in a nursing home. *Vocations and Learning*, 78(3), 251–267.

- Guest, D.E. (2017). Human resource management and employee well-being: Towards a new analytic framework. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 27(1), 22–38.
- Global Health Promotion, (2013). *Opening address at the 8th Global Conference on Health Promotion*, Helsinki, Finland, 10 June 2013. Geneva, World Health Organization. Available at: <[http://www.who.int/dg/speeches/2013/health\\_promotion\\_20130610/en/](http://www.who.int/dg/speeches/2013/health_promotion_20130610/en/)>(accessed 10 June 2019).
- Grady, V.M., & Grady, J. (2013). *The pivot point*. New York: Morgan James.
- Gray, J. (2018). Leadership-focused coaching: A research-based approach for supporting aspiring leaders. *International Journal of Educational Leadership Preparation*, 13(1), 1–21.
- Gregg, M., & Seigworth, G.J. (2010). *The affect theory reader*. United States of America: Duke University Press.
- Gregory, R.J. (2011). *Psychological testing: History and applications*. Boston, Massachusetts: Allyn and Bacon Publishers.
- Gross, J.J. (2002). Emotion regulation: Affective, cognitive, and social consequences. *Psychophysiology*, 39, 281-291.
- Hair, J.F., Black, W.C., Babin, B.J., & Anderson, R.E. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis* (6<sup>th</sup> ed.). London: Pearson Prentice-Hall.
- Hair, J.F., Black, W.C., Babin, B.J., & Anderson, R.E. (2016). *Multivariate data analysis* (7<sup>th</sup> ed.). London: Pearson Prentice-Hall.
- Hayes, F.A (2013). *Introduction to mediation, moderation and correlational process: a regression based approach*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Hayes, F.A. (2018): *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Haynes, S.N., & O’Braine, W.H. (2000). *The principles and practice of behavioural assessment*. New York: Kluwer.
- Hall, D.T., Yip, J., & Doiron, K. (2018). Protean careers at work: Self-direction and values orientation in psychological success. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 5(1). <https://doi.org/10/gcpt6f>
- Harter, J.K., Schmidt, F.L., & Keyes, C.M. (2003). Well-being in the workplace and its relationship to business outcomes: A review of the Gallop studies. *Flourishing positive psychology and life well-lived*, 36, 29-33.
- Harry, (2014). *Constructing a psychological coping profile for call centre agents*. Unpublished doctoral thesis. University of South Africa, Pretoria.
- Healy, M. and Perry, C. (2000). “Comprehensive criteria to judge validity and reliability of qualitative research within the realism paradigm”, qualitative market research: *An International Journal*, 3(3), 118-26.

- Hefferon, K., Ashfield, A., Waters, L., & Synard, J. (2017). Understanding optimal human functioning – the ‘call for qual’ in exploring human flourishing and well-being. *The Journal of Positive Psychology, 12*(3), 211–219.
- Hentschel, S., Eid, M., & Kutscher, T. (2017). The influence of major life events and personality traits on the stability of affective well-being. *Journal of Happiness Studies, 18*(3), 719–741.
- Higgins, E.T. (2019). *Shared Reality: What makes us strong and tears us apart*. Oxford Scholarship Online.
- Hobfoll, S.E. (1989). Conservation of resource: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist, 3*, 513-524
- Hobfoll, S.E. (2000). Social and psychological resources and adaptation. *Review of General Psychologist, 6*, 307-324.
- Houdmont, J., Leka, S., & Sinclair, R. (2012). Contemporary occupational health psychology. *Global perspectives on research and practice, vol 2*. Wiley-Blackwell Publications
- Hofstede, G., & Hofstede, G.J. (2018). Cultural dimensions. In Rabi, N.K., Kaisa, S., & Kusha, T. (Eds). *Responsible business professionals: A strategic perspective of the global challenges*. Cambridge Scholars Publishing, 200
- Hoffmann, W.A. (2017, October 9–11). *Ethics and morality two sides of the same coin?* 6<sup>th</sup> Ethics educators – ethics capacity development training course, University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa.
- Holmgren, L., Tirone, V., Gerhart, J., & Hobfoll, S.E. (2017). *Conservation of resources theory*. In Cooper, C.L., & Quick, J., (Eds), *The handbook of stress and health: A Guide to research and practice*, 443–457.
- Hu, T., Xiao, J., Peng, J., Kuang, X., & He, B. (2018). Relationship between resilience, social support as well as anxiety/depression of lung cancer patients: A cross-sectional observation study. *Journal of cancer research and therapeutics, 14*(1), 72.
- Igbaria, M., & Greenhaus, J.H. (1991). Career orientations of MIS employees: An empirical analysis. *MIS Quarterly, 15*(2), 151-170.
- Igbaria, M., Greenhause, J.H., & Parasuraman, S. (1991). Career orientations of MIS employees: An empirical analysis. *MIS Quarterly, 15*(2), 24–88.
- Ivancevich, J.M., Konopaske, R., & Matteson, M.T. (2005). *Organizational behaviour and management, (7<sup>th</sup> ed.)*. Boston: McGraw Hill.
- IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences Version 22.0 (Computer software) (2011). New York, Armonk: IBM Corporation.
- Jabłoński, A., & Jabłoński, M. (2016). Research on business models in their life cycle. *Sustainability, 8*, 430. doi:10.3390/su8050430.

