INVESTIGATING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CAREER ADAPTABILITY, CAREER ANCHORS AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

by

RONIKA BALDEO

submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF COMMERCE

in the subject

INDUSTRIAL AND ORGANISATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

SUPERVISOR: PROFESSOR R. T. TLADINYANE

FEBRUARY 2022

DECLARATION

Name: Ronika Baldeo
Student number: 31366147
Degree: Master of Commerce

INVESTIGATING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CAREER ADAPTABILITY, CAREER ANCHORS AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

I declare that the above dissertation is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

I further declare that I submitted the dissertation to originality checking software and that it falls within the accepted requirements for originality.

I further declare that I have not previously submitted this work, or part of it, for examination at Unisa for another qualification or at any other higher education institution.

24 FEBRUARY 2022

SIGNATURE DATE

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank the following individuals:

- My supervisor, Professor Rebecca Tladinyane, for her continuous expertise, guidance, direction and reassurance throughout this journey.
- To my son (Kamir) and daughter (Riona), for their constant love, support, encouragement, sacrifice and belief in me. I would not have been able to complete this study without them.
- To my parents (Mr and Mrs Singh), who always taught me that education is priceless. I dedicate this research to the memory of my mother, Mrs Shano Singh, who passed away during this journey. Her love and support during her illness will always be remembered.
- To the head and HR manager of the KZN Provincial Treasury, for granting me permission to conduct my research, and to the research participants for sacrificing their precious time to take part. Such support made it possible for me to achieve this goal.
- To Andries Masenge for his guidance and to my friends and work colleagues for their support.

SUMMARY

INVESTIGATING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CAREER ADAPTABILITY, CAREER ANCHORS AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Supervisor: Prof R. T. Tladinyane
Department: Industrial and Organisational Psychology
Degree: MCom (Industrial and Organisational Psychology)

The aim of this study was to (1) to investigate the relationship between career adaptability (measured by the Career Adaptability Scale), career anchors (measured by the Career Orientations Inventory) and organisational commitment (measured by the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire); and (2) determine whether employees from different groups, namely age, employment level, gender and race, differ significantly in their levels of career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment. A quantitative survey was conducted through simple random sampling on a sample (N = 158) of employees in the Provincial Treasury in KwaZulu-Natal (a public sector organisation).

The research findings indicated that a partial relationship exists between career adaptability and career anchors with organisational commitment. However, career adaptability has a significant relationship. The study therefore concluded that career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment are partially related. A further finding was that the variables of age, employment level, gender and race partially differ for career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment. It is recommended that strategies/interventions for employee retention practices should be enhanced by taking cognisance of the research findings relating to the three variables of career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment. In conclusion, recommendations were formulated for the field of industrial and organisational psychology and possible further research on this topic.

KEY TERMS: Career adaptability, career anchors, organisational commitment, industrial and organisational psychology, career psychology, age, employment levels, gender, race and retention.

Table of contents

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER 1

SCIENTIFIC OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH

This study focused on the relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment among KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Treasury officials. In this chapter, the background and motivation for the research are discussed leading to the formulation of the problem statement, research questions and research aims. The paradigm perspective that guided the research is then explained, followed by a discussion of the research design and the research methods, with reference to the various steps in the research process. The chapter concludes with the chapter layout.

1.1. BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE FOR THE RESEARCH

The aim of this study was to determine the relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment for the purposes of retention practice.

Employee retention means that hired employees stay longer in the organisation because of the adoption of retention practices (Akuoko, 2012). Organisations put measures in place to keep staff for longer (Stewart & Brown, 2011). Strategies and practices are in place to encourage employees to remain longer in the organisation by supporting their goals, objectives and operational (job) needs (Eastern Cape Social Development and Special Programmes, 2012). This study was conducted in the Kwazulu-Natal Provincial Treasury, a South African public sector organisation. The South African public sector remains the largest single employer in the country and requires employees with the capability to perform who are committed and professional in order to meet its mandate (Public Service Commission, 2017). The problem is that the public sector has been losing its skilled employees to the private sector (Ogony, 2018). The negative impact of staff leaving weighs heavily on employee performance, productivity and organisational service delivery (Bafaneli, 2015). Furthermore, the vacancy rate in the Kwazulu-Natal Provincial Treasury (KZN Provincial Treasury) is relatively high compared to the preferred 10% (KZN Provincial Treasury, 2020) – hence the selection of this organisation to participate in this study. In its Strategic Plan (2020–2025), the organisation cited huge problems in attracting and retaining officials owing to rigid job evaluation rules, as well with challenges in retaining employees in various scarce skills posts (KZN Provincial Treasury, 2020). The Human Resource Plan Implementation Report (2021/22) stated that the higher vacancy rate is as a

result of a younger workforce continuously exiting the organisation – hence the need for stringent retention measures to overcome this challenge (KZN Provincial Treasury, 2022). The findings of this research study could add value in recommending strategies (aligned to career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment) for the organisation to adopt in order to encourage its employees to remain longer in the organisation (retention practices). The wider South African public sector could also benefit from this study by adopting the recommended strategies for retention practice based on the study outcomes because limited literature is available for similar studies in the National and Provincial Treasuries and the wider South African public sector.

Also, based on research studies it is evident that there is a lack of theoretical and empirical understanding of the relationship between the three variables of career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment. Moreover, there is a lack of theoretical and empirical understanding of the differences in career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment in relation to age, employment level, gender and race. The aim of this study was therefore to investigate the theoretical and empirical relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment in order to add to the existing body of knowledge.

In order for organisations to perform successfully in the current competitive business world, they need committed employees (Lesabe & Nkosi, 2007). Furthermore, the success of any organisation is dependent upon every employee being committed to the organisation's strategies, especially its goals and objectives. Maintaining and developing human resources and realising the needs of employees are vital strategies to ensure employee loyalty and commitment (Lesabe & Nkosi, 2007). It is imperative to ensure that employees remain committed because committed employees have a lower intention of leaving the organisation (Kuean et al., 2010).

Research by Coetzee et al. (2007) indicated that organisational commitment is increased if an organisation offers challenging posts, caters for work-life balance, allows employees to develop their skills and provides satisfying work. Managers need to know the career needs of their labour force and provide an organisational environment in which employees can apply their competencies, thus encouraging personal growth (Clinton-Baker, 2013). According to Lesabe and Nkosi (2007) and Manetjie (2009), a conducive work environment, compensation, benefit packages, morale and motivation, career growth and development, job-related factors and

performance management influence individuals and can encourage them to stay with an organisation for longer.

It is therefore essential for organisations to take care of their human resources for retention purposes, by adopting strategies to attract, develop and motivate an organisation's human resources. This will encourage these human resources to show their loyalty by remaining for longer in the organisation (Clinton-Baker, 2013).

Greenhaus et al. (2010) suggested that greater optimism towards career goals implies an increase in levels of job involvement, which makes individuals more committed to their jobs, and according to Meyer and Allen (1991), increases their organisational commitment. Career anchors form the basis of career decisions, which ultimately inform the career goal. Hence an individual's psychological commitment to the job, career values and motives is influenced by his or her career anchors (Coetzee et al., 2007).

According to Meyer and Allen's (1991) Organisational Commitment Model, individuals with affective commitment have an emotional attachment to their job because of a connection with the organisation's values and the fact that they like their job (Meyer & Allen, 1991). A person is most likely to like his or her job if there is congruence between his or her attitude, competencies and behaviours with the organisation's values. Meyer and Allen's (1991) Organisational Commitment Model also includes continuance commitment (i.e. an individual's commitment because of the effort and time invested in the organisation) and normative commitment (commitment by the individual out of loyalty). Organisations need to consider such matters if they are to ensure that staff choose to remain in their employ in the long term or for retention practice purposes.

According to Lumley (2009), career anchors have a partial relationship with organisational commitment. Her (Lumley, 2009) research outcomes indicated an increase in affective organisational commitment because of the need of new entrants to build a career (building on skill and expertise) and for existing individuals to stabilise their careers. Lumley (2009) stated that it is necessary to understand the interaction of career anchors (i.e. what drives a career choice, say, stability or security) and their interaction with organisational commitment. Attachment to an organisation, according to Lumley (2009), is a result of a career anchor (a career motive or value) that ensures that a person remains committed to his or her career choice. In order to ensure

organisational commitment, it is thus necessary to ensure that the organisation supports the employee's career anchors (Lumley, 2009).

Naghipour and Galavandi (2015) posited that where there is congruence between the desires of an individual, the organisation and the work requirements, an employee demonstrates increased commitment to the organisation. They (Naghipour & Galavandi, 2015) further explained that this organisational commitment is strengthened when the employee willingly chooses to stay with the organisation, would willingly do anything for the organisation or have trust and belief in the organisation. Naghipour and Galavandi (2015) concluded that a positive relationship exists between career anchors and organisational commitment.

The work environment is dynamic and employees need to be able to adapt to vocational or work-related change (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Individuals should therefore take cognisance of the future impact of change on their careers and personally align their vocational needs to match their future careers (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011). Coetzee (2014) suggested that career adaptability is a significant psychosocial resource or career metacapacity that an individual applies to manage career growth, transition or change. If this is enhanced, according to Ferreira et al. (2013), it will result in greater attachment to an organisation. Career adaptability involves key elements that an individual use to adapt to change or use as a coping strategy, and this includes "concern or curiosity over the change, confidence, control and commitment of self to adapt to the changing circumstances" (Ferreira et al., 2013, p. 31).

When an organisation strategises interventions to encourage staff to stay longer or to retain them, it needs to take into account the diversity of its workforce (Clinton-Baker, 2013). With this in mind, this study sought to determine whether career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment differ in terms of age, employment level, gender and race groups.

The Employment Equity Act (1998) compels organisations to have an equitable workforce in terms of gender and race, and advocates that females be given the same employment opportunities as their male counterparts. Furthermore, Schreuder and Coetzee (2011) highlighted the fact that more women are entering the workforce. It is

therefore, imperative to understand the differences between the male and female gender groups in relation to career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment. To ensure an equitable workforce, such an understanding will enable organisations to identify and meet the career adaptive and career anchors needs, and elements driving the commitment of female employees in order to retain them in employment

Based on the above background, one could infer that career adaptability and career anchors have a positive relationship with an employee's choice to remain committed or stay longer in an organisation. Also, if the organisation supports the motives or organisational commitment type of the employee, he or she will remain longer with the organisation. Further research into understanding the relationship (and its dynamics) between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment in the current study, should therefore provide a better perspective on how these variables could be used for retention purposes because, according to Singh and Dixit (2012), practices can be adopted to increase employees' tenure with a particular organisation.

1.2. PROBLEM STATEMENT

In retaining its employees, the KZN Provincial Treasury, as the organisation involved in this study, has a high vacancy rate (Provincial Treasury, 2022). This organisation also has huge problems in attracting and retaining officials on account of rigid job evaluation rules, including challenges with retaining employees in various scarce skills posts (KZN Provincial Treasury, 2020). The wider public sector has been losing its skilled employees to the private sector (Ogony, 2018). There is a paucity of studies dealing with these issues in the South African public sector, including the National and Provincial Treasuries.

Literature studies indicate that there is a wealth of research on the relationship between career adaptability and organisational commitment, and between career anchors and organisational commitment. However, there is a dearth of research focused on determining the theoretical and empirical relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment in the same study. There is also a paucity of research on these constructs and the biographical variables of age, employment level, gender and race in the same study. Literature studies have demonstrated theoretical relationships between career adaptability and organisational commitment and between career anchors and organisational commitment. However,

there is a shortage of research investigating the theoretical relationships between the three constructs in the same study. Furthermore, the literature also indicates that similar studies conducted in the public sector are limited.

The research results of this study should contribute to the existing research and the body of knowledge in the field of industrial and organisational psychology, with reference to career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment. It is anticipated that the results should also benefit industrial psychologists/human resource practitioners in the field of industrial and organisational psychology. It is evident from the literature, as highlighted in the preceding paragraphs, that organisations need to know the career anchors, career adaptive needs and organisational commitment motives of an employee because this knowledge has a positive effect on his or her decision to stay longer in an organisation. Hence the results of this study could help organisations to determine retention strategies to retain their employees for longer.

The research problems for this study were formulated as follows:

- There is a lack of theoretical and empirical understanding of the relationship between the three variables of career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment.
- There is a lack of theoretical and empirical understanding of the differences in career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment in relation to age, employment level, gender and race.

Based on the empirical study and literature review, the following research questions were formulated:

1.2.1. Research questions relating to the literature review

In terms of the literature study, the following specific research questions were addressed in this study:

- How is career adaptability conceptualised in the literature?
- How is the concept of career anchors conceptualised in the literature?
- How is organisational commitment conceptualised in the literature?
- Does a theoretical relationship exist between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment?

- What are the implications of the theoretical relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment for retention practices?

1.2.2. Research questions relating to the empirical study

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

- Does an empirical relationship exist between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment?
- Do age, employment level, gender and race groups differ significantly with regard to career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment?
- What recommendations can be made for future research in the field of industrial and organisational psychology?

1.3. AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

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

1.3.1. General aim

The general aim of this research was to investigate the relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment, and to determine whether individuals from different age, employment level, gender and race groups differ significantly in respect of these three variables.

1.3.2. Specific aims

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

1.3.2.1. Literature review

In terms of the literature review, the specific aims were as follows:

- Conceptualise career adaptability from a theoretical perspective.
- Conceptualise career anchors from a theoretical perspective.
- Conceptualise organisational commitment from a theoretical perspective.
- Conceptualise the theoretical relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment.

- Explain the implications of the theoretical relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment for retention practices.

1.3.2.2. Empirical study

In terms of the empirical study, the specific aims were as follows:

- Investigate the empirical relationship dynamics between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment.
- Determine whether age, employment level, gender and race groups differ significantly regarding career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment.
- Formulate recommendations for the discipline of industrial and organisational psychology, particularly with regard to retention practices and further research.

1.4. THE PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE

According to Hennink et al. (2011), a paradigm is a framework or model that is used to explain and understand phenomena. It is utilised to look at reality and help to conceptualise thoughts and observations. Researchers usually conduct research according to the scientific paradigm they are trained in. A paradigm comprises of epistemological, ontological and methodological constructs.

Matthews and Ross (2010) explained ontology as what needs to be studied, while epistemology is the theory behind gaining knowledge of and understanding concepts. Hennink et al. (2011) described methodology as the way one goes about acquiring knowledge about the world and the approach to collecting data for research.

1.4.1. The positivist epistemological approach and humanistic paradigm

1.4.1.1. Positivism

The positivism paradigm follows a scientific research approach and focuses on measuring human behaviour through causal relationships, observation and experimentation (Kivunja & Bawa, 2017).

According to Matthews and Ross (2010), positivism involves totally independent observations of social phenomena rather than subjective observations. This paradigm was deemed appropriate for this study because of its focus on social phenomena, that

is, career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment. Another aim of study was to determine the relationships between the independent variables (career adaptability and career anchors) and the dependent variable (organisational commitment). The positivism paradigm's further relevance to this study related to the assessment of human behaviour.

1.4.1.2. Post-positivism

Post-positivism focuses on unbiased realism (Kivunja & Bawa, 2017). It is an approach used to grow knowledge, but includes approaches that positivism rejects such as psychoanalysis. It also attempts to understand rather than determine causal relationships and draw conclusions based on observation (Fox, 2008).

Creswell's (as cited in Potgieter, 2013, p.10) key assumptions of the post-positivist approach include the following:

- "Knowledge is conjectural. Evidence is always imperfect and fallible, and hypotheses are not proven, but research indicates a failure to reject a hypothesis".
- "Research is a process of making claims and refining or abandoning other claims".
- "Data, rational considerations and evidence are shapers of knowledge".
- "The aim of research is to develop relevant, true statements in order to explain or describe the situation or causal relationships of interest".
- "Objectivity is a key factor, and methods and conclusions relating to bias have to be examined".

1.4.1.3. Humanistic

The key assumptions of the humanistic paradigm are that humans are free, and the actions of individuals are intentional and must therefore have value. It involves the study of humans throughout their lifespan, more so as they develop, paying attention to the "self, motivation and goals" (Learning Theories, 2014). This study thus involved the humanistic paradigm in the sense that individuals make certain choices to stay with an organisation if that its supports their career needs or anchors. They remain motivated to stay on the basis that they are able to positively apply their behaviours, attitudes and competencies in the organisation.

1.4.2. Metatheoretical statements

According to Lor (2011), meta-theoretical statements are broad theories within a particular domain. The main focus of the literature review in the current study was career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment. The broad overarching theory or meta-theoretical statement of this study was that of industrial and organisational psychology, with particular focus on its sub-disciplines of organisational psychology and career psychology.

Industrial and organisational psychology deals with the welfare of workers, both psychological and physical (Cherry, 2014), and covers work attitudes and behaviour in a work environment. In this study, career adaptability and career anchors were discussed in a career psychology context. According to Van Vuuren (2010), career psychology involves understanding what work means and its quality in a person's life, as well as vocational and career counselling, organisational mental health, stress and work-life balance issues. Career psychology is a "psycho-social contract" between the employer and employee, with the focus on both the employer and employee having maximum expectations, and the contribution of each of them to the other in order to maintain a balanced psychosocial contract. However, the emphasis on career management appears to be shifting owing to changes in the workplace, which now focus on career counselling, job and organisational commitment, and staff turnover and retention.

In this study, organisational commitment is discussed in the context of organisational psychology. Organisational psychology focuses on the satisfaction of people's needs in the workplace (Van Vuuren, 2010), with due consideration of what an organisation needs to operate optimally. Hence elements such as work motivation, staff retention, participative management, leadership, communication, group dynamics, conflict, decision making, power, organisational culture, and organisational change, health, development and structure are important (Van Vuuren, 2010).

1.4.3. Theoretical models

The literature review section includes career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment theories. In the context of research, a theory is defined as a scientific principle or principles directed at explaining phenomena (Merriam-Webster.com dictionary, n.d.). In this study, the literature review on career adaptability is based on the work of Savickas (1997), while the literature review on career anchors

is based on Schein's Career Anchor Model (1990a). Furthermore, the literature review on organisational commitment is presented in terms of the Meyer and Allen's (1997) Three Component Model of Organisational Commitment.

1.4.3.1. Savickas's (1997) career adaptability dimensions

The dimensions of this model that support job or career transitions are career concern, control, curiosity and confidence (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012).

- *Career concern.* Career concern, as described by Coetzee and Harry (2015), relates to demonstrating worry over work-related growth for the time ahead and, subsequently, planning accordingly for that future.
- *Career control.* According to Savickas and Porfeli (2012), career control, is about assuming accountability for one's vocational and work experiences, governing one's self and being persistent and decisive in one's vocational growth.
- *Career curiosity.* Career curiosity means giving much thought to the various levels or roles that individuals see themselves in, and going out and searching for relevant information (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012).
- *Career confidence.* Savickas and Porfeli (2012) postulated that career confidence encourages ambition and goals, which leads to increased career confidence to achieve these goals or overcome vocational challenges.

1.4.3.2. Schein's Career Anchor Model

Schein (1993) developed this model in an attempt to understand how management careers come about and how employees learn the values of their organisations as characterised by the following:

- technical/functional competence (having a high level of skill/competence in the workplace, inter alia)
- general managerial competence (enthusiasm in dealing with organisational challenges followed by taking decisions to solve any problems)
- autonomy/independence (one's need for freedom in the job and work environment)
- security/stability (lengthy employment with retirement and well-being incentives)
- entrepreneurial/creativity (the ability to generate new corporate ideas)

- service/dedication to a cause (work performed benefits organisations and communities)
- pure challenge (challenging or risk work that requires endurance)
- lifestyle (balance between family and work commitments)

1.4.3.3. Meyer and Allen's Three-Component Model (1997)

Jaros (2007) postulated that the Meyer and Allen's Three-Component Model is a prominent model that helps one to understand commitment in the workplace and it is the most researched construct and measure of organisational commitment. This model involves classification of a person's commitment to an organisation as follows (Jaros, 2007):

- affective commitment (owing to positive work experiences, a person wishes to stay longer in the organisation)
- normative commitment (a person feels morally obligated to stay)
- continuance commitment (a person stays longer because he or she feels that the cost of leaving would be more than staying in the organisation)

1.4.4. Conceptual descriptions

The following conceptual descriptions served as a point of departure for discussion in this research:

1.4.4.1. Career adaptability

Career adaptability according to Savickas (2007) is a social construct used by a person to cope with changes in his or her career, or trauma he or she may experience relating to the career, within an occupational role. Savickas (2007) further explained career adaptability as preparing to deal with expected tasks and using this preparedness to cope with unexpected tasks brought on by work-related transitions. The career adaptability resources that support an individual to enable him or her to adapt are concern, curiosity, control and confidence (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012).