- Jacobs, R., & Van Niekerk, A. (2017). The role of spirituality as a coping mechanism for South African traffic officers. *HTS Theological Studies* 73(3). Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.4102/hts.v73i3.4344>.
- Jaiswal, N.K., & Dhar, R.L. (2017). The influence of servant leadership, trust in leader and thriving on employee creativity. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 38, 2–21. doi:10.1108/LODJ-02-2015-0017.
- Janse van Rensburg, C., Rothmann, S.I., & Diedericks, E. (2017). Person-environment fit, flourishing and intention to leave in universities of technology in South Africa. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology/SA Tydskrif vir Bedryfsielkunde*, 43(0), a1422.
- Jit, R., Sharma, C.S., & Kawatra, M. (2017). Healing a broken spirit: Role of servant leadership. *VIKALPA. The Journal for Decision Makers*, 42(2), 80–94.
- Jordan, S., Gessnitzer, S., & Kauffeld, S. (2017). Develop yourself, develop others? How coaching benefit from train-the-coach courses. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, 10(2), 125–139.
- Jonck, P., De Coning, R., & Radikonyana, P.S. (2018). A micro-level outcomes evaluation of a skills capacity intervention within the South African Public Service: Towards an impact evaluation. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management/SA Tydskrif vir Menslikehulpbronbestuur*, 16(0), a1000. <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v16i0.1000>.
- Joshanloo, M. (2017). Mediators of the relationship between externality of happiness and subjective well-being. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 119, 147-151.
- Judge, T.A., Bono, J., Illies, R., & Gerhardt, M. (2002). Personality and leadership: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Journal of applied psychology*, 87, 765-780.
- Kerling, F.N., & Lee, H.B. (2000). *Foundations of behavioural research*. (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). New York: Fort Worth, Harcourt College.
- Kets de Vries, M. (1990). The organisational fool: Balancing a leader's hubris. *Human Relations*, 43(8), 751-770.
- Kobasa, S.C., Maddi, S.R., Kahn, S. (1982). Hardiness and health: A perspective study. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 42(1), 168-177.
- Kim, J.I., Park, H., & Kim, J.H. (2018). The mediation effect of PTSD, perceived job stress and resilience on the relationship between trauma exposure and the development of depression and alcohol use problems in 7151 Korean firefighters: A cross-sectional study. *Journal of Affective Disorders*, 229, 450-455.
- Kim, D, Lim, K, Kim, S.T, Yoon, S.H, Kim, K, Ryu S.M., & Kim, J.S. (2017). Increasing the genome-targeting scope and precision of base editing with engineered Cas9-cytidine Deaminase Fusions. *Nat Biotechnol*, 35(5):475-480. doi: 10.1038/nbt.3852.

- Kostal, J.W., & Wiernik, B.M. (2017), "A meta-analytic investigation of demographic differences in protean, boundaryless, and proactive career orientations". *Career Development International*, 22(5), 520-545. <https://doi.org/10.1108/CDI-08-2017-0139>
- Kozlowski, D., Hutchinson, M., Hurley, J., & Browne, G. (2018), 'Increasing nurses' emotional intelligence with a brief intervention. *Applied Nursing Research*, 41, 59-61.
- Krause, S.E. (2005). Research paradigms and meaning making: A primer. *The qualitative Report*, 10(4), 758-770.
- Khoreva, V., Wechtler, H., & Kostanek, E. (2018). Human resource practices and employee performance: The mediating role of well-being. World academy of science, engineering and technology, international science Index. *Psychological and Behavioral Sciences*, 4(3), 1160. <http://www.nova.edu/ss/QR104>.
- Kraak, J.M., Lunardo, R., Herrbach, O., & Durrieu, F. (2017). Promises to employees matter, self-identify too: Effects of psychological contract breach on older worker identify on violation and turnover intentions. *Journal of Business Research*, 70, 108–117.
- Kleine, A.K., Rudolph, C.W., & Zacher, H. (2019, in press). Thriving at work: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*.
- Kline, R.B. (2011). *Principles and practice of structural equation modelling* (2nd ed). New York, NY: The Guilford Press.
- Krippendorff, K. (2019). *Content analysis: an introduction to its methodology* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). Los Angeles, LA: Sage.
- Lazarus, R.S. (1991). *Psychological stress and the coping process*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Ledimo, O.M. (2012). *A diagnostic model for employee satisfaction during organisational transformation*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Pretoria: University of South Africa
- Leedy, P.D. (1993). *Practical research: Planning and design*. New York, Toronto: Maxwell Macmillan International.
- Leedy, P.D., & Ormrod, J.E. (2010). *Practical research: Planning and design* (9<sup>th</sup> ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Lumley, L. (2010). *The relationship between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisation commitment*. Unpublished Masters dissertation. Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology. Pretoria: University of South Africa.
- Lumley, E.J, Coetzee, M., Tladinyane, R., & Ferreira, N. (2011). Exploring the job satisfaction and organisational commitment of employees in the information technology environment. *Southern African Business Review*, 15(1), 100-118.
- Maggiore, C., Johnston, C., Krings, F., Masoudi, K. & Rossier, J. (2013). The role of career adaptability and work conditions on gender and professional well-being. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 83, 437-449.
- Maree, K. (2009). *First steps in research*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