1.4.4.2. Career anchors

A career anchor is a work-related ability, a motivating factor, a perception/attitude or a value that propels an individual towards a particular career choice and which the individual will not relinquish (Schein, 1990$_a$). Schreuder and Coetzee (2011) described career anchors as a process in which individuals gain more work experience, they tend

to follow certain careers that are more challenging or more financially rewarding, and they seek the same in subsequent careers. Schein (1990$_b$) introduced eight career anchors, namely technical/functional competence, general managerial competence, autonomy/independence, security/stability, entrepreneurial/creativity, service dedication, pure challenge and lifestyle.

1.4.4.3. Organisational commitment

Suma and Lesha (2013, p. 45) defined organisational commitment as "a linkage of the individual to the organisation" and the "relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a specific organisation." It has the following characteristics: "A strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values; a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation" (Suma & Lesha, 2013, p. 45).

As mentioned above, Meyer and Allen (1991) indicated that organisational commitment is a "psychological state", which is explained as

- affection for one's job (affective commitment)
- fear of loss (continuance commitment)
- sense of obligation to stay (normative commitment)

1.5. CENTRAL HYPOTHESIS

The central hypothesis for this study was formulated as follows:

A relationship exists between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment. Furthermore, individuals from different age, employment level, gender and race groups differ significantly in respect of these three variables.

1.6. RESEARCH DESIGN

Creswell and Poth (2018) described research design as a plan that informs the approach or steps that is/are followed in conducting research (including definition of the problem statement and data collection, analysis and interpretation).

Research design is a systematic approach that is directed at ensuring a link between the research questions, the research results and the conclusions drawn.

1.6.1. Research approach

A quantitative approach was adopted in this study as the responses to the research questions were measured/quantified (Bairagi & Munot, 2019). This type of approach allows the researcher to explore the relationships between variables (Matthews & Ross, 2010). This approach therefore supported the central hypothesis of this study, namely to determine the relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment.

Data was collected from the sample group through standardised questionnaires. A cross-sectional survey design was used. According to Neuman (2011), this is a positivist approach that enables the researcher to collect data on multiple variables. In the current study, the research questions required an exploration or description of the relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment – hence the application of a descriptive research design. A descriptive design is applicable to studies in which none of the variables are controlled, and the findings are determined through prediction based on the results of the study (Bairagi & Munot, 2019).

Descriptive, correlational and inferential statistical approaches were also adopted to determine the empirical relationships between variables.

1.6.2. Research variables

Welman et al. (2005) described the concept “variable” as an attribute of a research study. It comprises an independent variable, which refers to that which varies or can be manipulated, thus determining whether the independent variable has an impact on what is being observed (Welman et al., 2005). In this research study, the variables that were categorised as independent were career adaptability and career anchors. Organisational commitment was categorised as the dependent variable, and was influenced by the variables, career adaptability and career anchors. Flannelly et al. (2014) defined an independent variable as that which effects change, with the dependent variable being influenced by this change, which the researcher has to assess.

1.6.3. Reliability and validity

1.6.3.1. Reliability

A study must be reliable, which means that the same results should be obtained if similar research is conducted on a different occasion from the original research (Welman et al., 2005). According to Joppe (as cited in Golafshani, 2003), reliability is a measurement/assessment that has a credible meaning in that the same results are produced at a different time. In other words, if similar instruments are used to test the same construct using the same sample, the results should be the same. The principle of generalisation applies to reliability in that regardless of different times, different samples or similar types of measuring instruments, the results yielded should be the same (Welman et al., 2005). The reliability of the literature study was ensured by using theoretical studies and models as well as existing relevant literature studies by other researchers. The reliability of the empirical study was ensured by using the Cronbach alpha coefficient (α), which measures the internal consistency of the instrument by assessing whether all the items of the instrument measure the same construct (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Internal consistency should be ≥ 0.70 to be considered acceptable (Manerikar & Manerikar, 2015). The internal consistency was assessed to ensure reliability (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

1.6.3.2. Validity

Research outcomes should show validity. This means a similar meaning or reflection of reality or what is being measured (Matthews & Ross, 2010). According to Joppe (as cited in Golafshani, 2003) validity means that the outcome is a reflection of actuality or the real situation. Validity is compromised by following incorrect research procedures, using faulty instruments, making mistakes during the research or selecting samples that are problematic (Welman et al., 2005). An example of a problematic sample would be using a sample size that is too small in relation to the population, which indicates that generalisation of the research results to the population may be incorrect (Cherry, 2020).

The following steps were taken to enhance validity:

- The research design was constructed to ensure validity.
- The sample was selected in line with the targeted population group.
- Appropriate models and theories were selected in line with the study and research approach.
- Appropriate measuring instruments were applied in in the required manner.

- Reliable data was used to ensure that the correct conclusions would be drawn.
- The data was analysed correctly using the appropriate statistical data analysis methods.
- Generalisation of results was dependent on the sample from which the sample was drawn.

1.6.4. Ethical considerations

The following ethical guidelines were followed both prior to and during the research:

- Authorisation was obtained from the Head of KZN Provincial Treasury to conduct the investigation.
- Participants' informed consent was acquired prior to the initiation of the research.
- Confidentiality and privacy were ensured.
- The researcher ensured that any information obtained during data collection would not to be used for any purpose other than the intended purpose of the study.
- There was transparency between the researcher and the research participants (providing a brief summary/understanding of the investigation and clear feedback via email on the outcomes of the study).
- Plagiarism was not committed and the results were reported honestly.
- The rights of participants were respected at all times.

1.6.5. Unit of analysis

The unit of analysis refers to individuals, groups, organisations and events characteristic of a population. Research focuses on the relationship between variables in the respective population. The unit of analysis is therefore the total collection of the population and the variables that encompasses the research (Welman et al., 2005). In this study, the total population was the entire staff complement of the KZN Provincial Treasury.

1.7. RESEARCH METHOD

The research method entailed the literature review and empirical study. The research was conducted in two phases, namely conceptualisation and the literature review, and the empirical study:

1.7.1. Phase 1: Conceptualisation and literature review phase

The conceptualisation and literature review phase entailed gaining a theoretical understanding of career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment. The purpose of the literature review was to determine theoretical relationships and the implications thereof for career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment. It was also necessary to determine the theoretical relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment for retention practice. National and international journals, dissertations and textbooks were used to obtain information.

1.7.2. Phase 2: Empirical study

1.7.2.1. Step 1: Population and sample

The sample used in this study was classified as public servants from the KZN Provincial Treasury. They belonged to different age, employment level, gender and race categories. Employment level included senior management, middle and junior management, first-line supervisors and staff categories. Simple random sampling was used (Welman et al., 2005). The organisation had a staff complement of 379 employees and the sample size was 158.A list of 379 permanently employed employees, aggregated into age, employment level, gender and race groups, was obtained from the human resources department, and used as the basis for randomly identifying staff for the distribution of the surveys.

1.7.2.2. Step 2: Choosing and justifying the choice of measuring instruments

The most appropriate methodology for this study was the questionnaire as a survey tool, because the aim was to sample a large group of participants. Since a quantitative research approach was adopted, the questionnaire was deemed most appropriate for this approach.

The scale design selected was the Likert scale (Matthews & Ross, 2010). Participants were able to express how strongly they felt about certain topics and at the same time,

the scale helped the researcher to elicit different opinions. The scale contained a series of statements aimed at testing cognitive and affective attitudes. The respondents had to either agree or disagree with each statement on a sliding scale.

Four questionnaires were used, three of which were directed at a particular variable, as described below:

The Biographical Questionnaire

This questionnaire was used to collect information on age, employment level, gender and race.

Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS) (Savickas, 2012)

This scale has 24 items and is divided into four subscales. Each subscale assesses career confidence, curiosity, concern and control. The reliability of this instrument has been rated as excellent (Tien et al., 2012). It is a five-point scale ranging from not strong (1) to strongest (5) (Savickas, 2012). According to Savickas and Porfeli (2012), the CAAS was developed to assess career adaptability, with particular reference to its four dimensions of career concern, career curiosity, career confidence and career control, thus making it the most appropriate measuring instrument for the current study.

Examples of items on the CAAS (Savickas, 2012) are as follows:

- “Thinking of what my future will be like”.
- “Realising that today’s choices shape my future”.
- “Expecting the future to be good”.

The internal reliability of the CAA scale denotes acceptable reliability of the CAAS as per a previous study conducted by Coetzee and Harry (2015) with Cronbach alphas ranging from .70 to .83 for the CAA subscales.

Career Orientations Inventory (COI) (Schein, 1990$_a$)

This inventory was deemed relevant to this study because it measures Schein’s eight career anchors divided into three dimensions, namely talent- based motives; need-based motives and value-based motives (Schein, 1990$_a$). It comprises 40 statements. It is a Likert-type scale ranging from (1) never true to (6) always true, indicating how true each statement is perceived to be. For scoring, the numbers relating to a career anchor are added and the average calculated (Schein, 1993). According to Coetzee et

al. (2007), the validity of this instrument is sufficient for studies that relate to broad trends instead of focusing on differences between individuals. Likewise, this research study looked at broad trends. Using Cronbach alpha scales, Coetzee et al. (2007) further described the reliability of this instrument, as set out in Table 1.1.

The following are examples of items on the COI (Schein, 1990$_a$):

- "I dream of being so good at what I do that my expert advice will be sought continually."
- "I am most fulfilled in my work when I have been able to integrate and manage the efforts of others."
- "I dream of having a career that will allow me the freedom to do a job my own way and on my own schedule."

The internal reliability of the COI scale denotes acceptable reliability as per a previous study conducted by Coetzee et al. (2007) with Cronbach alphas ranging from .59 to .78 for the COI subscales.

Meyer and Allen's (1991) Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

The survey was developed by Meyer and Allen (1991) and consists of "Affective, Normative and Continuance Commitment with eight items per dimension" (Jaros, 2007, p. 9). The rating scale is as follows: "1 (Strongly Disagree)" to "7 (Strongly Agree)" (Scales, 2018, p. 57). The following are examples of items on the OCQ (Meyer & Allen, 1991):

- Affective commitment: "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my life in this organisation."
- Affective commitment: "I enjoy discussing my organisation with the people outside it."
- Continuance commitment: "I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up."
- Continuance commitment: "It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to."
- Normative commitment: "I do not feel an obligation to stay with my current employer."
- Normative commitment: "I would feel guilty if I left my organisation now."

Meyer and Allen's (1997) results for internal consistency confirmed that the tool is a reliable measure of organisational commitment. The correlation findings indicate that the tool is valid. This tool was selected because of its proven reliability and validity by researchers, and the fact that the three subscales of affective, continuance and normative commitment were most appropriate for this study. The internal reliability of the OCQ scale denotes acceptable reliability as per a previous study conducted by Coetzee et al. (2007) with Cronbach alphas ranging from .74 to .83 for the OCQ subscales.

1.7.2.3. Step 3: Data administration

Data type

The data collated was primary data. According to Matthews and Ross (2010), primary data is used when the researcher collects his or her data for the study in question, not data that has previously been gathered for other research purposes. The reason for using primary data was that no comparable investigations had been done recently in the government service in South Africa as per previous findings. Primary data was collated by means of survey questionnaires.

Collecting statistics

- The questionnaires were emailed to all participants. Printed copies of the questionnaire were also made available to those participants who requested a printed copy. Attached to each questionnaire was a participant information letter and a consent form.
- Clarity was provided in the participant information letter on the reasons for the study, namely to assist the researcher with her master's degree, the research topic, summarised background on the reason for conducting such research and how it could add value to the public service.
- The participants provided their biographical information and then completed the questionnaire using a tick box exercise.
- The completed consent forms and questionnaires were hand delivered by the participants or collected by the appointed fieldworker to ensure the researcher's anonymity. The deadline allowed for an extension period for late submissions.

Data management and storage

The responses to the questionnaires were captured on Microsoft Excel, which assisted with data management and coding in preparation for the next process of psychometric battery scoring.

1.7.2.4. Step 4: Data processing using statistical methods

A quantitative research method and the correlational approach were used. It was deemed most appropriate because the focus of the study was on examining the relationship between variables. As indicated by Cherry (2014), relationships between variables can be positive, where there is either a parallel increase or decrease of both the variables. A strong positive correlation is prevalent between variables when the numerical data is near to +1.00. When the numerical data is in the proximity of –1.00, a negative relationship is prevalent. This means that a converse relationship is prevalent between the two variables.

Data processing entailed the use of the following statistical tools and assessments:

- the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) (SPSS Tutorials, n.d.)
- Cronbach coefficient alphas, which refer to internal consistency or indicates how closely related a group of items are (IDRE, 2014)
- Pearson's product moment correlation, which shows the strength of the relationship between the variables (Laerd Statistics, n.d.)
- inferential computations which determine inferences or assumptions about populations
- T-tests and analysis of variance (ANOVA) computations to compare group means with biographical variables

1.7.2.5. Step 5: Formulation of the research hypotheses

A relationship exists between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment. Furthermore, individuals from different age, employment level, gender and race groups differ significantly in respect of these three variables (as indicated in section 1.5 of this chapter).

1.7.2.6. Step 6: Results analysis and reporting

The statistical data from the statistical package (SPSS) results were presented in table format and then analysed to determine the levels of significance between the variables using established interpretation guideline for statistical tests. These results were integrated with the other findings.

1.7.2.7. Step 7: Integration of research findings

The findings of the study were interpreted and discussed on the basis of other research outcomes.

1.7.2.8. Step 8: Formulating conclusions, limitations and recommendations

Based on the research findings in relation to the central hypothesis, conclusions were drawn. Furthermore, suggestions were made for the discipline of career psychology, researchers, practitioners and the organisation involved in the study. The limitations of the study were also discussed. Contradictory findings were identified and suggestions made for possible future research on the topic.

1.8. CHAPTER LAYOUT

The dissertation was subdivided into the following chapters:

Chapter 1: Scientific orientation to the study
This chapter 1 focused on the background on and motivation for the study, the problem statement, aims, paradigm perspective, research design and method, and concluded with the chapter layout.

Chapter 2: Career adaptability
This chapter conceptualises career adaptability and the theoretical models and variables (age, employment level, gender and race) affecting the concept, and the practical implications of career adaptability from an individual and organisational perspective.

Chapter 3: Career anchors
This chapter conceptualises career anchors, and the theoretical models and variables (age, employment level, gender and race) affecting the concept. The practical implications of career anchors from an individual and organisational perspective are also discussed.

Chapter 4: Organisational commitment

This chapter conceptualises organisational commitment and the theoretical models and variables (age, employment level, gender and race) affecting the concept. The practical implications of organisational commitment are discussed from an individual and organisational perspective. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the theoretical integration of the three variables with the demographic variables of age, employment level, gender and race.

Chapter 5: Empirical study

This chapter focuses on the research methodology adopted in this study including the measuring instruments selected, data collection and the statistical approaches used to analyse the data.

Chapter 6: Research results

This chapter deals with the statistical results in relation to the various statistical tests used and their interpretation.

Chapter 7: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

This chapter provides a discussion of the results of the study. Furthermore, recommendations are made for the field of industrial and organisational psychology. The limitations are highlighted, and recommendations formulated for possible future research in the field of industrial and organisational psychology.

1.9. CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the scientific orientation to the research was discussed. This included the background on and motivation for the study, the research problem, aims, paradigm perspective and research design. The chapter concluded with the chapter layout.

Chapter 2 explores the literature on career adaptability.

CHAPTER 2

CAREER ADAPTABILITY

Chapter 2 conceptualises the construct of career adaptability and provides a discussion of the literature on the construct. It explores the theoretical approaches and dimensions underpinning this construct, as well as the practical implications of career adaptability. The influence of biographical variables on career adaptability is also touched on.

2.1. CONCEPTUALISATION OF CAREER ADAPTABILITY

With the advancement of technology and societal development, it is essential that individuals adapt to change in order to be successful (Chen et al., 2020). The world of work, according Savickas et al. (2009), has changed significantly in the 21st century compared to the previous century as a result of globalisation and new state-of-the-art information technology. The impact is more frequent complex changes in the design of jobs and jobs in the labour market, which compels workers to keep abreast of or adapt to these changes (Savickas et al., 2009). Workers need to adapt to these changes by taking the initiative to control and manage their careers through demonstrating adaptive behaviour, referred to as career adaptability (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Career adaptability is therefore an enabler to adjust to career-related change (Chen, et al. 2020).

Career adaptability was introduced 40 years ago and has its foundation in the “life-span, life-space theory” (Hartung & Cadaret, 2017, p. 15). This construct originated from the construction theory (Maree, 2017). Savickas (2001) describes adaptability as the use of work tasks and work-related behaviours to guide one’s career choices and career or job changes. Career adaptability has subsequently contributed significantly to explaining behaviour in the workplace, as well as plans or strategies that individuals develop to promote their career growth (Savickas, 2012). Career adaptability is key in understanding career-related behaviour and has a great influence in moulding an individual’s career path (Maree, 2017).

With increased workplace dynamism, Hartung and Cadaret (2017) postulated that career adaptability is becoming more significant in the workplace. Adaptability is increasingly necessary because individuals must be able to adapt to modifications or

variations in the workplace, in the job performed or working with individuals from different backgrounds. Careers are becoming more protean, universal and diversified, extending beyond organisations, and this requires individuals to cope with or adjust to the resultant career-related changes (Zacher, 2014). According to Savickas (2005), career adaptability is an essential psychosocial or coping mechanism that helps individuals to adjust to work-related transitions through the application of certain attitudes, behaviours and competencies (Ferreira, 2012). These psychosocial or adaptive resources are summarised as follows: individuals showing concern over their future careers; exploring self and gathering information of the future career; and having control and confidence in executing plans towards attaining future career goals (Savickas, 2005). Savickas and Porfeli (2012) refer to career meta-capacities as a set of psychological means that individuals use to cope and succeed in their careers.

According to Coetzee et al. (2013) career adaptability is one of the career meta-capacities and comprises competencies, beliefs and attitudes. Savickas (2005) further explained that individual's use these meta-capacities to problem solve career-related issues, changes in careers, career-related traumas or career advancement plans. Career adaptability conceptualisation advocates this concept as a psychosocial paradigm characterised by the adaptive resources possessed by workers (Savickas, 1997). These resources help workers to deal with existing and future work assignments and work changes, regardless of the magnitude or effect on an individual and their integration with society (Savickas, 1997).

A worker uses career adaptability mechanisms to manage job challenges, be it changes in jobs or work-related problems that effect change. Being prepared to take on these unexpected tasks adds to the philosophy of career adaptability (Savickas, 2007). Career adaptability is described as comprising "psychosocial resources and transactional competencies" that are used to give direction and guide vocational change (Coetzee & Harry, 2015, p. 2). Savickas and Porfeli (2012) defined transactional resources as work-related information and abilities gained through the schooling/learning and work experiences of individuals.

Psychosocial resources refer to a person's resources that are a collective of thoughts and behaviours (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). A change in vocation is usually a result of work-related traumas or changes in work (Savickas, 2005). An individual's thoughts, competencies, attitudes and behaviours, as stated by Chan (2014), Bimrose et al.

(2011) and Coetzee, Ferreira et al. (2015), are subsequently triggered in order to accommodate such change. This change enables an individual to deal with current and anticipated tasks that are presented as part of vocational growth (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). According to Tladinyane and Van der Merwe (2016), career adaptability is an adaptive resource that focuses on an individual's ability to positively handle career problems or changes that are vocational. These changes could emanate from the labour market, organisation, job or work tasks undergoing change (Bimrose et al., 2011). Savickas (1997) contended that adaptability is a value-adding ability that enables individuals to initiate unplanned adjustments to situations that are new or stem from changes in the work environment or the actual job. Bimrose et al. (2011) supported this notion of having the ability to be prepared or to cope with taking on unpredicted tasks resulting from work environment transitions.

Career adaptability focuses on the career engagement of an individual and not of a team (Chan, 2014). The primary focus is on the individual, whereby, as posited by Inkson (2007), he or she focuses on adapting to vocational tasks (current or anticipated) and at the same time makes career choices. Coetzee, Ferreira et al. (2015) suggested that being career adaptive or engaging career adaptive resources is beneficial when searching for job opportunities or career improvement opportunities and creating a positive fit in a work role. Career adaptive resources help individuals to prepare themselves for possible changes in their work.

Literature based on career adaptability studies is limited in the South African public service. Based on their study in the public service, Mmako and Letsoalo (2021) postulated that career adaptability assists individuals in making career choices.

Career adaptability has more than one dimension, and its structure comprises four dimensions (Coetzee et al., 2017; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). The dimensions include career concern (interest in initiating present actions to attain future career goals), control (making career decisions aligned to career goals), curiosity (exploring/finding information for career opportunities) and confidence (dealing with challenges or obstacles towards achieving future career aspirations).

2.2. CAREER ADAPTABILITY THEORETICAL MODELS

This section focuses on Super's Life-span, Life-Space Theory and the Career Construction Theory.