- Maree, J.G. (2010). Brief overview of the advancement of postmodern approaches to career counselling. *Journal of Psychology in South Africa*, 20(3), 361–368.
- Maree, K. (2010). *First steps in research*. Pretoria: Van Schalk.
- Marchiondo, L.A., Cortina, L.M., & Kabat-Farr, D. (2018). Attributions and appraisals of workplace incivility: Finding light on the dark side? *Applied Psychology*, 67, 369-400.
- 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.
- Marx, J.T. & Liebenberg, I. (2019). 'Into the future: Donkergat military training area and the Langebaan Ramsar site. *The Journal for Transdisciplinary Research in Southern Africa* 15(1), a566. <https://doi.org/10.4102/td.v15i1.566>
- Maxwell, J.A. (2013). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Mayer, J.D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D.R. (2000). *Models of emotional intelligence*. In R. J. Sternberg (Ed.), *Handbook of intelligence* (pp. 396-420). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Maydeu-Olivares, A. (2017). Assessing the size of model misfit in structural equation models. *Psychometrika*, 82, 533–558. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11336-016-9552-7>.
- Meng, X., Fleury, M.J., Xiang, Y.T., Li, M., & D'Arcy, C. (2018). Resilience and protective factors among people with a history of child maltreatment: A systematic review. *Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology*, 53, 453–475.
- Mensah, J.K. (2018). The psychology of talent management. A. Farazmand (ed.), *Global encyclopedia of public administration, public policy, and governance*. Retrieved on 13 November 2019 from [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-31816-5\\_3532-1](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-31816-5_3532-1).
- Meyer, J.P., & Allen, N. (1997). *Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research, and application*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Miao, C., Humphrey, R.H., & Qian, S. (2017). Are the emotionally intelligent good citizens or counterproductive? A meta-analysis of emotional intelligence and its relationships with organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behaviour. *Personality and Individual Differences*. 116, 144–156. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2017.04.015>.
- Mouton, J., & Marais, H.C. (1991). *Basic concept in the methodology of the social sciences*. Pretoria: HSRC.
- Mouton, J., & Marais, H.C. (1996). *Basic concept in the methodology of the social sciences*. Pretoria: HSRC.
- Mouton, J., & Marais, H.C. (2011). *Basic concept in the methodology of the social sciences*. Pretoria: HSRC.
- Montgomery, D.C., Peck, E.A., & Vining, G.G. (2015). *Introduction to linear regression analysis*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

- 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
- Mowday, R.T., Steers, R.M., & Porter, L.W. (1979). The measurement of organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 14*(2), 224-247
- Mróz, T., Szufa, K., & Frontasyeva, M.V. (2018). Determination of element composition and extraterrestrial material occurrence in moss and lichen samples from King George island (Antarctica) using reactor neutron activation analysis and SEM microscopy. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research, 25*, 436-446.
- 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
- Mwangi, C.A.G. (2017). Partner positioning: examining international higher education partnerships through a mutuality lens. *The Review of Higher Education, 41*(1), 33–60.
- Myers, D.G., & Diener, E. (2018). The scientific pursuit of happiness. *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 13*(2), 218-225.
- National School of Government, (2013). Retrieved on 10 April 2014 from [www.NSG.gov.za/Pretoria](http://www.NSG.gov.za/Pretoria).
- National Skills Development Strategy, (2011). Retrieved on 10 April 2014 from [www.DoL.gov.za/NSDS](http://www.DoL.gov.za/NSDS) III.
- National Planning Commission, (2011). National Development Plan (NDP) 2030: *Our future - make it work, diagnostic report*. Retrieved on 10 April 2014 from [www.NPC.gov.za/ndp](http://www.NPC.gov.za/ndp).Pretoria.
- Neumann, W.L. (2000). *Social Research Methods. Qualitative and quantitative approaches* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). Boston, Massachusetts: Allyn & Bacon.
- Newman, W.L. (2007). *Basic of social research: qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Boston, Massachusetts: Pearson/Allyn and Bacon.
- New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD): Africa Peer Review Mechanism (APRM) (2007). Country review report no 5. RSA: Pretoria.
- Niemiec, R. M. (2018). Character strengths intervention. Toronto: Hofgrede. Retrieved from on 13 November 2019 at [https://us.hogrefe.com/shop/media/downloads/sample-reports/9780889374928\\_Samplepages.pdf](https://us.hogrefe.com/shop/media/downloads/sample-reports/9780889374928_Samplepages.pdf)
- Niessen, C., Mäder, I., Stride, C., & Jimmieson, N.L. (2017). Thriving when exhausted: The role of perceived transformational leadership. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 103*, 41–51. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2017.07.012.
- Norman, D.A. (2004). *Emotion design: Why we love (or hate) everyday things*. Retrieved on 12 September 2014 from [www.8080/jspui/handle/1/1614](http://www.8080/jspui/handle/1/1614).
- Nunnally, J.C., & Bernstein, I.H. (1994). *Psychometric theory* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed). New York: McGraw Hill.
- Ndlovu, N.B., Frontasyeva, M.V., Newman, R.T., & Maleka, P.P. (2019). Moss and Lichen biomonitoring of atmospheric pollution in the Western Cape Province (South Africa). *American Journal of Analytical Chemistry, 10*, 86-102. <https://doi.org/10.4236/ajac.2019.103008>.



- Ng, E.S.W., Schweitzer, L., & Lyons, S.T. (2010). New generation, great expectations: A field study of the millennial generation. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 25*, 281– 292.
- Nzozu, J.C. (2017). A discourse analysis of the exogenous and endogenous drivers of employee well-being in South Africa. *Australian Academy of Accounting and Finance Review (AAAFR), 3*(1), 37-49.
- Öznur, T.A., & İhtiyaroğlu, N. (2019). Analysis of the relationship between stress and organizational commitment in employees: A meta-analysis study, *Journal of Education and Training Studies, 7*(1).
- Pallant, J. (2007). *SPSS survival manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS for windows (version, 15), (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.)*. Maidenhead, England: McGraw Hill/ Open University Press
- Pallant, J. (2013). *SPSS Survival manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using IBM SPSS (5<sup>th</sup> 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.
- Parkes, K.R. (1990). Coping, negative affectivity, and the work environment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*(4), 399-409.
- 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.
- Powell, W.W., & Snyman, K. (2004). The knowledge economy. *Annual Review of Sociology, 30*, 199-220.
- Public Administration Leadership and Management Academy (PALAMA), (2010). *Strategic human resource management*. (Manual for the Executive Development Programme). Pretoria: PALAMA.
- Public Service Regulations (PSR), (1999). Retrived from [www.info.gov.za/dpsa](http://www.info.gov.za/dpsa). Pretoria.
- Punch, K.F. (2014). *Introduction to social research: Quantitative and qualitative (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.)*. London: Sage.
- Plate, R.C., Fulvio, J.M., Shutts, K., Green, C.S., & Pollak, S.D. (2018). Probability learning: Changes in behavior across time and development. *Child Development, 89*, 205–218.
- Pradhan, R., Jena, L., & Singh, S. (2017). Examining the role of emotional intelligence between organizational learning and adaptive performance in Indian manufacturing industries. *Journal of Workplace Learning, 29*(3), 235–247.
- Qaiser, S., Abid, G., Arya, B., & Farooqi, S. (2018). Nourishing the bliss: Antecedents and mechanism of happiness at work. *Total Quality Management & Business Excellence, 1*–15. doi:10.1080/14783363.2018.1493919.

- Rausch, A., Seifried, J., & Harteis, C. (2017). Emotions, coping and learning in error situations in the workplace. *Journal of Workplace Learning, 29*(5), 374–393.
- Rassol, F., & Botha, C.J. (2011). The nature, extent and effect of skills shortages on skills migration in South Africa. *South African Journal of Human Resource Management, 9*(1), 1-12.
- Raza, B., Ali, M., Ahmed, S., & Ahmad, J. (2018). Impact of managerial coaching on Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB): The mediation and moderation model. *International Journal of Organizational Leadership, 7*, 27. doi:10.19236/IJOL.2018.01.03.
- Robbins, S.P., Odendaal, A., & Roodt, G. (2003). *Organisational behaviour: Global and South African perspectives*. Cape Town: Pearson Education.
- Rossier, R., Zecca, G., Stauffer, S.D., Maggiori, C., & Dauwalder, D. (2012). Career Adapt-Abilities Scale in a French-speaking Swiss sample: Psychometric properties and relationship to personality and work engagement. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 80*, 734-743.
- Rothmann, S. (2009). *The 2009 South African call centre benchmarking report in a higher education call centre*. Potchefstroom: Afriforte.
- Rothmann, S. (2003). Burnout and engagement: A South African perspective. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology, 29*(4), 16-25.
- Rothmann, S. (2013). Engaging in work even when it is meaningless: Positive affective disposition and meaningful work interact in relation to work-engagement. *Journal of Career Assessment, 21*, 348-361
- Rothmann, S., & Malan, H. (2003). Sense of coherence, self-efficacy, locus of control and burnout of social workers. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology, 29*(4), 43-51.
- Rothmann, S., & Rothmann, J.C. (2006). *The South African employee health and wellness survey: User Manual*. Potchefstroom: Afriforte.
- Rothmann, S., & Buys, C. (2011). Job demands and resources, psychological conditions, religious coping and work engagement of reformed church ministers. *Journal of psychology in Africa, 21*(2), 173-183.
- Rothmann, I., & Cooper, G.L. (2015). *Work and organizational psychology: Topics in applied psychology*. Routledge.
- Rozkwitalska, M. (2018). Thriving in mono-and multicultural organizational contexts. *International Journal of Contemporary Management, 17*, 233-247.  
doi:10.4467/24498939IJCM.18.013.8392
- 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
- Ryan, R.M., & Deci, E.L., (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development and wellbeing. *American Psychologist, 55*, 68-78.