2.2.1. Super's Life-span, Life-space Theory

Donald Super introduced the Super Life-span, Life-space Theory (Hunt & Rhodes, 2021). This theory was deemed relevant to this study because it focuses on explanations of vocational behaviour in relation to certain tasks that influence career advancement and behaviours required to adapt to occupational change (Savickas, 2001). Career adaptability is the core construct of this theory which plays a supportive role in any work-related or career change (Savickas, et al., 2009). Career adaptability is a key element of Super's Life-span, Life-space Theory because an individual uses career adaptive resources (change in attitude, competencies and behaviour) throughout his or her work life to cope with changes in his or her work tasks or careers (Savickas, 1997). As explained by Chan (2014), Super's theory is primarily focused on the application of the concept of self through a person's stages of life. Self-concept refers to a mental or psychological perception of oneself (Hartung, 2013). The different occupations that individuals choose are based on their different values, interests and abilities (Chan, 2014). Table 2.1 provides a summary of Super's career development stages, known as life-span stages (Chan, 2014; Hartung, 2013):

Table 2.1
Super's (1957) Career Development Stages

Stage	Age group	Description of stage
Growth	1–14	Fantasy, interests, capacities: Through play and life's exposure (determining interests and capabilities) and identifying a self-concept, the first vocational goal/idea is developed.
Exploration	15–24	Crystallising, specifying, implementing: More clarity on a vocational self-concept is obtained, thus enabling the individual to explore appropriate educational and vocational options.
Establishment	25–45	Stabilising, consolidating, advancing: Occupations are selected, individuals enter the world of work based on their occupational choice and expand on work-related competencies, skill and experience.
Maintenance	46–55	Holding, updating, innovating: Individuals question themselves about whether they wish to remain in or change their chosen vocations, with some maintaining their vocational choice.
Disengagement	56–death	Decelerating, retirement planning, retirement living: The focus is more on family life and leisure.

Source: Adapted from Chan, 2014; Hartung, 2013

The life-space component is a stage of Super's career development stages. Each life-space component has certain career development characteristics that inform the role an individual play at that point, as outlined in Table 2.1 (above).

The relevance of Super's career development stages is that career adaptability involves the establishment and maintenance categories. During these stages, an individual would have chosen his or her career, and would need to ensure work adjustment in order to expand on work-related competencies, skills and experience. This allows the individual to fit into respective work roles and advance in the chosen career for which adaptive resources are required (Chan, 2014; Hartung, 2013).

2.2.2. The Career Construction Theory

This theory (Savickas, 1997, p. 248) was founded by Mark Savickas on the modern perspective of focusing on the development of vocational behaviour from which career adaptability emanates and the manner in which individuals use their adaptability resources to effect adaptive behaviour (Maree, 2017). The theory attempts to explain the choice of occupations and work adjustment, each characterised by its own vocational behaviour (Savickas, 2005). Career adaptability is seen as the psychosocial resource that enables individuals to acclimatise to such work adjustments (Savickas, 2005).

Career adaptability was first conceptualised by Savickas (Chan, 2014). Being career adaptive involves the development and implementation of a vocational concept with continued adaptation to one's social environment. This brings about person-environment integration, resulting in vocational growth and achievement (Zacher, 2014). In the Career Construction Theory, Savickas (2005) explained that career adaptability is made up of the four C's: Concern (having an optimistic outlook on life in the context of careers); curiosity (exploring career options); control (asserting influence over one's career path) and confidence (standing by one's ambitions regardless of difficulties). Career adaptability originated from a contextualist paradigm in which adaptation is the main driver of development and entails a person's readiness to take on tasks aligned to his or her career age and career level (Savickas, 1997).

2.2.2.1. Similarities between the Life-span, Life-space Theory and the Career Construction Theory

- The Life-span, Life-space Theory and the Career Construction Theory both focus on career development and the use of vocational behaviour to adapt to career-related change.
- Both theories support career adaptive behaviour.

- Both the theories constitute various stages that contribute towards career development.

2.2.2.2. Differences between the Life-span, Life-space Theory and the Career Construction Theory

- The Life-span, Life-space Theory constitutes various stages, from the age category of one until death.
- The Career Construction Theory is not characterised into age groups and begins when an individual shows concern about his or her career.
- Career adaptability occurs only in the establishment and maintenance stages only for the Life-span, Life-space Theory.
- Career adaptability is relevant in all of the components of the Career Construction Theory.

The Career Construction Theory was adopted for the purposes of this study because its relevance relates to the fact that the sample used comprised adults who had already entered the working world, with the potential for career advancement. The Life-span, Life-space Theory spans all age groups and was therefore not deemed appropriate.

2.3. CAREER ADAPTABILITY DIMENSIONS

In accordance with the construction theory, there are certain actions that individuals engage in that help them to deal with vocational change or growth (Savickas, 2005). These actions are classified into dimensions of career adaptability and are aimed at managing specific tasks that help to develop one's career (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012, p. 663), namely; "career concern, career control, career curiosity and career confidence"). Rudolph et al. (2017) postulated that these competencies support individuals in dealing with their careers and any work-related changes that may occur.

2.3.1. Career concern

Career concern is described by Coetzee and Harry (2015) as demonstrating worry over future work-related growth and subsequently planning accordingly for the future. The central element in career concern is taking responsibility over one's vocational future (Hartung & Cadaret, 2017). These plans include activities, improved experiences and opportunities that provide hope for the future, and making career decisions on education and occupational selection (Hartung & Cadaret, 2017).

2.3.2. Career control

Savickas and Porfeli (2012) defined career control as individual accountability, persistence and decisiveness over work experiences and vocational growth. Control occurs when an individual demonstrates determination, tenacity and energy in shaping his or her career and environment towards attaining occupational goals and direction (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Conversely, where there is lack of control, indecisiveness and doubt prevail (Coetzee & Harry, 2015).

2.3.3. Career curiosity

Career curiosity relates to individuals giving much thought to the various levels or roles they see themselves in, and going out and searching for relevant information (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Coetzee and Harry (2015) expanded on this definition, adding that such individuals search their environment for career-related information, and go the extra mile to secure information and acquire the necessary skills and aptitudes.

2.3.4. Career confidence

According to Savickas and Porfeli (2012), career confidence promotes ambition and goals, which increases an individual's confidence to attain these goals or overcome vocational challenges. Career confidence therefore relates to an individual's initiative to effectively solve career-related problems and overcome any challenges (Coetzee & Harry, 2015). Examples of problems or challenges would be job loss, health challenges or challenges at work (Coetzee, Ferreria et al., 2015). Hartung and Cadaret (2017) described career confidence as going through challenges with a focus on building a future with persistence, hard work and self-confidence. Savickas (2005) asserted that this confidence is essential to achieve a vocational intention or goal.

Career adaptability occurs at the following three levels (Bimrose et al., 2011):

Personality. This refers to intrapersonal characteristics such as being proactive in seeking new challenges, and self-willingness to venture into new opportunities and contexts.

Psychosocial competence. This entails developing career adaptive competence in which relationships that are created constructively support transitions.

Actual experience. Career adaptability competence is developed when a person, voluntarily or involuntarily, changes education, employment or training environments that result in learning.

In summary, the career adaptability dimensions of concern, control, curiosity and confidence" (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012, p. 663) influence an adaptive individual to exercise concern/worry over his or her career, take control of the situation, explore suitable career options and have confidence in executing plans or attaining goals when faced with adversities affecting his or her career. These are usually the result of career changes/problems/traumas experienced by an individual in his or her vocational life (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). The career adaptability dimensions are developed when there is willingness on the part of an individual to adapt to situations (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). The CAAS is a popular assessment tool as highlighted by Savickas and Porfeli, (2012), and comprises the four subscales (dimensions) of "career concern, control, curiosity and confidence" (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012, pp. 663-664).

2.4. VARIABLES INFLUENCING CAREER ADAPTABILITY

There are conflicting statements among researchers regarding the demographic indicators that impact career adaptability (Stoltz, 2014). The following variables were deemed relevant to this study:

2.4.1. Age

An overall analysis indicates, as per the findings of various researchers reflected below, that research outcomes differ in respect of the relationship pertaining to various age categories. According to Rossier et al. (2012), age has no effect on career adaptability. Conversely, Potgieter (2013) concluded that age groups differ in respect of career adaptability – hence the assumption that age is an influential variable. Savickas and Porfeli (2012) attributed this to the older age groups demonstrating more concern over their careers. Mujajati (2016) reported similar findings of differences in career adaptability for different age groups. Studies conducted by Stoltz (2014) indicated that career adaptability differed in respect of age. For some individuals, there is a decrease and for others an increase in career adaptability, with the younger and middle age groups being more adaptable because they are more motivated. Ndlovu (2017) concluded that the younger age group possess higher levels of career adaptability than the older age group because they are more career adaptable.

Other research findings cited by Stoltz (2014) indicated that career exploration intensifies for individuals belonging to the younger age group versus those who are older. This is mainly attributed to an increase in seeking career options because of the younger generation moving from the schooling to the working phase. Coetzee et al.'s

(2017) findings were similar to those of Stoltz (2014), the outcome of which indicated that the younger age group are adaptable in respect of careers. The younger generation have a greater tendency to explore careers and can accept change more easily than individuals belonging to the older age groups. A possible explanation is that, with an increase in age, learning becomes more difficult, and such cognitive abilities affect work motivation negatively for the older workers (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004). Unlike the above findings that reflect either a favourable or unfavourable relationship between the variables concerned, Rossier et al.'s (2012) findings demonstrated both positive and negative correlations of the different dimensions of career adaptability with age in the same study. The results revealed a negative relationship between age and career concern, but a favourable relationship between age and career control.

2.4.2. Employment level

There is a paucity of studies researching the differences in career adaptability for employment level. Mujajati's (2016) findings indicated that the degree of career adaptability was different for various employment levels and employment status. According to Moshupi (2013), this is attributed to different employment levels encompassing different encounters, which enhances the development of employees Moshupi's (2013) study indicated that when women are placed in executive levels they tend to survive in these levels through adaptation, which would imply that career adaptability does differ for different employment levels. Contrary to these findings, Jabaar (2017) reported no significant difference in career adaptability across different employment levels.

2.4.3. Gender

According to Coetzee and Harry (2015), research on career adaptability and gender is limited. Some studies demonstrated no relationship between gender and career adaptability, while others concluded that there is a relationship. Vos's (2019) study results indicated that there was no difference in gender for career adaptability. These results were supported by Ismail, Ferriera, and Coetzee (2016). Rossier et al. (2012) found that there is a relationship because females obtained a higher score than males in respect of career control. Nyathi (2020) supported the finding that females have more career control than males, as well as higher levels of career curiosity. Ndlovu's (2017) findings were similar, thus implying that females are more adaptable than

males. Coetzee and Harry (2015) highlighted research discussions by various researchers. It was found that women adapt more easily than men and therefore have a higher degree of career adaptability than men. Furthermore, women plan with greater purpose for their careers than men. Women demonstrate higher levels of career concern, attributed to greater availability of career opportunities for females in the country owing to the Employment Equity Act of 1998, which promotes women empowerment and development in the workplace.

Stoltz (2014) concluded that women are viewed as being more adaptable than men in that they have greater career purpose, and tend to venture more easily into different career roles. The research results of Ferreira (2012) are consistent with those of Stoltz (2014), in that female participants demonstrated a greater amount of career adaptability than their male counterparts. These results were supported by the female participants demonstrating greater career control, concern, confidence and curiosity than the male participants (Ferreira, 2012). According to Ferreira (2012), the reason for these results is that females are more likely to seek occupational development prospects and that individuals with greater career adaptability are more attached to an organisation. Studies by Mujajati (2016) revealed that the career adaptability between males and females was different.

2.4.4. Race

Tladinyane and Van der Merwe's (2015) research found that in terms of race, Africans differed from whites in their career adaptability in that the African participants demonstrated greater career concern than the white participants. Stoltz's (2014) results were similar. The reason this could be the fact that African employees tend to be more attracted to or influenced by occupational development prospects offered by an organisation, thus requiring them to become more adaptive to occupational, work or job title changes. Potgieter (2013) reported similar research outcomes in that career adaptability differed from one race group to the next. The African participants demonstrated greater concern over their careers than the white participants. Mujajati (2016) suggested that career adaptability differed significantly between race groups Coetzee and Stolz's (2015) study results demonstrated similar findings, in that Africans tend to be more career adaptable than whites. According to them, this is because of increased career initiatives for blacks aligned to transformation and democracy in South Africa.

2.5. IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

2.5.1. Individual perspective

Hartung and Cadaret (2017) described adaptation to survive as essential for human beings. In relation to the work environment, career adaptability allows individuals to adapt to change. Such adaptation to change has positive outcomes, such as improved career satisfaction and career success. Zacher (2014) supported this view, and postulated on the basis of his research, that career adaptability affects vocational achievement positively and that career adaptation enables individuals to manage their careers in a dynamic world influenced by economic transitions and employment-related changes. Hartung (2013) explained that career adaptability is linked to a set of occupation development activities that has a primary goal, and when achieved, leads to individual career success and future career growth (Coetzee & Harry, 2015). Hence, according to Savickas (2005), career adaptability is a key goal in individual career construction.

Sullivan and Baruch (2009) postulated that adaptability is required for individuals to be successful in managing their careers. This implies that career adaptability is essential for career development because it positively supports career challenges and transitions. According to Creed et al. (2003), individuals with higher career adaptability can handle or manage changes in work levels better, both at the same and higher levels, than those with lower career adaptability. Ferreira (2012) stated that these individuals engage more in developing themselves. Brown et al. (2012) posited that more challenging work brought about by job change or promotion has a progressive impact on the career adaptive competencies of career control, curiosity, confidence and concern.

2.5.2. Organisational perspective

Career adaptability skills are vital in an organisation because individuals with such skills are able to adapt to change, which results in more established commitment (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Career adaptability has a positive effect on organisational commitment (Bimrose et al., 2011). Leong and Ott-Holland (as cited in Johnson, 2018), indicated that career adaptability is key to human resource specialists, professionals and managers, as assistance is rendered to individuals to enable them to adjust to work changes in their chosen careers. According to O'Connell et al. (as cited in Johnson, 2018), career adaptability is essential for both individuals and organisations

in relation to vocational advancement. It is therefore beneficial for practitioners and managers to promote adaptive resources (Johnson, 2018).

Baruch and Bozionelos (2011) suggested that changes affecting careers have an impact on job specialisation, technological advancement, job redundancy or competition through globalisation. Organisations need to be aware of these changes and the implications for the organisation (Tladinyane & Van der Merwe, 2016). Ferreira and Coetzee (2013) explained that organisations should place the emphasis on nurturing career adaptability (concern, curiosity, control and confidence) as this will have positive implications for employees wishing to stay in an organisation. The leaders of organisations should nurture career adaptability among employees to show career concern, research career options, decide on career ambitions and maintain confidence in executing plans (Yang et al., 2019). They (Yang et al., 2019) suggested that this can be done by encouraging employees to have career plans and provide them with increased work exposure.

2.6. THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS FOR RETENTION PRACTICES

Career adaptability, according to Potgieter (2018), is a personal attribute that has a significant influence over employee retention practice. The enhancement of employee career adaptability results in increased retention of employees (Mercurio, 2015). Ferreira and Coetzee (2013) therefore suggested that managers evaluate the career adaptability of their employees because of the impact career adaptability has on an employee's decision to remain in the organisation. Ferreira (2012) posited that employees who are more career adaptive demonstrate greater commitment towards an organisation and will retain their services for longer periods of time.

2.7. CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter introduced the concept of career adaptability based on literature studies. The different theoretical models of career adaptability were discussed. Of importance was the construction theory and its link to career adaptability. Career adaptability as a multidimensional concept and each of the career adaptability dimensions were discussed. Based on career adaptability antecedents, the individual and organisational practical implications of career adaptability were highlighted. The impact of career adaptability on the biographical variables of age, employment level, gender and race was also explored. Chapter 3 focuses on the construct of career anchors.

CHAPTER 3

CAREER ANCHORS

The aim of this chapter is to focus on step 3 of the literature review, namely to conceptualise the construct of career anchors, the theoretical frameworks underpinning it and its development. The chapter further explores Schein's career anchor theory and provides an overview of the practical implications of career anchors. The chapter ends with a discussion on the demographic variables influencing career anchors.

3.1. CONCEPTUAL FOUNDATIONS

The concepts relevant to the study of career anchors are explained in this section.

A career is a collection or group of work experiences and various job levels of an individual (Schein, 1990$_a$). Career development takes place when there is sequential/progressive enhancement of a career through a combination of training and occupations accumulated by an individual in an effort to enhance his or her career (Kuijpers et al., 2006). Career success occurs when the efforts of an individual result in career progression (promotion, increased responsibility and control and greater work gratification (Seibert et al., 1999). According to Aloysius (2015), career success is enhanced by career orientation.

Bravo et al. (2017) explained career orientation as the main aspects of work (talents, expertise, work experience, ideals and interests) that provide a definition to the goals of an individual. They (Bravo et al., 2017) also suggested that an individual's career orientation influences his or her career decision making, which is the process followed in choosing a career from possible career options through a defined process (Gati et al., 2019). Schein (1990$_a$) referred to career orientations as "career anchors". According to Schein (1996), a career anchor develops as one gathers both life and work experience. One has certain self-perceptions of one's talents, attitudes and moral standards, which becomes the motivating factor (the career anchor) to make an occupational choice that is never compromised. It is the individual's characteristics (inspiration, aptitude and principles) that mould him or her in selecting a particular career or career path (Mizobuchi & Hamasaki, 2020). Based on studies in the South

African public service, Vermeulen (2015) concluded that career anchors give direction to the career paths and career ambitions of public servants.

Lumley (2009) posited that throughout an individual's life span in relation to vocational development, different career-related decisions are made. Career anchors influence these career-related decisions (Schein, 1990_a). The life-span career stages of the career development theories of Super, Greenhaus and Schein are discussed below, with the discussion of career anchors based on Schein's theory:

3.2. SUPER'S (1957) CAREER DEVELOPMENT THEORY

Super's Career Development Theory suggested that career development is a process that occurs over an individual's life-time; it is not a once-off occurrence (Dries, 2013). Lumley (2009) supported this notion by emphasising that career choices are related to an individual's life-span from early to old age. The career development theory contains growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance and disengagement career stages (Dries, 2013). The relevance of Super's Career Development Theory to career anchors is that a career anchor is formed when the growth and exploration stages of Super's development model integrate (Dries, 2013).

Dries (2013) described Super's (1957) five career stages as follows:

Growth (age 4 to 13). The individual develops interests and attitudes. Interest develops in an individual's future career, and he or she focuses more on improving his or her school results and developing good work ethics and practices.
Exploration (age 14 to 24). The individual transcends into early adulthood by pursuing higher education. The focus is on favouring certain careers and working on developing associated competencies.
Establishment (age 24 to 44). The individual becomes employed, and makes an effort to settle into the organisation and advance his or her chosen career.
Maintenance (age 45 to 65). The individual remains in the level occupied, updates his or her competencies and finds new ways of performing tasks.
Disengagement (over 65). Retirement plans are made, and the focus on career and work becomes secondary.

3.3. SCHEIN'S (1993) CAREER STAGES

In addition to research on career anchors and using Super's (1957) career development stages as a basis, Schein (1993) suggested that various choices are made and actions taken during the different stages of an individual's career. These career stages allow for career transitions and entering different occupations (Schein, 1974). Lumley (2009) and Schein (1993) described Schein's (1993) career anchor stages as follows:

Stage 1 – Career growth, fantasy and exploration. This refers to the period between infancy and youth where the issue of vocation or having a profession is almost non-existent. Individuals in these age categories assign less importance to careers.
Stage 2 – Education and training. Many career choices are made as occupational goals are changed or clarified. However, the duration of education and training can extend from a minimal to an extensive period, depending on the occupation type.
Stage 3 – Securing employment. During this stage, major learning takes place and occupational self-concepts are developed. Workers start to test their values, talents and motives. They have to face the reality of the workplace regardless of their degree of preparation for employment.
Stage 4 – Basic training and socialisation. Personal learning takes place and the individual decides whether he or she wishes to remain in this occupation. Induction takes place during this stage.
Stage 5 – Gaining of membership. During this stage the individual clarifies his or her occupation, and motives and values begin to emerge. The individual has passed the training period, gains membership in the organisation and makes a positive contribution towards it. He or she is also able to determine weaknesses and strengths.
Stage 6 – Having permanent or long-term occupancy. The individual clarifies his stay in the organisation as either long or short term. This entails securing more permanent membership in the organisation.
Stage 7 – Midcareer crisis and measurement. During this stage, individuals reassess their career choices. The outcome could be reaffirming their career goals or making major career changes.
Stage 8 – Upholding or recuperating from the current career status. This involves looking at the remainder of a person's career. There may be a need to level off, which can have psychological implications, or individuals may self-realise that levelling off is

the way forward as the motivating factors talents, ideals and abilities that once contributed towards them aspiring in their careers no longer apply.

Stage 9 – Disengagement. This stage deals with preparing for retirement and slowing down. The individual focuses less on the career and occupation and more on retirement plans.

Stage 10 – Retirement. This stage is not optional. The individual places less importance on the organisation or the job. The occupational self-image varies in the sense that some individuals react negatively to it and it affects them physically or psychologically, and in some instances may even lead to premature death. Others take on secondary careers. The retirement stage includes no further career-related choices or options (Schein, 1993).