- Ryff, C.D., & Keys, L.M. (1995). The structure of psychological well-being revisited. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 69(4), 719-727.
- Ryff, C.D., & Singer, B. (1998). The contours of positive human health. *Psychology Inquiry*, 9, 3-44.
- Ryff, C.D. (2018). Well-being with soul: Science in pursuit of human potential. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 13(2), 242–248.
- Saidi, S.S., & Siew, N.M. (2019). Assessing students' understanding of measures of central tendency and attitude towards statistics in rural secondary schools. *International of Electronic Journal of Mathematics Education*, 14(1), 73-86.
- Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, 9(3), 185–211.
- Salkind, N.J. (2010). *Encyclopedia of research design*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Salkind, N.J. (2012). *Exploring research (8<sup>th</sup> ed.)*. Cape Town: Pearson.
- Savickas, M.L. (2010). *The career adapt-abilities scale*. Personal documentation received from author at the 27th International Congress of Applied Psychology (ICAP), 11–16 July, Melbourne.
- Savickas, M.L. (2011). New questions for vocational psychology: Premises, paradigms, and practices. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 19(3), 251–258.
- Savickas, M.L. (2012). Life design: A paradigm for career intervention in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. *Journal of Counselling and Development*, 90, 13-19.
- Savickas, M.L. (2013). Life design: A paradigm for career intervention in the 21st century. *Journal of Counselling & Development*, 90, 13–19.
- Savickas, M.L., & Porfelli, E.J. (2012). Career adapt-abilities scale: Construction, reliability and measuring equivalence across 13 countries. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 80, 661-673.
- Segura-Camacho, A., García-Orozco, J., & Topa, T. (2018). Sustainable and healthy organizations promote employee well-being: The moderating role of selection, optimization, and compensation strategies. *Sustainability*, 10, 1–18.
- Segal, Z.V., Williams, J.M.G., & Teasdale, J.D. (2013). *Mindfulness-based cognitive therapy for depression (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.)*. The Guilford Press.
- Seligman, M.E.P. (2011). *Flourish: A visionary new understanding of happiness and wellbeing*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Seligman, M., & Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2000). Positive psychology: *An introduction*. *American Psychologist*, 5-14.
- Sieberhagen, C., Rothmann, S., & Pienaar, J. (2009). Employee health and wellness in South Africa: The role of legislation and management standard. *South African Journal of Human Resource Management*, 7(1), 144-154.

- Sieberhagen, C., Pienaar, J., & Els, C. (2011). Management of employee wellness in South Africa: Employer, service provider and union perspectives: Original research. *South African Journal of Human Resource Management*, 9(1), 1-14.
- Singh, K. (2011). Enhancing ethics at workplace through emotional intelligence: An exploratory study on business organisations in India. *International Journal of Business & Management Science*, 4(1), 51-73.
- Sinclair, V. (2009). *Experiencing career satisfaction and career success over the life course*. Retrieved September 12, 2018, from <http://www.counselling-directory.org.uk/counselloradvice98889.html>.
- Singh, A., & Singh, A. (2010). Career stage and organizational citizenship behaviour among Indian managers. *Journal of the Indian Academy of Applied Psychology*, 36(2), 268-275.
- Sullivan, L., & Willis, D.G. (2018). Towards changing the Long Term Care (LTC) paradigm: Explicating the concept of thriving in older adults living in LTC. *Issues in Mental Health Nursing*, 39, 388-397. doi:10.1080/01612840.2017.1390021.
- Super, D. (1980). A life-span, life-space approach to career development. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 16, 282-298.
- Super, D.E. (1990). *A life-span, life-space approach to career development*. In Brown, D., Brooks, L. & Associates. *Career choice and development: Applying contemporary theories to practice* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.) (pp. 197–262). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass
- Subrahmanyam, A. (2017). Relationship between service quality, satisfaction, motivation and loyalty: A multi-dimensional perspective. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 25(2), 171–188.
- Scotland, J. (2012). Exploring the philosophical underpinnings of research: relating ontology and epistemology to the methodology and methods of the scientific, interpretive, and critical research paradigms. *Canadian Center of Science and Education*, 5(9), 1-9.
- Schein, E.H. (1975). How career anchors hold executive to career paths. *Personnel*, 52(2), 11–24.
- Schein, E.H. (1978). *Career dynamics: Matching individual and organizational needs*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Schein, E.H. (1983). The role of the founder in creating organizational culture. *Organizational Dynamics*, 12(1), 13–28.
- Schein, E.H. (1985). *Career anchors: Discovering your real values*. San Diego, CA: University Associates.
- Schein, E.H. (1987). *Individuals and careers*. In J. W. Lorsch (Ed.), *Handbook of organizational behavior*. New Jersey, Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.
- Schein, E.H. (1990). *Career anchors: Discovering your real values*. San Diego, CA: Pfeiffer and Company.
- Schein, E.H. (1996). Career anchors revisited: Implications for career development in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. *Academy of Management Executive*, 10(4), 80–88.

- Schein, E.H. (2006). *Career anchors: Participant workbook* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). San Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer.
- Schein, E.H. (2013). *Career anchors revisited: Implications for career development in the 21<sup>st</sup> century*. In K. Inkson & M.L. Savickas (Eds.), *Career studies, Vol I Foundations of career studies* (pp.235-244). London: Sage.
- Schotanus-Dijkstra, M., Drossaert, C.H., & Bohlmeijer, E.T. (2019). People's motives to participate in a positive psychology intervention with email support and who might benefit most? *International Journal of Applied Positive Psychology*, 1–22.
- Schreuder, A., & Coetzee, M. (2006). *Careers: An organisational perspective*. Cape Town: Juta.
- Schreuder, A., & Coetzee, M. (2011). *Careers: An organisational perspective*. (4th Edition ed.). Cape Town: Juta.
- Sheldon, K.M., Corcoran, M., & Prentice, M. (2019). Pursuing eudaimonic functioning versus pursuing hedonic well-being: the first goal succeeds in its aim, whereas the second does not. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 20, 919–933.
- Shongwe, M. (2014). *Systems psychodynamic experiences of professionals in acting positions in a South African organisation*. Unpublished masters dissertation, Pretoria: University of South Africa.
- Schwartz, S.J., Luyckx, K., & Vignoles, V.L. (2011). *Handbook of identity theory and research*. Springer Science & Business Media.
- Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). (2011). *Statistical Programs for Social Sciences* (SPSS): Version 22.0. Chicago: SPSS Inc.
- Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). (2018). *Statistical Programs for Social Sciences* (SPSS): Version 25.0. Chicago: SPSS Inc.
- Storey, J. (2004). *Leadership in organisation: Current issues and key trends*. Tylor Francis Group.
- 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., 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.
- Strumpfer, D.J.W. (2006). Positive emotions, positive emotionality and their contribution to fortigenic living: *South African Journal of Psychology*, 36(1), 144-167.
- Strumpfer, D.J.W. (1990). Salutogenesis: A new paradigm. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 20(4), 264-276.
- Struwig, F.W., & Stead, G.B. (2001). *Planning, designing and reporting research*. Cape Town: Pearson Education.

- Taneva, S.K., & Arnold, J. (2018). Thriving, surviving and performing in late career: A mixed-method study of pathways to successful aging in organizations. *Work, Aging and Retirement, 4*, 189–212. doi:10.1093/worker/wax027.
- 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
- Terreblanche, M., & Durrheim, K. (2002). *The applied methods for the social science*. Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press.
- TerreBlanche, M., Durrheim, K., & Painter, D. (2006). *Research in practice: Applied methods for the social sciences*. Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press.
- Tondl, L. (2012). *Scientific procedures: A contribution concerning the methodological problems of scientific concepts and scientific explanation*. Springer Science & Business Media.
- Tredoux, C., & Durrheim, K. (Eds.). (2013). *Numbers, hypothesis and conclusions: A course in statistics for the social sciences*. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed). Lansdowne: University of Cape Town Press.
- Tredoux, C., & Durrheim, K. (Eds.). (2004). *Numbers, hypothesis and conclusions: A course in statistics for the social sciences*. Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press.
- Trochim, W. (2006). *Convergent and discriminatory validity*. Social science knowledge base. Retrieved on 11 July 2014 on [www.socialsciencereserachmethods.net/kb](http://www.socialscienceresearchmethods.net/kb).
- Tufail. M.S., Bashi, M., & Shoukat, N. (2017). Impact of job design on employee's organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior in the banking sector of Faisalabad. *Special issue: AIC, Malaysia, 225-235*.
- Tse, M.Y., Lo, A.P.K., Cheng, T.L.Y., Chan, E.K.K., Chan, A.H.Y., & Chung, H.S.W. (2010). Humor therapy: Relieving chronic pain and enhancing happiness for older adults. *Journal of Aging Research, 1-9*.
- US Department of Defence, (1993). *Family status and initial terms of service: vol.1 Summary: Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defence (Personnel and Readiness) US Department of Defence. Military Family Resource Centre, <http://mfr.calib.com>, accessed on 02 November 2018*.
- Van der Heijden, B. (2002). Prerequisites to quarentee life-long employability. *Personnel Review, 31*(1), 44-61
- Van der Heijden, C., & Van der Heijden, B. (2006). A competence-based and multidimensional operationalisation of employability. *Human Resource Management, 45*(3), 449-476.
- Van der Walt, F. (2018). Workplace spirituality, work engagement and thriving at work. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 44*, 1-10. doi:10.4102/sajip.v44i0.1457
- van Dierendonck, D., Haynes, C., Borrill, C., & Stride, C. (2004). Leadership Behavior and Subordinate Well-Being. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 9*(2), 165–175.
- Van Vuuren, L.J. (2010). Industrial psychology: Goodness of it? Fit for goodness? *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology, 32*(2), 939- 954.