Based on the discussions of Super's (1957) and Schein's (1993) career stages, table 3.1 demonstrates alignment of the various stages of the two models.

Table 3.1
Schein's Major Stages of the Career Versus Super's Life Stages

Schein's (1974) major stages of the career	Super's (1957) life stages
Stage 10: Retirement	Disengagement (65 and older)
Stage 9: Disengagement	
Stage 8: Maintaining momentum, regaining it or levelling off	Maintenance (45 to 65)
Stage 7: Midcareer crisis, reassessment	
Stage 6: Gaining of tenure, permanent membership	Establishment (25 to 45)
Stage 5: Gaining membership	
Stage 4: Basic training, socialisation	Exploration (14 to 25)
Stage 3: Entry into the world of work	
Stage 2: Education and training	Growth (usually between the ages of four and 14)
Stage 1: Growth, fantasy, exploration	

Source: Adapted from Lumley, 2009

3.4. CONCEPTUALISATION OF CAREER ANCHORS

Schein (1993) conducted longitudinal studies with MBA students. These studies took place between 1961 and 1973 and included assessment of the participants' vocational motivation; work and study profiles; work standards drive and attitudinal thoughts; and impending career plans (Marshall & Bonner, 2003). Schein (1993) sought to understand how careers at management level came about, and how an organisation's employees become accustomed to its value system and procedures. Schein (1993)

discovered the career anchors on the basis of the research outcomes of the longitudinal studies. Based on his career history research, the career anchor categories introduced by Schein (1990_a, p. 5) were "technical or functional competence; general managerial competence; autonomy/independence; security/stability; entrepreneurial/creativity, service/dedication to a cause; pure challenge; and life style".

The above categories are the foundation of the Career Anchor Model or Framework. Schein's Career Anchor Theory complements' Super's Career Development Theory with the focus on the inner career needs and choices of an individual (Dries, 2013). Schein (1993) explained that because career anchors influence every career decision-making stage in one's entire career, giving up a career anchor is non-negotiable.

Schein (1993) described career anchors as a positive feeling or notion that influences a career decision and that a person will not compromise on. Dries (2013) described Schein's definition of career anchors as an individual choosing a particular career based on his or her capabilities, moral standards or some motivating factor. Cai et al. (2017) indicated that personality contributes to vocational choices. As time progresses, career anchors develop as a person has increased cognisance of needs, values and capacities in the workplace (Schein, 1978). This concept therefore assists in motivating career decisions and creating a career identity (Schein, 1978). According to Aydogmus (2018), career anchors also give one direction during one's vocational growth. The self-concept that makes up one's career anchor encompasses the following (Mayo, 1991):

- one's own notion of *talents* or *job abilities* possessed based on work experience
- *needs/motives* or *goals* such as money, travel, status or challenges
- *attitudes* and *values* that make one comfortable in working for an organisation

According to Schein (1993), through experience gained during youth and education, an individual builds his or her own self-concept in respect of values, needs, goals, drives and talents. Schein (1993) theorised that values, talents and motives are connected or support one another – for example, individuals perform better at anything that motivates them or that they value. Each individual's distinct self-concept, values, talents and motives become the underlying reason for a certain career choice (Schein, 1993). Furthermore, when a person indicates that a job is not for him or her, it implies

that this job does not match or is misaligned with his or her career anchor (Mayo, 1991). Students, for example, have limited knowledge of their capabilities until they are actually exposed to the working world, where decisions need to be made. An individual will then continuously evaluate his or her career decisions based on skills, aptitudes, moral standing, desires and intentions (Mayo, 1991).

Schein (1993) indicated that earlier in the vocational path, individuals learn about the organisation, the occupation and their abilities in relation to the occupation. As work experience builds, individuals make choices on the basis of the skills they would like to practise, or the desires and moral standards that are dominant for them (Schein, 1993). These form a fundamental basis for career decisions described as an empowered career decision because it is supported by this rationale. The self-concept then continues to function as an anchor that guides all career choices. Since it is a self-concept (based on a need) that a person will not relinquish, and with due consideration for the fact that a person has a number of needs, this need will be a priority and not of equal importance in relation to the other needs (Schein, 1993). Bezuidenhout et al. (2013) concurred that this self-concept gives direction to future careers and influences career decisions. Schein and Van Maanen (2016) suggested that career anchors remain steady once an individual psychologically affirms this self-concept.

Based on their research, Schein and Van Maanen (2016) posited that career anchors have a significant role in that an adult's career anchors influence the reduction/narrowing of career goals. Dries (2013) underscored an important aspect of Schein's career anchors, namely that career anchors are moulded by work experiences, thus implying that those without work experience do not possess a career anchor. Schein's (1993) definition suggested that a person should have one career anchor, but there are certain levels, for example, at general management level, where a number of skills, motives and talents are fulfilled, thus making it difficult to determine the one driving need. Schein and Van Maanen (2016) affirmed this by stating that finding a dominant career anchor may be problematic because most careers usually fulfil or relate to more than one career anchor. Hence in order to determine the one career anchor, an individual would have to make up hypothetical career options that would enforce a choice (Schein, 1993).

Based on Schein's implication of a person having one career anchor, Ituma and Simpson (2006) therefore suggested that the selection of a job should be in

accordance with supporting a career anchor rather than destabilising it. Mayo (1991) contended that career anchors usually remain the same throughout one's career path, but one may choose a completely different career anchor during different life stages. Based on research findings, Kniveton (2004) viewed career anchors as non-static, in that the younger age group preferred talent-based career anchors (managerial or technical/functional competence), while the older age group preferred needs-based career anchors (independence). Clinton-Baker (2013), however, posited that Schein's (1993) research indicates that several career anchors may prevail for a worker, as deduced from Schein's study with 44 MBA graduates. Bezuidenhout et al.'s (2013) study outcomes revealed that participants have both a key and subordinate career anchor; – hence the existence of multiple career anchors. Schein's (1990_b) classified career anchors into internal careers (relating to an individual having his or her own personal description of his or her career, a description that relates to career anchors) versus external careers (which includes the different stages in careers and the related support by all role players, including organisations).

However, if an organisation supports an individual's career anchor, then this increases his or her commitment to the organisation (Feldman & Bolino, 1996). If an individual's internal career motivations, desires and aims are aligned with the characteristics of the work performed, then he or she fosters organisational commitment (Milanović, 2019). Schein (1993) developed the Career Anchor Model to ascertain one's motives, values and competence, and the Career Orientations Inventory (COI) in line with this model.

3.5. SCHEIN'S CAREER ANCHOR THEORY

3.5.1. The career anchor concept

Career anchors as described by Schein (1990_a) are either self-perceived talents, values or motives used by the individual to guide his or her career choices. These three elements provide an indication of the career the individual wishes to follow, job choices and preferences over benefits or management style (Schein & Van Maanen, 2016). The three elements are described as follows:

- self-perceived talent – technical ability or capability gained through negative and positive work experiences
- self-perceived motives – ambition, desires and goals that drive an individual towards a particular career

- self-perceived values – certain attitudes developed by association with the work environment or the organisation (employer).

3.5.2. Types of career anchors

Schein (1993) originally proposed five individual self-concept categories. According to Marshall and Bonner (2003), these categories are as follows:

- technical/functional competence (having a high level of skill/competence in the workplace, inter alia)
- general managerial competence (enthusiasm dealing with organisational challenges followed by taking decisions to solve these problems)
- autonomy/independence (own need for freedom in the job and work environment)
- security/stability (lengthy employment with retirement and well-being incentives)
- entrepreneurial/creativity (establishing new corporate ideas)

Emanating from further studies, the following three career anchors were added (Marshall & Bonner, 2003):

- service/dedication to a cause (the work performed benefits organisations and communities).
- pure challenge (challenging or risk work that requires endurance)
- lifestyle (balance between family and work commitments)

Further to the above career anchors, Suutari and Taka (2004) highlighted another significant career anchor referred to as the internationalism anchor, which is as a result of increased globalisation whereby those in leadership or management positions are eager to take on jobs/work tasks worldwide. Feldman and Bolino (1996) re-theorised Schein's career anchors into the following three elements in accordance with the underlying motives leading to a career anchor selection, as explained below:

- Talent-based career anchors include technical/functional competence, entrepreneurial/creativity and general managerial competence. The talent-based career anchors give direction to the kind of work performed by an individual. He or she will be more effective at work with greater job stability if the work environment is congruent with the career anchor.

- Need-based career anchors comprise of lifestyle, stability/security and autonomy/independence. The need-based career anchors give direction to how an individual will want to align a work role to a personal role.
- Value-based career anchors include pure challenge and service/dedication to a cause. The focus is on individuals identifying with their job/work/occupation and the culture of the organisation they work for. Individuals will experience work gratification and emotional comfort if the workplace is congruent with their career anchor.

Dries (2013) explains Schein's (1993) career anchors as follows:

- *Autonomy/Independence.* The focus is on working in an environment with fewer limitations and organisational rules. An individual is able to execute tasks independently and be flexible in the way he or she does so.
- *Security/stability*. The focus is on employment that offers financial security and long-term employment with less concern for promotion or the work executed. The individual maintains long-term employment by complying with organisational requirements.
- *Technical/functional competence*. The focus is on skill application and optimum advancement. Job satisfaction is derived from demonstrating capability and dealing with challenges. Managing staff is not a priority unless it involves project management in the area of specialisation.
- *General managerial competence.* The focus is on attaining levels of power or status and accountability for organisational goals. The preferred work entails generalist responsibilities.
- *Entrepreneurial/creativity*. The focus is on having ownership of the organisation. Such individuals are willing to take a risk and achieving a successfully operated organisation is viewed by the individual as a key motivator.
- *Sense of service/dedication to a cause*. The focus is on jobs that entail assisting others, dealing with environmental challenges. Jobs that do not entail these forms of gratification are of no interest to such individuals.
- *Pure challenge*. The focus is on jobs that involve attending to problems and dealing with difficult situations. These involve occupations of a strategic and technological nature or those that require people management.

- *Lifestyle*. The main focus is on having a balance between vocational/career life and that of family life. Levels that recognise and have provisions to allow dealing with family needs are welcomed. Examples of levels that require international projects are not welcomed. Such individuals do not only focus on their careers, but their life as a whole is also of critical importance.

Table 3.2 provides a summary of the types of career anchors and characteristics:

Table 3.2
Schein's (1993) Career Anchor Model

Career anchors	Description and characteristics
Talent-based	
General managerial	This refers to managing resources that are human, financial and capital and related. It encompasses decision making, dealing with challenges relating to managing resources; analysing and problem solving of multidimensional challenges; exercising responsibility and authority; and having autonomy over managing work. **Characteristics:** Work that entails accountability, problems, leadership and wide work content. Greater opportunities for performance incentives. Career advancement is dependent upon capabilities.
Technical/functional	This refers to having the current-day skills or expertise of a craftsman. It is important to note, from a career management perspective, that the most skilled engineers may not be the best managers. **Characteristics:** Work that requires skill and capability. Remuneration is aligned to the level of capability. Plenty of potential to enhance proficiency.
Entrepreneurial/creativity	The focus is on entrepreneurship, autonomy and entrepreneurial skills for developing an idea, product or company. **Characteristics:** Work involves producing new creations for the market. Such persons determine their own income, are self-employed and enjoy autonomy and being in control.
Need-based	
Autonomy/independence	These are usually entrepreneurs, freelancers and consultants. They dislike bureaucracy, have no interest in advancing within a hierarchy in an organisation and are responsible for their own failures and successes. **Characteristics:** Work alone and determine own specific timelines and structured objectives. Work independently with a lack of being managed. Includes performance-based incentives.
Value-based	
Pure challenge	Occupations that focus on continuous problem solving. **Characteristics:** Work involves solving problems. Such persons enjoy this sort of stimulation. The benefit to them is in assessing themselves against problems solved.
Service/dedication to a cause	This entails occupations that involve helping others such as teachers, priests and social workers. **Characteristics:** Prefers helping others, thus contributing to uplifting society. Remunerated in accordance with work delivered.

	Having more freedom to move to better work.

Source: Extracted from Schein (1993), Coetzee et al. (2007).

Both Super's (1957) Career Development Theory and Schein's Career Anchor Theory focus on career development. The difference is that Super's Career Development Theory comprises different stages throughout an individual's life that characterise a particular aspect of career development. Conversely, Schein's Career Anchor Theory focuses on elements that drive a career choice. The commonality is that career anchors are born out of the growth and exploration stages of Super's Career Development Theory. Since one of the variables of this study was career anchors, Schein's Career Anchor Theory was deemed most relevant.

3.6. PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS OF CAREER ANCHORS

Career anchors have a fundamental role both for individuals in respect of their careers and organisations. Schein (1990$_a$) highlighted the fact that career anchors perform a vital role in vocational decision making, vocational change, by organisations for individual career planning and counselling, as well for maximising employee potential. According to Dries (2013), career anchors have a positive impact on an individual's decision making, satisfaction and self-confidence in a particular career choice. The literature on career anchors also provides organisations with useful information on managing their employees in terms of the employees' motivator/career anchor (Dries, 2013). Alignment between an individual's career anchor and support by the organisation in respect of the individual's career anchor has a positive impact on work performance and reduces turnover (Schein, 1990$_b$).

3.6.1. Individual perspective

Schein (1993) suggested that an individual must have insight into his or her career anchor to inform better career choices. Career anchors help individuals to determine their work-life goals, the ability to determine personal success and arrange work-life and experiences in an effort to achieve personal success (Lumley, 2009). If an individual enhances a career anchor, this facilitates career development (Ndzobele, 2019).

Career anchors assist individuals to construct career paths and influence their turnover decisions, career aspirations, reactions to work experiences and preferences for work

and the workplace (Clinton-Baker, 2013). Likewise, Feldman and Bolino (1996) indicated that individual effectiveness in productivity, work gratification and remaining longer in the respective occupation is fostered by career anchors. In line with the issue of job stability, Lumley (2009) posited that career anchors explain why individuals interact in a particular way with their employing organisation. Abesselo et al. (2017) indicated that career anchors promote individuals aligning their own moral standards and objectives with those of the organisation. They (Abesselo et al., 2017) further explained that a positive alignment will enable such individuals to experience satisfaction in the career opportunities the organisation affords them.

According to Coetzee and Schreuder (2011), career decisions are affected by career anchors, as well as life in general, work gratification and a person's career value, motives and interests. Schein (1993) further suggested that understanding career anchors improves an individual's self-insight into his or her career choice, thus fostering better career planning and resulting in more informed career choices. Career anchors are useful tools in making decisions about careers or giving direction in respect of the career a person should follow. Career anchors thus form the baseline of career counselling (Mayo, 1991).

3.6.2. Organisational perspective

According to Hassan et al. (2012), organisations should heed the career anchors of its employees, more so when analysing the strengths and weaknesses of their employees because career anchors are influencers in the career growth of individuals. Schein (1993) suggested that organisations should keep abreast of their employees' needs and insights, so that career opportunities are made available and relevant career paths, incentives and reward systems are in place to lend support to an individual's career anchor. In this way, the organisation will play an active role in executing the career development plans of its employees, and it will need to determine their career paths (Ndzobele, 2019).

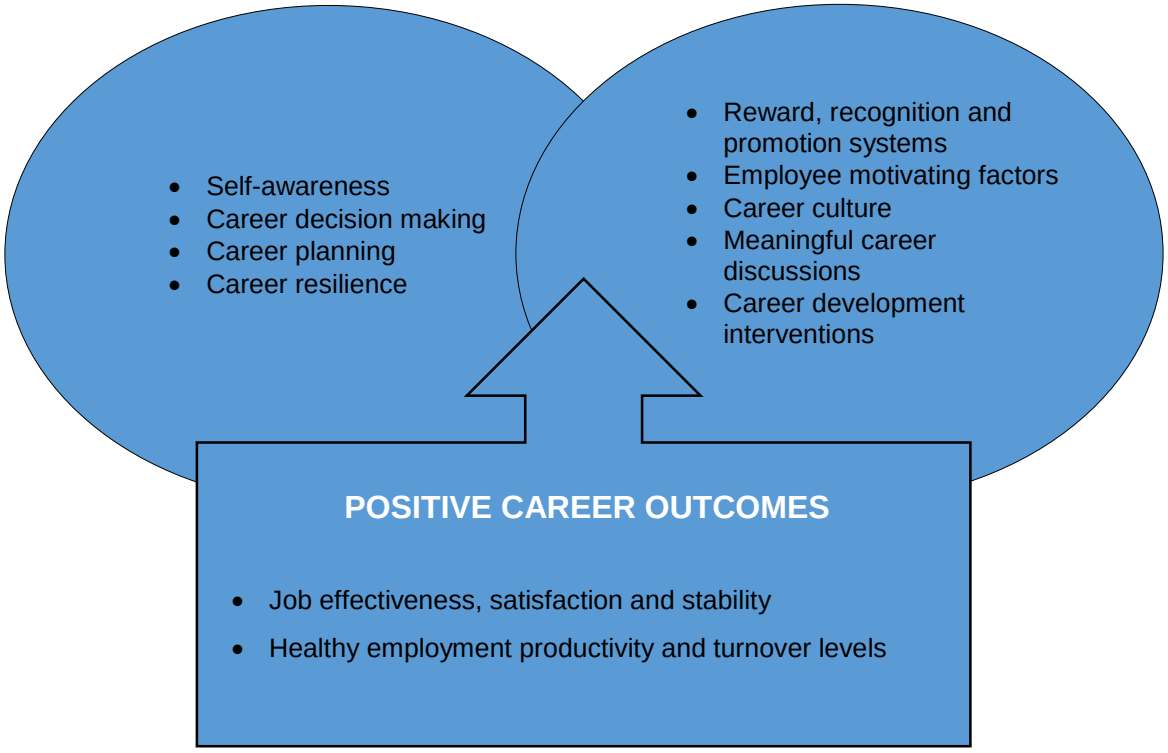
Clinton-Baker (2013) postulated that career anchors also assist organisations in providing a framework that supports the career needs and opportunities of its employees, aligned to their career motives, values and orientations. Career anchors provide organisations with appropriate career development approaches (Hassan et al., 2012). Bezuidenhout et al. (2013) proposed that organisations should provide the necessary support, on-the-job training and career development initiatives. This support

could be through constructing career paths in the form of succession plans for employees using Schein's career anchors (Bezuidenhout et al., 2013).

Schein and Van Maanen (2016) explained the implications career anchors have for talent management in that organisations should be aware of its employees' career anchors and understand what each job entails. This information can be used for career growth purposes (Schein & Van Maanen, 2016). The value an organisation derives from determining the career anchors of its employees is that it will help the organisation to restructure jobs by taking into account the needs of both the organisation and its employees (Nouri & Mousavi, 2020). Career anchors, as deduced by Schein (1990_a), can therefore be used by organisations to understand the reasons an individual stays committed to a job or organisation, and subsequently help put measures in place (Lumley, 2009).

Figure 3.1

A Summary of the Practical Implications for both Individual and Organisational Perspectives



Source*:* Danziger & Valency, 2006; Feldman & Bolino, 1996; Hsu, 2003; Jiang et al. 2003; Schein 1990a; Yarnall, 1998 (as cited in Lumley, 2009).

As per figure 3.1, the practical implication of career anchors for both individuals and organisations is that career anchors influence an individual in the choice of his or her

career. This decision will be influenced by the individual's values, interests or talents. A positive or meaningful career choice will benefit the individual in respect of commitment levels to both the job and the organisation.

3.7. VARIABLES INFLUENCING CAREER ANCHORS

3.7.1. Age

Bezuidenhout et al. (2013) found that career anchors are affected by age in that career anchors for the age group 21 to 25 were different from those of the 26 to 35 age group, with the former relating to lifestyle and the latter relating to service/dedication to a cause. They (Bezuidenhout et al., 2013) further reported that the technical/functional career anchor decreased with age. Fakir (2010) also found that career anchors differed significantly in respect of age. The study conducted by Roythorne-Jacobs (2019) demonstrated a slight difference in age for the autonomy independence career anchor for participants between the ages of ≤ 40 and 40+.

Coetzee and Schreuder's (2008) and Schein's (1996) findings were that career anchor and age have a positive relationship in middle and late adulthood, where both lifestyle and careers settle or stabilise. These indicated that, in middle and late adulthood, individuals' careers and lifestyle tend to be more settled, resulting in positive career anchors.

3.7.2. Employment level

Other research findings (Bezuidenhout et al., 2013) indicated that individuals with greater competence tend to continue employment in technical levels and avoid decisions leading to managerial levels. Coetzee and Schreuder (2008) reported that the employment level has an effect on an individual's career anchor. In line with this finding, Clinton-Baker's (2013) research results indicated a difference in the career anchors of technical/functional and entrepreneurial/creativity between managers and subordinates.