- VanderWeele, T.J. (2017). On the promotion of human flourishing. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, U.S.A.*, 31, 8148-8156.
- Vähäsantanen, K., Paloniemi, S., Hökkä, P. & Eteläpelto, A. (2017). Agentic perspective on fostering workrelated learning. *Studies in Continuing Education*, 39(3), 251–267.
- Wang, S.Y., Wong, Y.J., Yeh, K.H., & Wang, L. (2018). What makes a meaningful life? *Examining the effects of interpersonal harmony, dialectical coping, and nonattachment*, 21, 198–204.
- Warr, P. (1992). Age and occupational wellbeing. *Psychology and Aging*, 7, 37-45.
- Warr, P. (2001). Age and work behaviour: Physical attributes, cognitive abilities, knowledge, personality traits, and motives. In C.L. Cooper, & I.T. Robertson (Eds.). *International Review of Industrial and Organisational Psychology*. London: Wiley.
- Warr, P., & Birdi, K. (1998). Employee age and voluntary development activity. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 2, 190-204
- Watson, D., Clark, L.A., & Tellegan, A. (1988). Developing and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54(6), 1063–1070.
- Wiernik, M & Kostal, J.W. (2018). Protean and boundaryless career orientations: A Critical review and meta-analysis. 2018. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 66(3), 280–307.
- Wissing, M.P., & Van Eeden, C. (2002). Empirical classification of the nature of psychological wellbeing. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 32, 32-44.
- Williamson, J.A., & O'Hara, M.W. (2017). Who gets social support, who gives it, and how it's related to recipient's mood. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 43(10), 1355–1377.
- Wong, P.T.P. (2011). Positive psychology 2.0: Towards a balanced interactive model of the good life. *Canadian Psychology*, 52(2), 69-81.
- Wong, P.T.P. (2017). Meaning-centered approach to research and therapy, second wave positive psychology, and the future of humanistic psychology. *The Humanistic Psychologist*, 45(3), 207–216.
- Woodson, L., & Harris, S.M. (2018). Teacher and student demographic variables which predict teacher referrals of males for special education evaluation. *Journal of At-Risk Issues*, 21, 32–42.
- World Health Organisation (WHO), (2002). *Constitution of the World Health Organisation*. Retrieved 12 November, 2018, from <http://whqlibdoc.who.int/hist/official-record/constitution.pdf>.
- World Health Organisation (WHO), (2017). *The World Health Organization World Mental Health Composite International Diagnostic Interview (WHO WMH-CIDI)*. Available at <https://www.hcp.med.harvard.edu/wmhcid/>. Accessed July 1, 2018.
- World Health Organization (WHO) and UNICEF, (2019). *Progress on household drinking water, sanitation and hygiene, 2000–2017*.

- Wright, T.A. (2003). Positive organisational behaviour: An idea whose time has come. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 24(4), 437-442
- White, S.C. (2013). *An introduction to the psychodynamics of workplace bullying*. London: Karnac.
- White, S.C. (2017). Relational wellbeing: re-centring the politics of happiness, policy and the self. *Policy & Politics*, 45(2), 121–136.
- White Paper on Transformation of the Public Service (WPTPS), (1995). Retrieved from [www.gov.za.info/dpsa.Pretoria](http://www.gov.za.info/dpsa.Pretoria), on 22 November 2013.
- White Paper on Transformation of the Public Service Delivery (WTPSD), (1997). *The Batho Pele Paper*. Retrieved from [www.gov.za.info/dpsa.Pretoria](http://www.gov.za.info/dpsa.Pretoria), on 22 November 2013.
- White Paper on Public Service Education and Training (WPPSET), (1998). Retrieved from [www.gov.za.info/dpsa.Pretoria](http://www.gov.za.info/dpsa.Pretoria), on 12 November 2018.
- Xu, Y., Farver, J., Yu, L., & Zhang, Z. (2009). Three types of shyness in Chinese children and the relation to effortful control. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 97(6), 1061-1073.
- Xu, B.D., Zhao, S.K., Li, C.R., & Lin, C.J. (2017). Authentic leadership and employee creativity: Testing the multilevel mediation model. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 38, 482–498. doi:10.1108/LODJ-09-2015-0194.
- 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>.
- Yang, Y., Li, Z., Liang, L., & Xue, Z. (2019): Why and when paradoxical leader behavior impact employee creativity. Thriving at work and psychological safety. *Current Psychology*, 39, 1154-1166.
- Young, R., Valach, L., & Collin, A. (1996). *A contextual explanation of career*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Young, A.W., & Burton, A.M. (2018). Are we face experts? *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, 22, 100–110.
- Yildirim, M., & Alanazi, Z.S. (2018). Gratitude and life satisfaction: Mediating role of perceived stress. *International Journal of Psychological Studies*, 10(3), 21-28.
- Yildirim, M., & Belen, H. (2018). Fear of happiness predicts subjective and psychological well-being above the Behavioral Inhibition System (BIS) and Behavioral Activation System (BAS) model of personality. *Journal of Positive Psychology and Wellbeing*, 2(1), 92-111.
- Yildirim, M., & Belen, H. (2019). The role of resilience in the relationships between the externality of happiness and subjective-well-being and flourishing: A structural Equation Model (SEM) approach. *Journal of Positive Psychology and Wellbeing*, 3(1): 62–76
- Yin, Y., Nabian, M., Ostadabbas, S., Fan, M., Chou, C., & Gendron, M. (2018). *Facial expression and peripheral physiology fusion to decode individualized affective experiences*. *ArXive.org*. Retrieved from <https://arxiv.org/abs/1811.07392v1>.



- Zebrowitz, L.A. (2017). First impressions from faces. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 26, 237–242.
- Zerbe, W.J., Ashkanasy, N.M., & Härtel, C.E.J. (2013). *Individual sources, dynamics, and expressions of emotion*. Bingley, U.K: Emerald insight.
- Zhang, R.G. (2018). How social exchange affects employees' thriving at work. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 9, 99-106.
- Zhang, Q., Chen, L., & Yang, Q. (2018). The effects of facial features on judicial decision making. *Advances in Psychological Science*, 26, 698–709.
- Zhu, X., Law, K.S., Sun, C.T., & Yang, D. (2018). Thriving of employees with disabilities: The roles of job self-efficacy, inclusion, and team-learning climate. *Human Resource Management*, 39, 111. doi:10.1002/hrm.21920.
- Zwetsloot, G., & Pot, F. (2004). "The business value of health management". *Journal of Business Ethics*, 55(2), 115-124. doi10.1007/s10551-004-1895-9.
- Zysberg, L., & Kasler, J. (2017). Learning disabilities and emotional intelligence. *J Psychol*, 151(5), 464-476. doi: 10.1080/00223980.2017.1314929.

APPENDIX A

RESTRICTED



**defence intelligence**

Department:  
Defence  
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

DI/R/202/3/7

Telephone: (012) 315-0216  
Fax: (012) 326-3246  
Enquiries: Brig Gen M. Sizani

Defence Intelligence  
Private Bag X367  
Pretoria  
0001

25 January 2017

**AUTHORITY TO CONDUCT RESEARCH: DIRECTORAL STUDENT RESEARCH STUDY: 9772380CB P.M. MOGALE**

1. Your letter MPI/C/9772380CA dd 23 January 2017 as well as the attached Proposal has reference.
2. Permission is hereby granted from a security perspective to Mr P.M. Mogale to conduct research in the DOD on "A psychological well-being profile for junior leaders in the DoD as requested.
3. Yours faithfully.

**(J.M. NYEMBE)**  
**CHIEF DEFENCE INTELLIGENCE: LT GEN**

WWMVWM (MPI Mr P.M. Mogale)

**DISTR**

For Action

Officer Commanding MPI

(Attention: Mr P.M. Mogale)

Internal

File: DI/R/202/3/7



Letshamo le Bophelo - Litsoho tsa Botsoa - Kgato ya Tsheliso - Sebe lezaKhaziso - Department of Defence - Matsho le Tsheliso  
Litsoho tsa Botsoa - Ntshamo le Botsoa - Letshamo le Tsheliso - Department van Vrededig - Litsoho le Tsheliso

RESTRICTED

## APPENDIX B

### CEMS/IOP RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

24 April 2017

Ref #: 2017/CEMS/IOP/004

Student #: 34505946

Staff #: N/A

Dear Phillemon Mogale,

**Decision: Referred back for amendment/clarification**

---

**Address:** 626 Block XX  
Soshanguve East  
0152  
**Cell no:** 073 2700976  
**E-mail:** ntsapo@webmail.co.za

**Supervisor:** Prof R M Oosthuizen

**Co-supervisor:** N/A

**Proposal:** A psychological well-being profile for junior leaders in the SANDF

**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 application was reviewed in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics by the committee on 19 April 2017.

**The following comments, emanating from the meeting, are tabled for your attention and clarification:**

**Section 4.2** Should be yes. The student works at the SANDF

**Section 5.3.5** Considering the number of participants anticipated in the study it is not clear from this section if the student will speak to the students in groups or individually. Explain the step-by-step details of how participants will be recruited. How will the scales be collected once completed by the participants? (This is covered in the consent form however it should be indicated in this section as well).

**Section 5.4.1** The questionnaire booklet indicates four (4) questionnaires where there is five (5) in total including the biographical information.