3.7.3. Gender

Roythorne-Jacobs (2019) indicated that the preference for career anchors differed between male and female, with the former preferring the career anchors of general management, entrepreneurial/creativity, pure challenge and service dedication to a cause. According to Bezuidenhout et al.'s (2013) findings, females prefer autonomy/independence, lifestyle and technical/functional dimensions in the short

term, in contrast to males who prefer general/managerial dimensions. The reason for this, according to Marshall and Bonner (2003), is that males find managerial jobs more appealing. Females tend to find levels that require application of their skills and are appealing, enjoying working conditions that are less bureaucratic and that allow for equilibrium between work and private life (Fakir, 2010; Schein, 1996).

Clinton-Baker's (2013) research also demonstrated a difference in career anchors between males and females, and for the career orientations inventory, men scored higher on autonomy. A higher score for autonomy implies that males prefer to work independently (Fakir, 2010). Similar research findings by Fakir (2010), Coetzee and Schreuder (2008) and Danziger et al. (2008) indicated a variation in career anchors according to gender.

Marshall and Bonner (2003) established that general managerial career anchors are preferred by men more than women. In research conducted by Lumley (2009), the results indicated that males prefer technical/functional competence where they can apply their skills, while females look for secure and stable conditions that allowed them to assist others. In Coetzee's (2008) study, the results indicated that males and females differ in their career anchors; both the black and white males in the study favoured autonomy with a preference of working independently, while the white females favoured lifestyle (balancing occupational and personal life).

Cai et al.'s (2017) results indicated that the preferred career anchors for females are lifestyle and service dedication to a cause, with males preferring career anchors of general management, entrepreneurial/creativity and autonomy/independence. Based on the effect size, it was concluded that both male and females have similar career anchors.

3.7.4. Race

The results of Roythorne-Jacobs' (2019) study demonstrated a difference in the preference of career anchors, with black participants scoring higher on the career anchors of general management, entrepreneurial/creativity, pure challenge and service dedication to a cause. In their research, Bezuidenhout et al. (2013) also found that race groups differed in terms of their career anchors. For Africans, the short-term career anchors were managerial and technical/functional, whereas for whites, stability, security and lifestyle were the dominant career anchors. For medium-term career

anchors, the whites favoured lifestyle, while the Africans, favoured entrepreneurial/creativity (Bezuidenhout et al., 2013). Research findings have indicated that blacks have less autonomy than whites in managerial levels. According to Ndzube (2013), this outcome may be attributed to the difference in organisational experiences.

Fakir (2010) reported significant differences among employees in respect of race, especially with the career anchor service/dedication to a cause. The white race group differed significantly from the blacks, with the former group demonstrating lifestyle and technical/functional as the preferred career anchors, and the latter group preferring service/dedication to a cause, as well as pure challenge (Fakir, 2010). Coetzee and Schreuder (2008) and Coetzee et al. (2007) concluded that career anchors differed significantly across race. Coetzee et al.'s (2007) research findings indicated that the black participants favoured value-based career anchors comprising pure challenge and service/dedication to a cause, whereas the need-based career anchor lifestyle was favoured by the white participants.

3.8 THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS FOR RETENTION PRACTICES

According to Coetzee et al. (2014), career anchors reflect the type of job, the work environment and the talent, abilities and values over a long period of time that an individual will prefer and that can drive higher levels of organisational commitment. This means that employees retain their tenure for a longer period in an organisation (Naghipour & Galavandi, 2015). Career anchors are nurtured when there is congruence between the individual's talents, abilities or values and his or her occupational role and work environment, thus motivating him or her to work longer for the organisation (Rahim & Sadeghi, 2016). Individual career paths are created through career anchors, which help organisations to determine development and retention plans for their human resources (Dehnad, Moghadam, Delavar, & Darvishi, 2018). It is therefore imperative for organisations to be aware of the career anchors of their employees and be proactive, which will encourage employees to continue serving the organisation (Kannabiran, Dominic, & Sarata, 2014).

3.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter provided an introduction to the concept career anchors and a conceptual understanding based on the literature. The two fundamental models of life stages and

career stages provided a view of career anchors. The various types of career anchors and their characteristics were discussed. The practical implications, both from an individual and organisational perspective, were also highlighted. The chapter concluded with a discussion of the biographical variables impacting career anchors.

Chapter 4 focuses on the construct of organisational commitment.

CHAPTER 4

ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Chapter 4 conceptualises the construct organisational commitment, including definitions, theories and the dimensions of organisational commitment. Variables which may influence organisational commitment are discussed, as well as the practical implications of organisational commitment both at individual and organisational level. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the theoretical relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment. The theoretical relationship regarding differences in age, employment level, gender and race is also highlighted.

Theoretically, organisational commitment is a type of employee commitment together with career commitment and work commitment (Muthuveloo & Che Rose, 2005). Organisational commitment comprises normative, affective and continuance commitment and is described as follows (Muthuveloo & Che Rose, 2005):

- recognising the goals of an organisation and voluntarily working towards achieving them
- voluntarily participating in all organisational activities
- selflessly devoting time and energy to the advancement of the organisation

Martin and Roodt (2008) mentioned the three perspectives of organisational commitment as behavioural, attitudinal and motivational. The common understanding in all three perspectives is that organisational commitment is about having an attachment to an organisation (Martin & Roodt, 2008). Muthuveloo (2007) indicated that it is the moral standards and principles of the organisation that influence employees to remain committed to it (Muthuveloo, 2007). Hence much attention has been focused on exploring the rationale, the associated values and motives underlying this bond, especially in light of the negative impact that changing work environments have on employees in relation to job security, loyalty and motivation (Coetzee et al., 2007). According to Chelliah et al. (2015), organisational commitment is a mental or emotional connection an employee has with the organisation he or she works for and the organisation’s goals and strategic direction.

Different studies have indicated that organisational commitment has demonstrated much significance as a variable within organisational behaviour as a discipline (Mowday et al., 1979). Organisational commitment, as noted by Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) is multidimensional in the sense that different forms of commitment exist, and an individual can develop different forms of commitment simultaneously.

Employees who display dedication to an organisation experience a longer-term relationship with the respective organisation, in contrast to those with lower levels of commitment (Mallol et al., 2007), and those who are not committed easily leave the organisation. According to Berkovich (2018), employees with higher levels of organisational commitment retain their services with the organisation compared with employees with less organisational commitment. Organisational commitment has therefore generated much interest, especially to help one understand the strength and permanency of dedication an employee possesses towards an organisation (Mester et al., 2003). Research findings by many researchers have concluded that organisational commitment is aligned to other major work-related elements in the discipline of work-related psychology, such as turnover intention (Ferreira, 2012; Meyer & Allen, 1996), performance or productivity (Jaros, 1997), work gratification (Lumley et al., 2011), transformational direction and work involvement (Mester et al., 2003).

4.1. CONCEPTUALISATION OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

According to Ahmed and Oranye (2010), there are numerous definitions of organisational commitment, but they all promote a similar understanding. Muthuveloo and Che Rose (2005) conceptualised organisational commitment as follows:

- faithfulness towards an organisation because an individual feel obligated to do so
- an individual choosing to remain part of an organisation

The two key influencing factors for an individual wishing to remain in the organisation are loyalty, which is developed through positive work experiences, and weighing the economic losses of exiting the organisation (Muthuveloo & Che Rose, 2005). They therefore deduced that the two important understandings of organisational commitment are loyalty and wanting to stay in an organisation of one's own free will. O'Reilly (1989) also cited loyalty as part of organisational commitment and defined the concept as a person's mental affiliation with an organisation. This bond is characterised by faithfulness towards the organisation, deep immersion in one's work

as a result of the emotional bond and strong acknowledgement of the morals and standards of the organisation.

Similarly, Brooks and Wallace (2006) cited faithfulness and emotional bond/attachment as components of organisational commitment. Another view by Lumley (2009) is that commitment to an organisation occurs when the individual's morals and standards are similar to those of the organisation. A connection is subsequently formed between the two owing to the individual's perception of congruence (Lumley, 2009). An understanding of organisational commitment further includes the degree of an employee's recognition of organisational objectives and principles and willingness to support the organisation in becoming successful (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). Employee willingness includes an increase in voluntary participation in organisational activities (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Meyer and Allen (1991) indicated that organisational commitment behaviour and actions are the result of an obligatory thought process or stable mind-set towards an organisation and that adopting the organisation's culture influences these thought processes.

Similarly, according to Ahmed and Oranye (2010), organisational commitment is the mind-set and actions of an employee towards the objectives of an organisation with the employee displaying an emotive, ethical and composed attitude towards it. This mind-set and actions are dependent on the employee's attitude towards the organisation, and the more favourable this attitude, the more likely he or she is to accept the organisation's objectives (Lumley et al., 2011). Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) adopted a similar view in which they described organisational commitment as an obligatory, otherwise enforced energy or thought process that involves remaining focused on achieving the organisation's set objectives. Commitment therefore constitutes the affective/emotional elements that drive feelings of guilt, and the cognitive elements which constitute the behavioural aspect that drives commitment (Meyer et al., 2006). This behavioural aspect helps one understand the level of dedication that an employee has to an organisation (Mester et al., 2003).

According to Neymeh (2009), committed employees therefore internalise organisational moral standards and principles, and have a self-drive to do anything for the organisation to the extent of going beyond the call of duty, thus making human resources with high levels of commitment a significant organisational asset. Such

committed employees are essential in any organisation because they directly influence organisational performance (Neymeh, 2009).

According to Coetzee et al. (2007) and Meyer and Allen (1991), commitment comprises the following three elements:

- affective commitment (a self-need/longing to belong to an organisation; liking for one's job and organisation)
- continuance commitment (taking into account perceived financial losses to leave an organisation; stays on in the organisation after taking into account the cost of leaving it)
- normative commitment (morally obligatory notions not to exit an organisation)

These elements, constituting the Three-Component Model (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 61), serve to stimulate the behaviour and mind-set of an individual demonstrating his or her dedication to an organisation. According to Meyer and Allen (1997), these elements provide an understanding of how organisational commitment develops in an individual and the behaviour that he or she will manifest based on the applicable organisational commitment dimension. Aligned to the Three-Component Model (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 61), Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) defined organisational commitment as the amount of emotion and psychological attachment possessed by a person towards the organisation they work for. This bond, in turn, influences the employee to adopt the organisation's characteristics, give recognition to it, and become more involved in its activities.

4.1.1. Summary of Definitions of Organisational Commitment

The following definitions of organisational commitment (as cited in Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001, p. 302) are explained:

- Commitment in general: "… engagement which restricts freedom of action" (Oxford English dictionary, 1969)
- "Commitment comes into being when a person, by making a side bet, links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity" (Becker, 1960, p. 32)
- "… a state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his actions and through these actions to beliefs that sustain the activities of his own involvement" (Salancik, 1977, p. 62)

- "… a stabilizing force that acts to maintain behavioural direction when expectancy/equity conditions are not met and do not function" (Scholl, 1981, p. 593)
- "… a force that stabilises individual behaviour under circumstances where the individual would otherwise be tempted to change that behaviour" (Brickman, 1987, p. 2)
- "… one's inclination to act in a given way toward a particular commitment target" (Oliver, 1990, p. 30)
- "… an obliging force which requires that the person honor the commitment, even in the face of fluctuating attitudes and whims" (Brown, 1996, p. 241)
- Organisational commitment "… the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation" (Mowday et al., 1979, p. 226)
- "… the totality of normative pressures to act in a way which meets organisational goals and interests" (Weiner, 1982, p. 421)

Taking into account these explanations, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) explained organisational commitment as an underlying reason that motivates officials to have an increased tenure with their employer. Based on this understanding, Lumley (2009) described approaches through which commitment develops or occurs. These approaches are attitudinal, behavioural, motivational and multidimensional, as depicted in table 4.1.

Table 4.1
Approaches to Commitment

Approach	Description
Attitudinal	The focus is on behaviour or employee attitude and an understanding of what makes individuals identify with the objectives and the organisation itself, thereby creating commitment towards the organisation and its goals. In this context, Lumley (2009) describes attitude as important in choosing to identify with the organisation. It is characterised by having strong positive feelings towards the morals, standards and objectives of an organisation. An individual will do anything for the organisation, and has a desire to be part of it.

Table 4.1: Approaches to Commitment (continued)

Approach	Description
Behavioural	This approach focuses on a commitment to behaviour rather than to an organisation. These employees choose a particular behaviour and cannot change this style easily. A sense of obligation subsequently sets in, which creates a positive outlook towards that behaviour. It is this behaviour that keeps a person obligated to the organisation.
Motivational	Realising salient values and achieving salient goals is important. There should be an intrinsic motivational force that makes employees with greater commitment go the extra mile for that organisation. Individuals like these are goal driven and aligned to their purpose of action.
Multidimensional	This is a recent approach that assumes that organisational commitment matures when there is a combination of the following: consideration of financial loss due to exiting; having favourable feelings towards the organisation and expressing moral obligation. It is viewed as an emotional alliance to an organisation and the principles of obedience, recognition and adoption apply.

Source: Adapted from Lumley, 2009.

4.2. THEORETICAL MODELS

4.2.1. Meyer and Allen's (1997) Three-Component Model

According to Jaros (2007), Meyer and Allen's (1997) Three-Component Model is a prominent framework that helps one understand commitment in the workplace. It is the most researched measure of organisational commitment.

Meyer and Allen's (1997) framework focuses on the mental level of an employee and the relationship he or she has with an organisation. Based on this relationship, an employee will decide whether or not to have an association with a particular organisation. Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) explained that this model was developed by observing similarities and differences in the concepts of organisational commitment. Similarities between concepts led researchers to believe that the degree of obligation is a determining factor as to whether a person chooses to exit or remain with an organisation. Organisational commitment is seen to bind the individual to an organisation (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

The Three-Component Model includes the following dimensions (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001):

4.2.1.1. Continuance commitment

An employee develops continuance commitment through the realisation that leaving an organisation would result in increased associated costs (Tladinyane, 2006). The focus is therefore on mindfulness of the monetary loss or forfeiture of benefits resulting from exiting the organisation. The focus is not on wanting to stay in the organisation,

but rather on the money that will be earned if an employee remains (Lumley et al., 2011). Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) postulated that the side-bet theory gave rise to continuance commitment, in the sense that employees generally accumulate skill/experience/financial benefits during employment. Hence commitment occurs when an individual sees loss of investment or directs actions and behaviour towards a particular goal. Coetzee et al. (2007) explained this investment as the effort and time an individual has invested in acquiring occupation-specific skills. Increased knowledge of the organisation and the acquisition of skills motivates individuals to continue working for the organisation (Sangperm, 2017). Employees who possess continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991) focus on the extent of loss as a result of leaving an organisation. Such employees are also more inclined to contribute to the organisation more than what is required of them (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

4.2.1.2. Affective commitment

Affective commitment refers to a mental association that individuals have regarding the relationship with the organisation they work for (Meyer & Allen, 1991). An individual works for an organisation because he or she wishes to be employed by it. Such employees are dedicated to the organisation at an emotional level. They positively recognise the organisational targets and values, thus wishing to continue employment (Lumley et al., 2011). Similarly, affective commitment can be seen as a desire in an individual to work for that organisation (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). As individuals become more involved in and identify with the relevance of the values, they see their identity in an organisation. Meyer and Allen (1997) explained that improving affective commitment is dependent on the degree to which the organisation fulfils the individual's goals. According to Meyer and Allen (1991), employees with affective commitment have regular work attendance and are willing to help and give of their best in work performance. The positive influence of affective commitment on work performance was underscored by Coetzee and Schreuder (2011) in their research.

4.2.1.3. Normative commitment

Normative commitment refers to the moral duty of an employee to stay with the organisation, regardless of the extent to which the organisation fulfils the individual's needs (Lumley et al., 2011). According to Lumley et al. (2011), an employee demonstrates commitment and responsibility towards the organisation and maintains an ongoing relationship with it. This construct entails the internalisation of norms and

acceptance of a psychological contract with the organisation (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Workers with this commitment demonstrate a persistent obligation towards an organisation in exchange for some benefit they derive from the organisation or out of a dutiful perception (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The individual's belief is based on what he or she deems as morally correct and which subsequently guides his or her obligation towards the organisation in this direction (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Generally, the levels of commitment can be different from employee to employee (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Individuals may possess more than one of the organisational dimensions mentioned above – hence the combination constitutes the commitment profile that has a bearing on occupational and institutional behaviour (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Reichers (1985) postulated that each employee in an organisation will possess a different level of organisational commitment, and this depends on the extent of dedication and maturity that employees show towards the organisation. Table 4.2 depicts the different levels of obligation towards an organisation in relation to the Three-Component Model of Organisational Commitment:

Table 4.2
Organisational Commitment Levels

Levels	Description
Increased levels of obligation towards an organisation	Reichers (1985) describes this level as possessing intense affiliation with the morals and standards of an organisation and an eagerness to be employed by it (Ferreira, 2012). Meyer and Allen (1997) referred to this as affective commitment (Ferreira, 2012).
Moderate levels of obligation towards an organisation	Reichers (1985) described this as having a practical or sensible amount of identification with the organisation's principles and displaying some determination for an increased organisational tenure (Ferreira, 2012). Meyer and Allen (1997) refer to this as normative commitment (Ferreira, 2012).
Low levels of obligation towards an organisation	Reichers (1985) described this as lacking identification with the principles of an organisation and eagerness to be employed by it (Ferreira, 2012). Meyer and Allen (1997) identified this as continuance commitment. The individual may be dissatisfied with the organisation, but still remains in it (Ferreira, 2012).

Source: Adapted from Ferreira, 2012

In summary, Meyer and Allen (1991) viewed affective, continuance and normative commitment as elements and not forms of organisational commitment. More importantly, these components focus on an emotional orientation towards an organisation, the associated costs of leaving an organisation and one's moral obligation to stay with an organisation. The key elements of these components are

positive relationships with an organisation (affective commitment), economic necessity (continuance commitment) and moral responsibility (normative commitment) (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

The studies of Irving et al. (1997), Meyer et al. (1993), Vandenberghe et al. (1999) (all cited in Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001) indicated that Meyer and Allen's Three-Component Model of Organisational Commitment focuses on commitment pertaining to work or a job – hence the choice of this model for this study. This model has become a popular framework in many institutions (Jaros, 2007). Researchers have used the Three-Component Model to predict important employee outcomes such as worker productivity and absenteeism (Jaros, 2007). According to Meyer and Allen (1991), commitment is a fundamental aspect of their model that encourages individuals remain in their organisation.

4.2.2. O'Reilly and Chatman's Theory

According to O'Reilly and Chatman (1986), their theory centres on affection towards an institution brought about by feelings that influence an individual to form a psychological connection with the institution. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) explained commitment as involving the following:

- *Compliance*. Particular behaviours, including attitudes, are developed with the intent to gain benefits.
- *Identification*. An individual is influenced to create or maintain a relationship, which is satisfying in terms of group affiliation. The group's morals, standards and achievements are respected and not adopted as the individual' own.
- *Internalisation*. If an individual's and an organisation's attitude and behaviours are the same or aligned, then internalisation occurs.

4.2.3. Side-bet Theory of Organisational Commitment

Becker's (1960) Side-bet Theory of Organisational Commitment (as cited in Meyer and Allen (1994) is described as follows:

- Commitment is viewed as ongoing activity with or membership of an organisation as a result of ongoing side-bets or gain.
- If this gain abates, then the individual will end this activity.
- A side bet occurs when there is some other interest or gain for the individual.
- Examples of such gain are effort, remuneration and time.

- The individual will remain committed to an organisation because his or her intentions to leave will result in the loss of his or her gain.
- Commitment to the organisation results from perceived loss of investment by the individual.
- This commitment is aligned to continuous commitment where there is potential economic loss that motivates remaining in the organisation.

4.2.4. Integration of the theories

The Three-Component Model overlaps with the Side-bet Theory in that both include continuance commitment and commitment towards an organisation owing to potential economic loss. O'Reilly and Chatman's Theory overlaps with the Three-Component Model in that both include affective commitment and commitment involving a psychological attachment to the organisation. The Side-bet Theory and O'Reilly and Chatman's theory do not overlap in theoretical understanding.

4.3. VARIABLES INFLUENCING ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

The variables of age, employment level, gender and race and the respective relationships with organisational commitment based on theoretical research findings are discussed in this section. Research findings reveal different relationships between these variables.

4.3.1. Age

Nyathi's (2020) study results indicated a difference in organisational commitment for different age groups because older employees tend to be more reluctant to leave the organisation. Potgieter and Kelebogile's (2021) research outcomes also demonstrated a difference in organisational commitment for various age groups. Martin and Roodt (2008) established a positive correlation that demonstrated that age is congruent with organisational commitment, whereby an escalation in age results in an increase in the degree of organisational commitment. This is because as employees age, new occupational prospects lessen, and older employees tend to have more specialised occupations, which means they remain longer in an organisation (Martin & Roodt, 2008). Ng and Feldman (2010) drew a similar conclusion, namely that with an advancement in age, individuals' normative commitment increases positively as a result of a positive job attitude on their part. Furthermore, age is "significantly related to task-based, people-based and organisation-based (which includes affective, continuance and normative commitment)" (Ng & Feldman, 2010, p. 15). These findings

were supported by Govender (2017), whose results reflected significant differences in affective, continuance and normative commitment among the different age categories. Meyer et al. (1993) reported that age has a positive correlation with the normative and affective commitment categories. However, studies conducted by Chen et al. (2012), Joolideh and Yeshodhara (2009), Wiedmer (2006) and Sehunoe et al. (2015) (as cited in Jabaar, 2017), revealed that organisational commitment has no significant correlation with age. These findings were supported by a study conducted by Iqbal (2010), which reported that the potential reason attributed to this was that a high turnover rate existed in industry in which the study was conducted.

4.3.2. Employment level

Jabaar's (2017) research results revealed a difference in commitment levels for different employment levels. Stolz (2014) adopted a similar view in the sense that the higher employment levels are involved in more important tasks, thus making such employees feel more valued and therefore more committed. Employment level influences organisational commitment differently in that executives tend to be more committed than nonexecutives and demonstrate higher levels of affective commitment (Jena, 2015). Suma and Srivastava (2012) explained that the attitude of an employee towards the organisation increases through seniority progression and is influenced by improved benefits and salary. Clinton-Baker's (2013) research findings were similar to those of Jena (2015) in that organisational commitment differed between management and subordinates, with particular reference to management demonstrating higher levels of normative, affective and total commitment. The reason for this is that management have a greater sense of obligation, emotional affiliation and commitment towards an organisation compared to their subordinates. According to Lumley (2009), supervisors demonstrated greater amounts of affective commitment. The explanation for this is that supervisors have more emotional connection and identification with and participation in the organisation, as well as greater decision-making powers when it comes to achieving the organisation's objectives (Lumley, 2009).

Suma and Srivastava (2012) suggested that employees' thoughts and perceptions change towards an organisation as they acquire more experience. Based on the results of their research, Van Dyk et al. (2013) postulated that senior managers have greater satisfaction with the dimension of continuance commitment versus other employment levels. The reason for this, according to Van Dyk et al. (2013), is that senior managers have much more to lose if they exit the organisation versus lower-

level employees who have less to lose. Suma and Srivastava (2012) found that middle managers had greater organisational commitment because of their length of service. Iqbal's (2010) research results correlated with these findings, namely that employees at management level tended to remain longer in an organisation.

4.3.3. Gender

Coetzee et al. (2007) and Sehunoe et al. (2015) indicated on the basis of their studies that there were no significant differences in relation to gender. A study conducted by Nyathi (2020) yielded similar results, namely that there was no difference in organisational commitment between males and females. Coetzee et al. (2007) found that occupations that offer autonomy/independence in the job are more likely to attract males who tend to be more obligated to such occupations, versus females who are inclined to be more committed to organisations that take care of their family and personal concerns. Metcalf and Dick (2000) recorded no difference in gender groups for low-level staff. However, as seniority increased, the commitment levels of males appeared to be slightly higher than those of females.

Van Dyk et al.'s (2013) findings were similar in that females demonstrated slightly lower commitment to the organisation on the premise that the female organisation fit was perceived to be lower. Jena's (2015) findings indicated a significant difference between both gender groups in that the males are inclined to have higher affective commitment, while the females showed higher normative commitment. Also, the males generally have greater organisational commitment than the females because men tend to put their employment first, while women are inclined to put their maternal role first (Jena, 2015). Lumley's (2009) research found that the female participants scored higher on continuance commitment than their male counterparts. This would imply that females remain committed as they identify leaving an organisation with associated losses (Tladinyane, 2006). Sariera et al. (2011) attributed the difference in organisational commitment between males and females to that of the former internalising the moral standards and ethics of an organisation versus the latter considering the economic loss of leaving an organisation (continuance commitment).

4.3.4. Race

The research outcomes of different researchers yielded different findings with respect to race. Based on her studies, Jabaar (2017) found that organisational commitment, especially continuance commitment, differed among races. According to Lumley

(2009), research indicates that different race groups have different degrees of commitment, and this can be attributed to the difference in motivating factors between the race groups that influences commitment towards the organisation. Martin and Roodt (2008) established a significant correlation between organisational commitment and the participants' race, where black participants demonstrated a greater obligation towards the organisation compared with the white participants. In South Africa, discriminatory practices countrywide are being rooted out, including those in organisations. This change has resulted in black employees feeling more committed towards the organisation versus white employees feeling more threatened (Martin & Roodt, 2008).

In a study by Watanabe (2010), the findings indicated that the minority race group demonstrated lower organisational commitment than the white race group. The researcher ascribed this possibly to the promotion methods, discriminatory practices or length of employment. Coetzee et al. (2007) established that there was no significant difference between the different race groups regarding the degree of commitment towards the organisation. Research by Sehunoe et al. (2015) yielded similar results, namely that there was no significant difference in commitment levels among the race groups participating in their study.

4.4. IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

4.4.1. Individual perspective

According to Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), committed behaviour towards an organisation, results in reduced turnover and absenteeism, and an increase in performance and behaviour that is congruent with the behaviour required by an organisation. The level of commitment makes a significant contribution to an individual's choice of vocation in an organisation, because highly committed individuals choose to remain in an organisation if their vocational choice is supported by the organisation (Tladinyane, 2006). Organisational commitment therefore impacts positively on the welfare of workers (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

4.4.2. Organisational perspective

Lesabe and Nkosi (2007) suggested that productivity is improved through the influence of organisational commitment. Strategies to foster commitment are thus important in managing human resources, so that there is less reliance on structured rules and greater focus on fostering employees who are dedicated towards achieving the

organisation's objectives (Lesabe & Nkosi, 2007). According to them (Lesabe & Nkosi, 2007), organisational commitment is important to an organisation's strategic goals. Manetjie (2009) indicated that committed employees contribute to the sustainability of an organisation. Muthuveloo (2007) supported this notion that organisational commitment is crucial for the existence of an organisation. This relates to the positive influence commitment has on employees' welfare and organisational efficiency (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

Commitment by the employee can therefore be enhanced by ensuring alignment between employees' motivations and values that make up their career anchors and organisational rewards (Coetzee et al., 2007). Manetjie (2009) postulated that organisations have a role to play in enhancing organisational commitment by fulfilling individual needs, providing social support and creating trust. This contrasts with traditional methods, whereby organisational commitment was built on job security and promotions. Organisational commitment has a substantial effect on organisational accomplishments as employee retention levels are higher and employees perform better on the job (Meyer & Allen, 1996).

4.5. THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS FOR RETENTION PRACTICES

Potgieter (2018) explained that organisational commitment as a personal attribute plays an important role in employee retention practice. Enhancing affective emotional connection to an organisation is a vital consideration for human resource managers and practitioners for improving organisational commitment because it increases employee retention (Mercurio, 2015). Ferreira and Coetzee (2013) postulated that managers should be aware of the organisational commitment of their employees as this influences an employee's decision to leave or remain in an organisation. Employees who are committed to an organisation have a tendency to remain longer in an organisation, which suggests that organisational commitment and retention practices are positively related (Van Dyk et al., 2013).

4.6. THEORETICAL RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CAREER ADAPTABILITY, CAREER ANCHORS AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

This section addresses step 4 of the literature review, namely integrating the theoretical constructs of career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment. The purpose of the literature review study was to investigate the

relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment.

4.6.1. Theoretical relationship between career adaptability and organisational commitment

When improved, career adaptability, in particular career confidence and concern, has a favourable effect on career success – this makes individuals stay longer in an organisation (Zacher, 2014). This concurs with Porfeli and Savickas's (2012) research, with a level of continuous organisational obligation surfacing in career adaptability. In their research study, Coetzee et al. (2013) found that the career adaptability resources of career curiosity, concern, control and confidence had an effect on an individual's acceptance of the organisation, which in turn, would determine whether or not an individual wished to be committed to an organisation.

According to Savickas and Porfeli (2012), an individual's ability to cope with changes in an organisation influences his or her decision to stay in it. Jabaar's (2017) study results demonstrated that career adaptability has a significant relationship with organisational commitment, in that committed workers tend to be more adaptable. Ferreira (2012) found that a dimension of career adaptability, namely curiosity, is important in that it predicts normative organisational commitment – in other words, individuals who are curious about their careers display strong normative commitment feelings. Such findings are congruent with the research results of Ito and Brotheridge (2005), London and Smither (1999), Mitchell et al. (2001b) and Meyer and Allen (1990) (all cited in Ferreira, 2012) – that is, individuals with greater levels of career adaptation tend to perform self-development activities by taking on available jobs and career opportunities. Such opportunities increase commitment to an organisation. Johnson (2018) and Ferreira et al. (2012) concluded that career adaptability fosters an improved association with both the organisation and occupation. This motivates a worker to remain with the organisation in terms of the positive correlation that career adaptability has with organisational commitment.

4.6.2. Theoretical relationship between career anchors and organisational commitment

Bezuidenhout et al. (2013) conducted a study among university employees in order to examine the relationship between organisational commitment and career anchors. The findings indicated a positive relationship between the two constructs. The career

anchors that served as positive predictors were general managerial competence, technical/functional competence, autonomy/independence, pure challenge and lifestyle (Bezuidenhout et al., 2013).

Coetzee et al.'s (2007) results pertaining to the relationship between career anchors and organisational commitment were significant, but the findings in fact indicated that career anchors do not influence organisational commitment. The career anchors of autonomy, security and entrepreneurial/creativity, as explained by Coetzee et al. (2007), were associated with low normative commitment, meaning that these individuals attached greater importance to independence, security and creativity compared with the relationship they had with the organisation.

The research findings of Feldman and Bolino (2000), Kniveton (2004) and Schein (1996) (as cited in Coetzee, Schreuder et al., 2015), demonstrated that in relation to career anchors, career motives and values determined commitment to an organisation. An examination of organisational commitment, career anchors and employee turnover results demonstrated a significant correlation between organisational commitment and career anchors. Those employees with entrepreneurial career anchors had low organisational commitment, while the lifestyle anchor reflected an increased amount of organisational commitment (Coetzee, Schreuder et al., 2015).

In her research on career anchors and organisational commitment, Lumley (2009) indicated that these two constructs are partially related. To promote further understanding of the relationship between career anchors and organisational commitment, Lumley (2009) recommended that additional studies be conducted on individual career decision making and mechanisms in order to improve organisational retention.

An investigation was initiated by Coetzee et al. (2007) to determine the relationship between career anchors and the demographic groups of gender and race. The results demonstrated a positive relationship between participants' organisational commitment levels and career anchors. However, organisational commitment could not be significantly predicted by career anchors. It was therefore concluded that more research would be required to determine the influence of career anchors on organisational commitment.

Lumley (2009) also explored the relationship between job satisfaction, career anchors and organisational commitment, especially the difference in individuals' responses categorised into age, employment level, gender and race. Lumley (2009) found that career anchors and organisational commitment were closely related, particularly, the value placed on security/stability versus the cost should employees decide to leave.

Clinton-Baker's (2013) research demonstrated a significant relationship between career anchors and organisational commitment, and a correlation between functional/technical and career anchors with normative, continuance and total commitment. In their study, Hassan et al. (2012) concluded that organisational commitment is influenced by the career anchors of pure challenge, functional competence, general managerial competence, autonomy and lifestyle. Hence a significant relationship exists between career anchors and organisational commitment. This therefore implies that career orientations lead to high levels of organisational commitment. Naghipour and Galavandi (2015) shared a similar view that career anchors drive higher levels of organisational commitment.

In Schein's (1996) concept of career anchors, self-perceived talents, motives and abilities influence a career decision. This research indicated that psychological attachment to an organisation or an occupation and career decision making are influenced by internal career anchors. Coetzee et al. (2007) argued that, when there is congruence between a career anchor and work environment, employees tend to be more committed to the organisation. Career anchors have an impact on every career-related decision, such as career choice and workplace, the need to stay with an organisation and work experience (Herrbach & Mignonac, 2012). In the same vein, Lumley et al. (2011) explained that organisational commitment provides reasons for individuals wishing to remain in an organisation (Coetzee, Schreuder et al., 2015).

The significant relationship between career anchors and organisational commitment, as mentioned by Meyer et al. (2015), suggested that a person's self-identity influences his or her level of commitment to the organisation. In line with these findings, Coetzee et al. (2007) concluded that career anchors and organisational commitment are positively related. Lumley's (2009) research yielded similar results. Savickas and Porfeli (2012) indicated that career adaptability refers to an individual's ability to cope with changes in organisations or occupational roles. There is general consensus

among researchers (as cited by Savickas & Porfeli, 2012) that career adaptability is a key factor that provides assurance of an employee's commitment to an organisation.

4.6.3. Theoretical relationship between career adaptability and career anchors

All career adaptability components, aligned to the Construction Theory (Savickas, 1997, 2005), influence the creation of vocational targets. Research conducted by Yang et al. (2015), in accordance with this theory, showed a positive correlation between career adaptability and career anchors. Yang et al. (2015) therefore postulated that increased career adaptability enables individuals to develop more involved/advanced career anchors. Conversely, Coetzee and Schreuder (2013) indicated that career anchors guide individuals to use their career experience with regard to managing and adjusting to changes in their careers. However, there is a paucity of literature demonstrating the theoretical relationship between these two constructs.

4.6.4. Theoretical relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment and the variables of age, employment level, gender and race

Regarding the variable of gender, according to Bezuidenhout et al. (2013), there is a significant difference between males and females in respect of their career anchors. Females prefer autonomy/independence, lifestyle and technical/functional anchors versus males who prefer general/managerial anchors. The results of Lumley's (2009) research indicated that males prefer technical/functional competence, while females look for secure and stable conditions that allow them to assist others. Lumley (2009) indicated that career orientations differ between males and females: females are more inclined towards security/stability, service and dedication, whereas males lean more towards technical/functional anchors, with females less inclined towards this orientation. Females therefore choose occupations that have security or provide opportunities congruent with their personal goals (Lumley, 2009).

In terms of the variable of race, research by Bezuidenhout et al. (2013) revealed that different race groups have different career anchors. For Africans, the short-term career anchor was managerial and technical/functional, while for whites' stability/security and lifestyle were the dominant career anchors. For the medium term, whites reflected lifestyle as a priority, while Africans mentioned entrepreneurial/creativity (Bezuidenhout et al., 2013). Research has found that Africans tend to have less autonomy than whites in managerial levels. According to Ndzube (2013), this outcome

could be attributed to the difference in organisational experiences. Jabaar's (2017) research findings indicated a significant difference in the organisational commitment variables of normative, affective and continuance commitment between different race groups. Based on her research, Lumley (2009) concluded that career anchors and organisational commitment differed among different age, employment level, gender and race groups. The research outcomes of Coetzee et al. (2007) underscored a similar relationship. However, Coetzee et al. (2007) stated that career anchors are not significant predictors of organisational commitment.

Regarding the variable of employment level, Bezuidenhout et al. (2013) found that individuals with high levels of competence tend to remain in technical levels and avoid decisions that lead to managerial levels. The variable of age impacts one's choice of career anchors. In research conducted by Bezuidenhout et al. (2013), career anchors for the age group 21 to 25 were different to those of the age group 26 to 35, with the former being lifestyle oriented and the latter favouring service/dedication. Coetzee et al. (2007) conducted research to determine the relationship between the commitment levels of race and gender groups to career anchors. The results demonstrated a relationship between the career anchors and organisational commitment levels of participants. Jabaar (2017) found a significant difference between different age groups regarding the organisational commitment variables of normative, affective and continuance commitment. Lumley (2009) confirmed that the career anchors differed for different employment levels in that supervisory levels were oriented towards autonomy/independence and general managerial competence, and lower levels of staff were inclined towards occupations that offer security/stability. Based on these research findings, it was concluded that career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment differ in respect of age, employment level, gender and race.

4.7. CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter the concept of organisational commitment was defined. Various definitions were discussed. Organisational commitment as a multidimensional construct, the characteristic behaviour of committed employees and the levels of organisational commitment were also highlighted. Meyer and Allen's (1997) Three-Component Model and O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) Theory on Organisational Commitment were examined. The models provided an explanation of the behaviour patterns that lead to committed employees. This was followed by discussions on the

variables affecting organisational commitment in respect of age, employment level, gender and race. The individual and organisational practical implications were also considered. The chapter concluded with a discussion of the theoretical relationship between the variables of career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment. Chapter 5 introduces the empirical component of this research.

CHAPTER 5

EMPIRICAL STUDY

This chapter outlines the empirical investigation with the aim of describing the strategies employed to investigate the relationship dynamics between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment. Firstly, an overview of the study's population and sample is presented. The measuring instruments are then discussed and the choice of each instrument justified, followed by a description of the data gathering and processing. The hypothesis is stated, and the chapter concludes with a chapter summary.

Table 5.1 provides an overview of the steps in the empirical study approach adopted in this study.

Table 5.1
Summary of Empirical Study Approach

Step	Description
1	Determining and describing the sample
2	Choosing and justifying the choice of measuring instrument
3	Administration of the measuring instrument
4	Scoring of the measuring instrument
5	Statistical processing of the data
6	Formulation of the research hypotheses
7	Reporting and interpreting the results
8	Integrating the research findings
9	Formulating the research conclusions, limitations, and recommendations

Steps 1 to 6 are addressed in this chapter, while steps 7 to 9 will be addressed in chapters 6 and 7, respectively.

5.1. DETERMINATION AND DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

Population is a collective term used to describe the total number of subjects in a study, for example, a population, organisation or event (Walliman, 2014). According to Walliman (2014), because obtaining information from large groups of people is time consuming, an alternative would be to select a few people to obtain information that is representative of the larger group. This selection is referred to as sampling.

Sampling comprises probability and nonprobability sampling, as described below (Walliman, 2014):

- *Probability sampling*. This entails the elements, say, people, that are selected from the population having an equal chance of being selected. This is achieved through the application of a particular technique, such as simple random or stratified sampling.
- *Nonprobability sampling.* Sample selections are done randomly and are generally used where the population is large. However, its generalisation to the population is not strong.

Nonprobability sampling is based on selection by non-random means. According to Walliman (2014), this may be useful for certain studies such as quick surveys or where it is difficult to gain access to the whole population. However, it provides only a weak basis for generalisation. A variety of techniques can be used, such as accidental sampling, quota sampling and the snowball technique.

The population of this study was 379 employees in the KZN Provincial Treasury. The simple random sampling approach was used to select a sample size of 158 employees (n = 158). The selected 158 employees all participated in this study. The percentage of participation in relation to the selected sample (n = 158) was 100%.

A sample calculator for quantitative research studies was used to determine the sample size, using the following in the computation (The Quantitative Research Sample Calculator, n.d.):

- population – 379 (number of employees in the organisation where the research was conducted)
- confidence level 95% (reflection of the percentage showing the population's correct mean average).
- margin of error – 5% (allowance for different results between the sample and population.

According to Patino and Ferreira (2018), the inclusion criteria of research samples are the demographical, medical or environmental characteristics of the sample, whereas the exclusion criteria are other characteristics that affect the outcome of the study. The inclusion criteria in this study were the age, employment level, gender and race of the

participants. Furthermore, the sample comprised permanent KZN Provincial Treasury employees. The exclusion criteria applicable were the responses of non-permanent employees and those of participants who submitted blank or incomplete questionnaires.

The biographical variables applicable to this study were age, gender, employment level and race, and the differences in these variables were explored in relation to career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment. Table 5.2 indicates the biographical distribution of the composition of the sample for age, employment level, gender and race.

Table 5.2

Composition of Age, Gender, Employment Level and Race Groups in the Sample

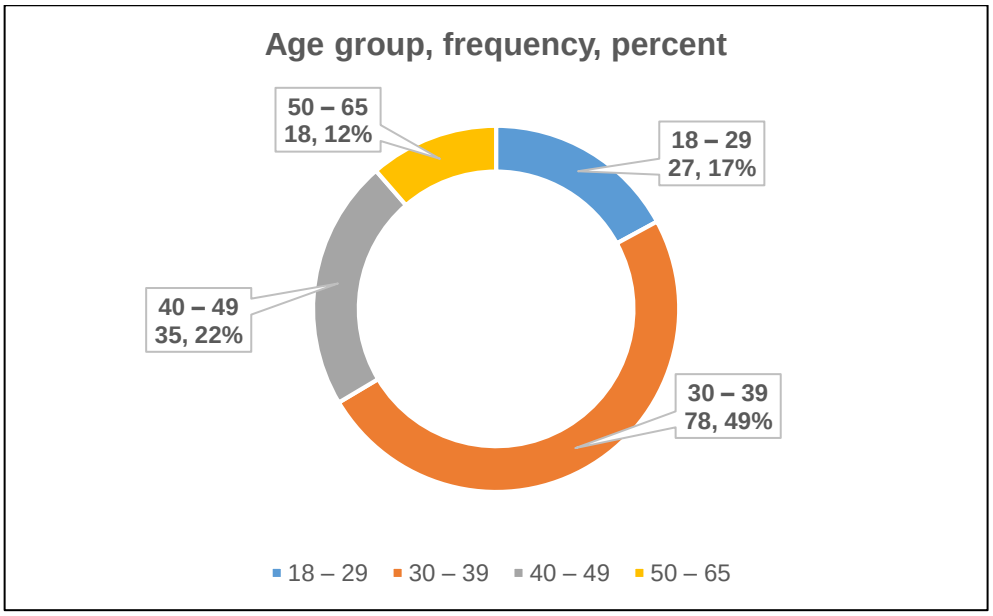
Age	**Frequency**	**Percent**
18–29	27	17.1
30–39	78	49.4
40–49	35	22.2
50–65	18	11.4
Total	158	100.0
Employment level	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Clerical /admin	22	13.9
Supervisory/officer/professional	47	29.7
Junior management	30	19.0
Middle management	41	25.9
Senior management	17	10.8
Total	158	100.0
Gender	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Male	64	40.5
Female	94	59.5
Total	158	100.0
Race	**Frequency**	**Percent**
African	112	70.9
Indian	26	16.5
Coloured	3	1.9
White	17	10.8
Total	158	100.0

5.1.1. Composition of age groups in the sample

Figure 5.1 depicts the composition of the age groups in the sample.

Figure 5.1

Graphical Representation of Age



In respect of age, 49.4% of the participants belonged to the 30 to 39 age group, followed by the 40 to 49 age group at 22.2%, the 18 to 29 age group at 17.1% and the 50 to 65 age group at 11.4%.

Table 5.3 depicts Super's career development stages.

Table 5.3
Super's Career Development Stages

Stage	Age	Description Of career stage
Growth	1 to 4	Fantasy, interest, capacities
Exploration	15 to 25	Crystallising, specifying, implementing
Establishment	25 to 45	Stabilising, consolidating, advancing
Maintenance	46 to 55	Holding, updating, innovating
Disengagement	56 to death	Decelerating, retirement planning, retirement living

Source: From Chan (2014).

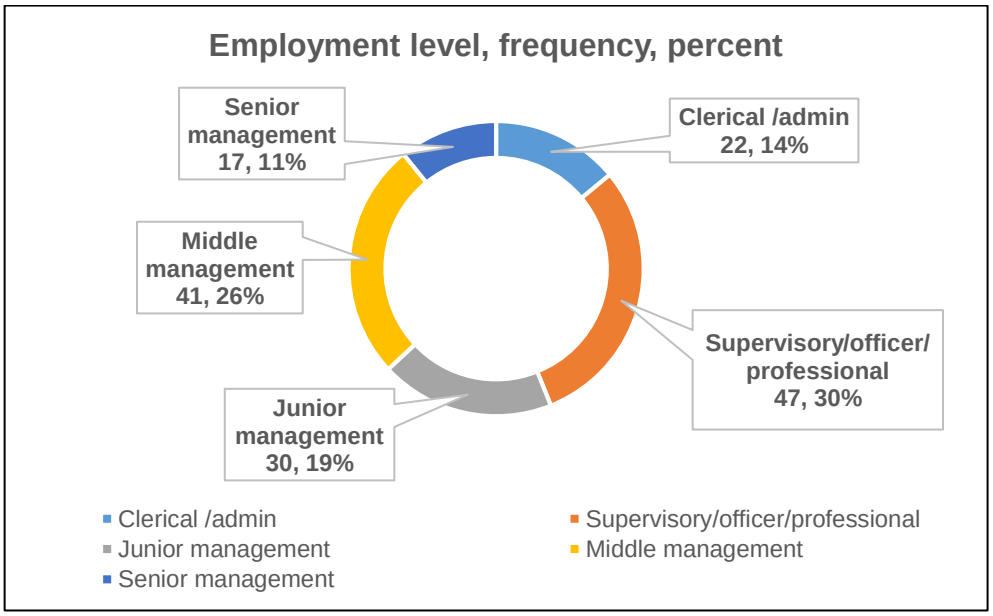
In line with Super's career development stages (Chan, 2014), in this study, the highest participation percentage for age was 49.4% for the 30 to 39 age group. This indicates that the sample for this study fell within a career development/advancement stage of

skills development and career stabilisation. This was followed by the 40 to 49 age group, with the focus on updating/improving their current career status.

5.1.2. Composition of employment levels in the sample

Figure 5.2

Graphical Representation of Employment Levels

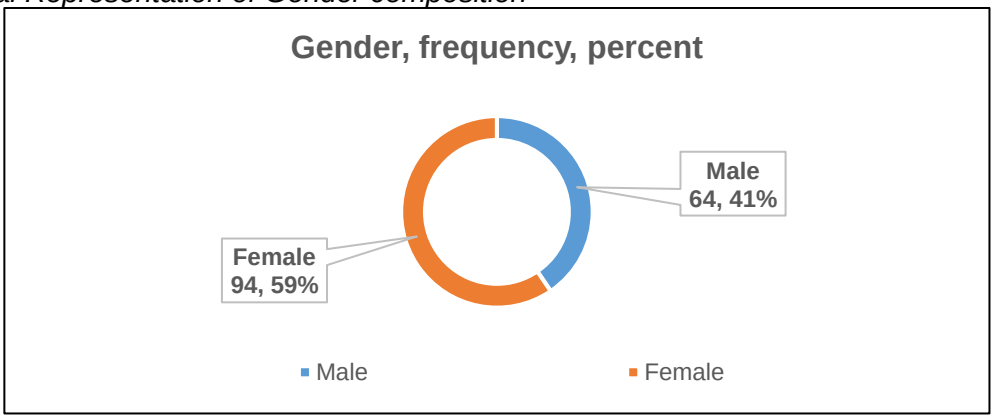


The biographical distribution in terms of employment levels indicated the highest participation by supervisory/officer/professional (29.9%), middle management (26.1%), junior management (14%), clerical/admin (14%) and senior management (10.8%).

5.1.3. Composition of gender groups in the sample

Figure 5.3

Graphical Representation of Gender composition

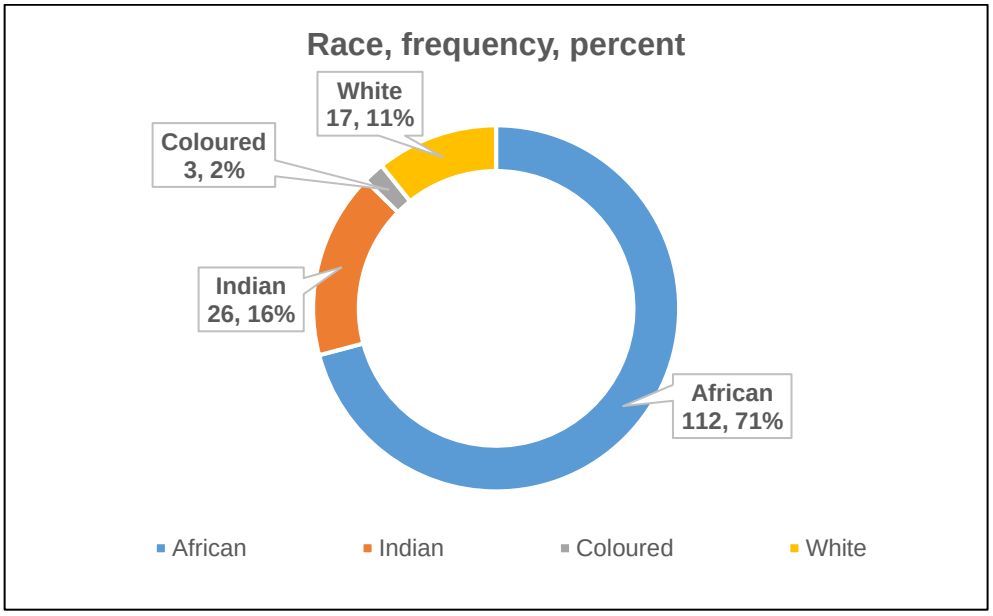


The gender composition constituted a higher rate of female participation at 59.5% compared to males at 40%.

5.1.4. Composition of race groups in the sample

Figure 5.4

Graphical Representation of Race



The race distribution statistics for the sample size of (n = 158) indicated that 70.9% were African, 16.5% Indian, 10.8% white and 1.9% coloureds. For the purpose of this study, African and Indian were grouped together as blacks with a total percentage of 87.40%.

In summary, with n = 158, the highest number of participants in the sample were black females between the ages of 30 and 39, belonging to the supervisor/officer/professional employment level.

5.2. CHOICE OF AND JUSTIFICATION FOR USE OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

Based on the literature review conducted on career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment, Savickas and Porfeli's Career Adapt-abilities Scale (CAAS) (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012), the Career Orientations Inventory (COI) of Schein (1990_a) and the Organisational Commitment Survey (OCQ) of Meyer and Allen (1997) were selected for this study. Lumley (2009), Coetzee et al. (2007) and Potgieter (2013)

used these instruments in similar studies, which demonstrated internal reliability, as highlighted in this chapter.

A biographical questionnaire focusing on age, gender, employment level and race was included to determine whether individuals from different age, gender, employment level and race groups differed significantly in terms of career adaptabilities, career anchors and organisational commitment.

5.2.1. The Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS)

Savickas and Porfeli's CAAS was used to measure career adaptability. The CAAS is discussed below with reference to the development, rationale, description of subscales, administration, interpretation, validity and reliability and justification for choice:

5.2.1.1. Development of the CAAS

Savickas and Porfeli (2012) explained the background to the construction of the CAAS. Thirteen countries worked together on developing a psychometric scale to measure career adaptability which initially comprised 55 items. The number of items was subsequently reduced to 24 comprising the four scales of concern, control, curiosity and confidence, with six items per scale (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). The reliability results for both the subscales and the entire scale yielded slight variances over the 13 countries, but were found to be between acceptable and excellent (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). However, the internal consistency results were excellent for the 13 countries (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Hence, according to Savickas and Porfeli (2012), the CAAS is the most widely used instrument for measuring career adaptability (Maggiori et al., 2017). Maree (2012) posited that the scale can be equated cross-nationally.

5.2.1.2. Rationale for the CAAS

According to Savickas and Porfeli (2012), the CAAS was developed to assess career adaptability with particular reference to its four dimensions of career concern, career curiosity, career confidence and career control.

5.2.1.3. Description of the CAAS

The Career Adapt-Abilities Scale was used in this study. According to Savickas and Porfeli (2012), the questionnaire/scale contains 24 items and is categorised into a set of four sub-scales aligned to the four dimensions of career adaptability, namely career

concern, career control, career curiosity and career confidence (with six items per subscale). Table 5.4 below provides a breakdown of the respective items per subscale, with each item reflected as a statement (Participants respond to these statements using a five-point Likert scale ranging from not strong to strongest).

Table 5.4

Breakdown of the CAAS

Subscale		Items as per questionnaire linked to each scale
Construct	**Scale items**	
Career concern	1-6	Thinking about what my future would be like
Career control	7 to 12	Planning how to achieve my goals
Career curiosity	13 to 18	Exploring my surroundings
Career confidence	19 to 24	Performing tasks efficiently”

The scale required participants to respond manually to the 24 items using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not strong), 2 (somewhat strong), 3 (strong), 4 (very strong) to 5 (strongest).

Each subscale is briefly described as follows (Coetzee, Ferreira et al., 2015):

- career concern – demonstrating concern about one’s future and thus becoming involved and starting to plan/prepare
- career control – engaging and exerting control over one’s future through decision making
- career curiosity – gathering occupational information and knowledge of oneself
- career confidence – having self-efficacy to implement one’s career goals

5.2.1.4. Administration of the CAAS

The respondents were informed that aim of the questionnaire was to determine overall career adaptability. The respondents were requested to respond to each item based on their preference using the five-point Likert scale (ranging from not strong to strongest). Since the administration of the test did not require supervision, the questionnaires were distributed via email. The respondents were required to print the questionnaire and complete the hard copy. Hard copies were also made available owing to the size of the entire set of questionnaires. The appointed fieldworker was responsible for the distribution of the hard copies and email copies.

5.2.1.5. Interpretation of the CAAS

The five-point Likert scale comprises the following:

(1) respondent's preference is not strong
(2) respondent's preference is somewhat strong
(3) respondent's preference is strong
(4) respondent's preference is very strong
(5) respondent's preference is strongest

If the respondent chooses (1), for example, this indicates that he or she feels that the statement does not apply strongly to him or her. However, if he or she chooses (5), this indicates that he or she finds the statement to be true or most applicable to him or her (Jabaar, 2017).

5.2.1.6. Validity and reliability to the CAAS

According to Maree (2012), the CAAS has proven to be a reliable and useful scale in South Africa because the internal consistency results have been acceptable. This was evident in a previous study conducted by Coetzee and Harry (2015), which indicated the internal consistency as follows: concern (0.76), control (0.70), curiosity (0.81), confidence (0.83) and the overall career adaptability scale (0.9). The internal consistency results in a previous study conducted by Potgieter (2013) were concern (0.88), control (0.85), curiosity (0.93), confidence (0.90), and overall career adaptability scale (0.96), also proving that the scale was acceptable. The reliability result for the CAAS in this research study was 0.96, concern (0.86), control (0.84), curiosity (0.88) and confidence (0.92), which was excellent.

5.2.1.7. Justification for choice

The coefficient alpha results obtained in previous studies by Maree (2012), Coetzee and Harry (2015) and Potgieter (2013) confirmed that the CAAS has consistent internal reliability, thus making it an appropriate scale to test what is required to be tested. This underscores the fact that the CAAS was deemed a reliable instrument for this study. The tool measures all four dimensions of career adaptability, which was appropriate for this study.

5.2.2. The Career Orientations Inventory (COI)

The COI used in this study to determine the career anchors of the participants was developed by Schein, and the 1990 version was chosen. The subsections below briefly explain the development, rationale, description, administration, interpretation, validity and reliability and justification for choosing this particular inventory.

5.2.2.1. Development of the COI

According to Rodrigues et al. (as cited in Cortés-Sánchez & Grueso-Hinestroza, 2017), Schein was responsible for the development of the COI in the 1970s, and it is one of the most commonly used methods to determine career paths and career orientations.

Schein conducted studies involving 44 alumni graduates from the MIT Sloan School of Management over ten years with a view to understanding their individual career choices based on their career anchor, as well as the individuals' own values in relation to their careers (Cortés-Sánchez & Grueso-Hinestroza, 2017). The first study by Schein (as cited in Cortés-Sánchez & Grueso-Hinestroza, 2017) revealed the following career anchors: managerial competence, technical/functional competence, organisational security, entrepreneurial/creativity and autonomy. Service/dedication to a cause, pure challenge and lifestyle were added to the list of career anchors based on Schein's further studies (Cortés-Sánchez & Grueso-Hinestroza, 2017). Schein (1974) postulated that an individual's motives, needs and aspirations determine his or her career path (which determines careers) and that these three elements (motives, needs and aspirations) jointly interact and cannot be separated (Lumley, 2009).

5.2.2.2. Rationale for the COI

According to Schein (1990_a), the COI is intended to measure his eight career anchors divided into three dimensions, namely talent-based, need-based and value-based motives. These are derived from work experience and the norms and values of work and social settings (Danziger et al., 2008). Delong (1982) indicated that the COI measures career orientation which is a central concept of career anchors, measuring career attitudes, values and needs.

Since the COI is an instrument used in quantitative studies, it was deemed relevant to the current study (Danziger et al., 2008). According to Marshall and Bonner (as cited in Lumley, 2009), the COI is an acceptable and reliable research tool.

5.2.2.3. Description of the COI

Schein's (1990a) COI measuring instrument comprises 40 items of equal value. The purpose of the items is to measure participants' career anchors on a six-point Likert scale, using Schein's eight categories of career anchors, namely: autonomy/ independence, security/stability, technical functional, general management competence, entrepreneurial/creativity, service/dedication to a cause, pure challenge and lifestyle (Schein, 1993).

The COI scale comprises three subscales, namely talent-based anchors consisting of technical/functional (5 items), general management competence (5 items) and entrepreneurial/creativity (5 items). The second subscale is need-based anchors comprising lifestyle (5 items) and autonomy/independence (5 items). The third subscale is value-based anchors comprising service/dedication to a cause (5 items) and pure challenge (5 items). Table 5.5 provides a breakdown of the COI.

Table 5.5
Breakdown of the COI

Subscale	Items linked to subscale	Example
Technical/functional (TF)	1, 9, 17, 25, 33	"I dream of being so good at what I do that my expert advice will be sought continually"
General management competence (GM)	2, 10, 18, 26, 34	"I am most fulfilled in my work when I have been able to manage and integrate the efforts of others"
Entrepreneurial/creativity (EC)	5, 13, 21, 29, 37	"I am always on the lookout for ideas that will permit me to start my own enterprise"
Lifestyle (LS)	8, 16, 24, 32, 40	"I would rather leave my organisation than be put into an organisation that will compromise my ability to pursue personal and family concerns"
Autonomy/independence (AU)	3, 11, 19, 27, 35	"I dream of having a career that will allow me the freedom to do a job my own way and on my own schedule"
Security/stability (SE)	4, 12, 20, 28,36	"Security and stability are more important to me than freedom and autonomy"
Service/dedication to a cause (SV)	6, 14, 22, 30, 38	"I will be successful in my career only if I have a feeling of having made a real contribution to the welfare of society"
Pure challenge (CH)	7, 15, 23, 31, 39	"I dream of a career in which I can solve problems or win out in situations that are extremely challenging"

5.2.2.4. Administration of the COI

The COI (Schein, 1990a) is a questionnaire aimed at stimulating respondents' thoughts about their competence, values and motives. The instructions are clearly set out. Participants are requested to respond to 40 items indicating how true each statement is to the individual, using a six-point Likert scale (ranging from never true to me to

always true to me). Higher scores indicate that the participant has strong feelings about the item/statement. The rating scale is as follows:

(1) Statement never true for me
(2) or (3) Statement is occasionally true for me
(4) or (5) Statement is often true for me
(6) Statement is always true for me

5.2.2.5. Interpretation of the COI

The COI comprises eight subscales categorised into three groups, namely talent-based anchors (technical/ functional, general management, entrepreneurial/ creativity); need-based anchors (autonomy/ independence, security/ stability, lifestyle) and value-based anchors (service/dedication to a cause, pure challenge).

The higher the score or rating by the respondent, the truer the statement is for him or her (Lumley, 2009). Also, according to Lumley (2009), each career anchor is scored separately and the career anchor with the highest mean score is the dominant one. The scoring allows one to determine which category (talent-, need- or value-based career anchor) applies to the respondent.

5.2.2.6. Validity and reliability of the COI

Previous studies by Danziger et al. (2008) demonstrated construct validity for Schein's COI and support for Schein's Career Anchor Theory. Previous studies by Burke (1983), Custodio (2004), DeLong (1982) and Wood et al. (1985) (as cited in Lumley, 2009) have all confirmed that the COI has high internal reliability and validity.

A previous study by Ellison and Schreuder (2000) (as cited in Coetzee et al., 2007) demonstrated internal consistency results (coefficient alpha) of technical/functional (0.59), general management (0.71), autonomy (0.75), security (0.78), entrepreneurship (0.75), service/dedication to a cause (0.73), pure challenge (0.70) and lifestyle (0.64). The reliability result for the COI scale in this research study was 0.93, technical/functional (0.63), general management (0.75), entrepreneurial/creativity (0.82), lifestyle (0.66), autonomy/independence (0.69), security/stability (0.80), service dedication to a cause (0.75) and pure challenge (0.81), which ranged between acceptable and excellent.

5.2.2.7. Justification for choice of the COI

Schein's (1990_a) COI, which was used in this study, was deemed the most appropriate because of its reliability and validity. Coetzee et al. (2007) asserted that the validity of this instrument is sufficient for studies relating to broad trends instead of focusing on differences between individuals. The focus of the current study was to explore broad trends. The reliability results from previous studies cited in the previous section supports the fact that the COI instrument was reliable for this study.

Furthermore, the COI subscales of technical/functional, general management, security/stability, entrepreneurial/creativity, security/stability, autonomy/independence, lifestyle and service/dedication to a cause are aligned to Schein's (1990_a) career anchors, thus making the COI the most appropriate tool for this study.

5.2.3. The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

Meyer and Allen's (1990) OCQ was used to measure organisational commitment. In this section, the OCQ is discussed with reference to the development, rationale, description of subscales, administration, interpretation, validity and reliability and justification for choice.

5.2.3.1. Development of the OCQ

Meyer and Allen (1990, 1991) developed the Three-Component Model of Organisational Commitment. The model provides an understanding of or reasoning behind an employee wishing to remain committed to an organisation, which is influenced by his or her mind-set (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). Organisational commitment is influenced by mind-sets that can vary, and Meyer and Allen (1990) characterised the different types of commitment influenced by a particular mind-set as affective commitment (willingness to stay), continuance commitment (perceived cost of leaving) and normative commitment (sense of feeling/obligation to stay).

The OCQ was purposefully developed to measure organisational commitment as a three-dimensional construct (Ferreira, 2012) aligned to the Three Component Model of Organisational Commitment.

As per Meyer and Allen (1997), item-scale correlation, content redundancy, negative and positive items and responses using a seven-point Likert scale were factors taken into account when developing the OCQ (Lumley, 2009).

5.2.3.2. Rationale for the OCQ

According to Meyer and Allen (1997), the OCQ was purposefully developed to measure organisational commitment with particular reference to its three dimensions of affective, continuance and normative commitment. The OCQ comprises items that test or measure each of these dimensions (Lumley, 2009). The OCQ was thus deemed the most appropriate tool for the current study.

5.2.3.3. Description of the OCQ

A combination of the Meyer and Allen's (1990) and (1993) versions were used in this study with the scale containing 24 items. It is categorised into a set of three subscales aligned to the three dimensions of the Three-Component Model of Organisational Commitment, that is, affective, continuance and normative commitment. The affective and continuance commitment items are from the original version of the OCQ, while the normative items are from the revised version. Participants are expected to respond to each of the items regarding how true the statements are on a seven-point Likert scale. These statements range from strongly disagree to strongly agree and are intended to ascertain participants' thoughts or position on affective, normative and continuance commitment.

Meyer and Allen (1997) described each subscale as follows:

- *Affective commitment (AC)*. An employee has an emotional attachment to an organisation and identification and involvement with it. These employees therefore remain in the organisation because they feel like staying.
- *Continuance commitment (CC)*. This type of commitment or the need to stay is based on the cost of leaving the organisation.
- *Normative commitment (NC)*. Here commitment is based on feelings of self-obligation towards the organisation.

5.2.3.4. Administration of the OCQ

Participants complete the questionnaire using clear instructions and there is no time limit. In the original questionnaire affective commitment comprises eight items and continuance commitment nine items, respectively, and in the revised version, normative commitment has six items. Participants respond to each item/statement reflecting their perceived notions of organisational commitment using a seven-point

Likert scale (ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree) with the higher scores reflecting a stronger feeling.

The seven-point Likert scale contains statements set out below. The respondent

(1) strongly disagrees with the statement/item
(2) disagrees with the statement/item
(3) sometimes disagrees with the statement/item
(4) is neutral about the statement/item
(5) sometimes agrees with the statement/item
(6) agrees with the statement/item
(7) strongly agrees with the statement/item

Table 5.6 provides a breakdown of the OCQ.

Table 5.6
Breakdown of the OCQ

Subscale	Items linked to subscale	Example	Reversed scoring (R)
Affective commitment (AC)	1 to 8	"I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organisation"	5, 6, 8
Continuance commitment (CC)	9 to 17	"I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up"	9, 12
Normative commitment (NC)	18 to 24	"I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer"	18

Note: Reversed items extracted from (Meyer & Allen, 2004).

Each of the subscales comprises certain items that have reverse scoring and are scored as (1 = 7, 2 = 6, 3 = 5, 4 = 4, 5 = 3, 7 = 1). This implies that for reverse scoring, a score of 1 means the strongest feeling about the statement. Meyer and Allen (2004) built reverse scoring into the survey to prevent respondents from providing affirmative responses to all items regardless of their true feelings about a statement.

Scoring is done per subscale, summing up scores as rated using the Likert scale (taking into account the reverse scoring indicated in the preceding paragraph). In the current study, data analytical methods were used to determine correlations and regressions between the commitment scores and the variables.

5.2.3.5. Interpretation of the OCQ

In this questionnaire the subscales of affective, continuance and normative commitment are measured separately. To this end, it is possible to ascertain the

perceptions of the participants in respect of their feelings about the three types of commitment.

As the choice of numbering increases, this implies that the respondent finds the statement to be true or more applicable to him or her (Lumley, 2009). Hence the subscale with the highest score denotes the respondent's key commitment subscale or type of commitment applicable to him or her.

5.2.3.6. Validity and reliability of the OCQ

Jabaar's (2017), studies demonstrated reliability and validity for the affective, continuance and normative commitment scales. This was further demonstrated by Meyer and Allen (1997), who reported internal consistency of 0.85 (affective commitment), 0.79 (continuance commitment), 0.73 (normative commitment) and 0.70 (organisational commitment scale). The internal reliability statistics for the studies conducted by Coetzee et al. (2007) were 0.82 for affective commitment, 0.74 for continuance commitment and 0.83 for normative commitment.

Meyer and Allen (1997) concluded that the OCQ is a valid instrument to measure organisational commitment and therefore useful for research. This conclusion was based on Meyer and Allen's (1997) findings of a correlation between the OCQ and variables that influence organisational commitment (outcome variable), thus concluding that the OCQ demonstrates validity in measuring organisational commitment. The reliability result for the OCQ scale for the current study was 0.76, affective commitment (0.70), continuance commitment (0.76) and normative commitment (0.77), which are rated as good.

5.2.3.7. Justification for choice of the OCQ

Meyer and Allen's (1997) results for internal consistency confirm that the tool is a reliable measure of organisational commitment Hence this tool was regarded as the most appropriate for this study because of its proven reliability and validity by researchers, and the fact that the three subscales of affective, continuance and normative commitment were most suitable for this research.

5.2.4. Biographical questionnaire

The biographical questionnaire was constructed by the researcher and was aligned to the biographical variables of this study, namely age, employment level, gender and race.

5.3. ADMINISTRATION OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

Permission was first obtained from the head of the organisation to conduct the research in the selected public sector organisation. A sample of participants was randomly drawn from the employees in the organisation. Using the organisation's email distribution list, a participation information letter covering the purpose, nature, potential benefits, security of data, withdrawal from research, information on findings, consent to participate form, biographical questionnaire and the three measuring instruments (CAAS, COI and OCQ) was emailed to all participants. Printed copies of the questionnaire were also made available to those who requested a printed copy. Participants were asked to return the completed hard copy questionnaires to the appointed field worker/gatekeeper. The gatekeeper placed a box in the foyer for the return of completed questionnaires by those participants who wished to maintain anonymity. The instructions regarding place and time were contained in the information letter and email.

5.4. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The principles underlying research ethics, according to Welman et al. (2008), include the following:

- plagiarism and honest reporting of results
- respect for the participants' rights
- compliance with the academic institution's code of ethics, including receipt of ethical clearance
- ethical considerations during the recruitment of participants
- ethical considerations during the intervention or exposure to the measurement instrument
- ethical considerations when the results are released
- no harm to the participants
- the right of participants to participate of their own free will
- maintaining professionalism and confidentiality throughout

The ethical considerations followed in this study were as follows:

- Permission was first obtained from the head of the institution to conduct the research in the selected public sector organisation.
- Ethical clearance was obtained from the Ethics Research Committee regarding the entire study, with particular reference to the research approach and procedure.
- A participation information letter covering the purpose, nature, potential benefits, security of data, and withdrawal from research, information on findings, consent to participate form, biographical questionnaire and the three measuring instruments (the CAAS, COI and OCQ) were distributed, and the completed questionnaires were returned by participants.
- The issue of maintaining the anonymity of the participants was upheld by them not divulging any of their personal details such as their names.
- Confidentiality statements were made in the information letter to participants.
- Participants were given the option to place their completed questionnaires in a box provided by the appointed field worker.
- Potential participants were informed that their participation was completely voluntary.

5.5. SCORING OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT

A Microsoft Excel spreadsheet was created and the responses per item for the measuring instrument/scale/questionnaire were recorded horizontally (each column) per participant. The services of a statistician were elicited to import this data into the statistical program, Statistical Package for Social Sciences or SPSS (SPSS Tutorials, n.d.). Data analysis aligned to the hypotheses of this study was conducted using this package with the intention of determining the relationships between the different variables.

5.6. STATISTICAL PROCESSING OF DATA

Firstly, the Cronbach coefficient alpha was determined for each of the measuring instruments (the CAAS, COI and OCQ) to establish the reliability of the instruments. The general frequency output data (mean and standard deviation) was then determined for the CAAS, COI and OCQ for the purposes of further statistical calculations. Secondly, the correlation statistical procedure (Pearson’s product-

moment correlation coefficient) was then applied to calculate the strength and direction of the relationship between the variables. The inferential tests (, T-tests and analysis of variance [ANOVA) were applied to test the hypothesis. The T-tests and ANOVA were applied to determine whether age, employment, gender and race groups differed significantly in terms of the constructs measured.

5.6.1. Descriptive statistics

According to Welman et al. (2008), descriptive statistics refer to a summary of data obtained for the units of data analysed. The descriptive statistics calculated in this study are described below.

5.6.1.1. Cronbach alpha coefficient

Reliability, according to Blanche et al. (2006), refers to internal consistency, which is described as the correlation between items of a scale. The Cronbach alpha coefficient is used to determine the reliability of a measuring instrument. This ensures that the test yields similar test results if administered at a different time in a different study (Lumley, 2009). The Cronbach alpha coefficient measures the internal consistency of the instrument in that it assesses whether all the items of the instrument measure the same construct (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). The alpha reading is between 0 and 1, and for internal consistency it should be ≥ 0.70. It is essential for internal consistency to be determined before a test is administered (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). The guidelines provided by Manerikar and Manerikar (2015) were used to interpret the correlations in this study. The Cronbach alpha rating guide is provided in table 5.8 which was used in this section to determine the strength of the consistency of the scales. The generally accepted limit is 0.7 (Jain & Angural, 2017; Robinson et al., 2019). However, in exploratory research it may decrease to .6, which is acceptable (Manerikar & Manerikar, 2015; Robinson et al., 2019). Table 5.7 provides a breakdown of the Cronbach alpha rating guide.

Table 5.7
Cronbach Alpha Rating Scale

Cronbach's alpha	Internal consistency
$\alpha \geq .9$	Excellent (high-stakes testing)
$.7 = \alpha < .9$	Good (low-stakes testing)
$.6 = \alpha < .7$	Acceptable
$.5 = \alpha < .6$	Poor
$\alpha < .5$	Unacceptable

Source: Extracted from Manerikar & Manerikar (2015).

The above table indicates the Cronbach alpha ratings and categorisation from excellent to unacceptable internal consistency.

5.6.1.2. Means and standard deviations

The descriptive statistics calculated in this study were the means (to calculate the average of a set of scores), frequencies (to determine the distribution of the biographical data used to describe the sample population) and standard deviation (to measure the spread of the scores, that is, the larger the spread, the further the scores are from the mean).

5.6.1.3 Skewness and kurtosis

Skewness focuses on the equilibrium or symmetry of a data set, while kurtosis refers to the extent of which the data set is tailed (Nist/Sematech, n.d.). If the tails are heavy, then this means high kurtosis, and if the tails are low this means low kurtosis (Nist/Sematech, n.d.). A normal distribution curve has a skewness of 0 and kurtosis of 3 (Nist/Sematch, n.d.).

5.6.2. Correlational statistics: Pearson product correlation coefficient

Correlational statistics examine the linear relationships between variables without exploring the effect of one variable on another, and they can reflect positive and negative relationships (Bekwa et al., 2019). This correlational measure helped the researcher to understand the relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment.

According to Welman et al. (2008), Pearson's product correlation coefficient (*r*) is a statistical measure that focuses on determining the relationship between variables. The correlation range is between -1.00 and +1.00 (Bekwa et al., 2019). A correlation of 0.00 indicates no correlation, -1.00 a perfect negative correlation and +1.00 a perfect positive correlation (Lumley, 2009).

5.6.3 Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics are used to make inferences about population indices based on corresponding indices obtained from the sample (Welman et al., 2008). Bekwa et al. (2019) postulated that inferential statistics involve making inferences about the population based on the sample that is used.

For the purposes of this study, t-test analysis and the analysis of variances test were used.

5.6.3.1 Test of differences between mean scores

The T-test analysis and ANOVA are used to determine significant statistical differences between the mean and distribution of samples (Welman et al., 2008). ANOVA, according to Blanche et al. (2009) is used when the difference in mean scores between more than two groups is analysed. The ANOVA F-test is used to determine the difference in means between several groups (Lumley, 2009). In this study, the T-test was used to test the difference between the mean scores between two groups in respect of gender, while ANOVA was used to determine whether there were significant differences in respect of age, employment level and race in relation to career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment.

5.6.4 Statistical significance level

Bekwa et al. (2019) explained the statistical significance level as the amount of risk taken to reject a null hypothesis that might be true. A null hypothesis means that there is no relationship between the variables (Bekwa et al., 2019). Failure to reject the null hypothesis when it is true results in a Type 1 error.

5.6.4.1 Statistical significance level of Pearson's product correlation

According to Frost (n.d.), the significance level is represented by *p*-level and provides an indication of how strong the evidence is before the null hypothesis is rejected. For example, a significance level of 0.05 represents a 5% possibility of existing differences.

Frost (n.d.) further explained that in order to determine the hypotheses that correlate with the data, the significance level is compared with the *p*-value (calculated probability). The null hypothesis is rejected if the *p*-value is less than the level of significance, meaning that evidence in the study is strong enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Where statistically significant relationships are found between the correlation coefficients, *r*-values (equal to correlation magnitude) are interpreted according to the following guidelines (Cohen, 1988):

$r \geq 0.10$ (small practical effect)
$r \geq 0.30$ (medium practical effect)

$r \geq 0.50$ (large practical effect)

Based on the sample size in this study, the significance level of $p \leq 0.05$ was chosen as the cut-off point for rejecting the null hypothesis.

Pearson's correlation coefficient is used to determine the strength of a relationship between two variables (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013). This coefficient measures how far the scores lie from the regression line and is denoted by the symbol "r".

5.6.4.2 Statistical significance level of ANOVA

General significance associated with the one-way ANOVA is indicated as the probability associated with the F-statistic. The analysis is only significant and valid if the probability associated with the analysis is less than $p < 0.05$.

5.6.4.3 Type I and Type II error

According to Welman et al. (2008), when working with the null and alternative hypotheses, Type I and Type II errors may occur. A Type I error occurs when a decision is taken that something is false, when it is in fact not correct, while in the case of a Type II error, the researcher decides that two variables are not related, which is in fact not correct (Welman et al., 2008). Tredoux and Durrheim (2013) stated that a Type I error occurs when the null hypothesis is rejected. However, the null hypothesis is correct or true, and a Type II error occurs when the null hypothesis is accepted even though it is incorrect or false. A Type I error was prevented in this study by setting a low level of significance at 0.05. A Type II was prevented by ensuring that an adequate sample size was used in the study. Furthermore, a confidence level of 95% was used to determine the sample size (confidence level indicates that the percentage showing the population's correct mean average).

5.7. FORMULATION OF THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

According to Welman et al. (2008), a hypothesis is an assumption of the relationship between the constructs or variables under investigation. Walliman (2014) posited that if an assumption is incorrect in a study/investigation, then that assumption can be rejected. By contrast, if an assumption is supported (the reasoning is likely to be correct) based on the investigation, then that assumption is accepted.

In the literature review chapters, the central research hypothesis was formulated to determine whether a relationship exists between career adaptability, career anchors

and organisational commitment. The following research hypotheses were formulated with a view to achieving the empirical objectives of the study and meeting the criteria for the formulation of hypotheses:

H_0: There is no significant relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment.

H_1: There is a significant relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment.

H_0: Individuals from different age, gender, employment level and race groups do not differ significantly with regard to career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment.

H_2: Individuals from different age, gender, employment level and race groups differ significantly with regard to career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment.

These research hypotheses were tested by means of descriptive, correlation and inferential statistics, the results of which are explained in detail in chapter 6.

5.8. CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter commenced with an overview of the study's population sample. The measuring instruments, data collection process, administration of the measuring instruments and data analysis were discussed. The chapter concluded with the formulation of the hypotheses relating to the study.

Chapter 6 covers the data analysis, interpretation and integration of the empirical findings.

CHAPTER 6

RESEARCH RESULTS

The aim of this chapter is to present and discuss the results of the various statistical analyses that were conducted to test the hypotheses formulated for this research. Steps 7 and 8 of the empirical investigations are discussed in this chapter. The results of the empirical research are presented in tables and figures. Descriptive statistics, correlational analysis and inferential statistics were applied to achieve the research objectives. The inferential statistics used were independent t-tests and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). This chapter commences with a discussion of the descriptive statistics of the constructs (reliability, means, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis) followed by correlational and inferential statistics (comparative analysis using independent t-tests and ANOVA). The chapter concludes with a summary.

6.1. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

6.1.1. Reliability statistics: Cronbach alpha coefficients

This section deals with reliability, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis descriptive statistics. The statistical implications of the statistics are also explained.

6.1.1.1. Career Adapt-Abilities (CAAS)

The Cronbach alpha results are reflected for each of the subscales of the CAAS. The total number of items in this scale was 24, with a total sample participation of (N = 158). The Cronbach alpha coefficient scores ranged from 0.84 to 0.92, as indicated in table 6.1. The total Cronbach alpha coefficient for the CAAS was 0.96, which was deemed excellent for the current study, using the scale in table 5.7.

Internal reliability is good when the coefficient alpha (α) is equal to 0.7, but less than 0.9, as per table 5.8. The data for this study in relation to table 6.1 reflects good internal reliability for the CAAS subscales of concern (0.86), control (0.84) and curiosity (0.88). A coefficient alpha greater or equal to 0.9 is deemed excellent (table 5.7). The internal reliability for confidence (0.92) reflects excellent reliability. Since the Cronbach alpha coefficients indicated good and excellent, there was no need to conduct an item analysis by removing any items to test whether there was an improvement in the reliability of the subscales. The reliabilities are depicted in table 6.1.

Table 6.1
Reliability Data for the CAAS, COI, OCQ

Sub-scales	No. of items per subscale	Cronbach's alpha	Acceptable level
CAAS sub-scales			
Career concern	6	0.86	Good
Career control	6	0.84	Good
Career curiosity	6	0.88	Good
Career confidence	6	0.92	Excellent
CAAS total scale reliability	24	0.96	Excellent
COI subscales			
Technical/functional (TF)	5	0.63	Acceptable
General management (GM)	5	0.75	Good
Entrepreneurial/ creativity (EC)	5	0.82	Good
Lifestyle (LS)	5	0.66	Acceptable
Autonomy/independence (AU)	5	0.69	Acceptable
Security/stability (SE)	5	0.80	Good
Service dedication to a cause (SV)	5	0.75	Good
Pure challenge (CH)	5	0.81	Good
COI total scale reliability	40	0.93	Excellent
OCQ subscales			
Affective commitment (AC)	8	0.70	Good
Continuance commitment (CC)	9	0.76	Good
Normative commitment (NC)	7	0.77	Good
OCQ total scale reliability	24	0.76	Good

Note: N=158

The item reliability indicated that this was a reliable measuring instrument to measure career adaptability in this study - hence the inclusion of all the items.

6.1.1.2. Career Orientations Inventory (COI)

Cronbach alpha coefficient results are provided for each of the eight subscales of the COI in table 6.1 above. The total number of items was 40, with a total sample of (N = 158). The Cronbach alpha coefficient scores ranged from 0.63 to 0.82. The total Cronbach alpha coefficient for the COI scale was 0.93, which was considered excellent for this study, (see table 5.7). The statistical data in table 6.1 indicate mostly acceptable to excellent reliabilities for all subscales with the subscales of pure challenge, service/dedication to a cause, entrepreneurial/creativity, security/stability and general

management registering good reliabilities. However, the reliabilities for lifestyle (0.66), autonomy/independence (0.69) and technical/functional (0.63) were acceptable.

The item reliability data therefore indicated that this was a reliable measuring instrument to measure career adaptability in this study – hence the inclusion of all the items.

6.1.1.3. Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

Cronbach alpha coefficient results are provided for each of the three subscales for the OCQ in table 6.1. The total number of items was 24, with a total sample of (N = 158). The Cronbach alpha coefficient scores ranged from 0.70 to 0.77. The total Cronbach alpha coefficient for the COI was 0.76 and which was deemed good for the current study. The Cronbach coefficient alpha results were good at 0.7 to 0.8 and acceptable for the range 0.6 to 0.7 as per table 5.7. The internal reliability for the study according to table 6.1 indicated acceptable internal reliability for affective commitment (0.70), continuance commitment (0.76) and normative commitment (0.77).

The item reliability data therefore indicated that this was a reliable measuring instrument to measure organisational commitment in this study – hence the inclusion of all the items.

6.1.2. Means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis

This section provides the results and analysis of results of the means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis for the three measuring instruments (CAAS, COI and OCQ) used in this study. The means (determining the average score), standard deviations (spread of the scores), skewness (the data set's symmetry) and kurtosis (the data set's degree of being tailed) are also reported on as these statistical methods formed the basis of the results and findings of this research study.

6.1.2.1. Career Adapt-Abilities (CAAS)

To determine the mean score, all scores per subscale were added and the total divided by the number of items (6) in the subscale. The CAAS scale ranged from 1 (not strong) to 5 (strongest). The midpoint of 3 indicated that the overall respondents' preference was at least strong. Table 6.2 provides the descriptive data in relation to minimum score, maximum score, mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis for the CAAS subscales.

Table 6.2

Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for the CAAS, COI and OCQ

Subscales	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
CAAS subscales						
Career curiosity	2.17	5.00	3.93	0.65	-0.106	-0.603
Career concern	1.80	5.00	3.98	0.70	-0.317	-0.594
Career control	2.33	5.00	3.94	0.64	0.067	-0.881
Career confidence	2.67	5.00	4.16	0.64	-0.289	-0.785
CAAS	2.79	5.00	4.00	0.57	0.009	-0.845
COI subscales						
Technical/functional (TF)	2.00	6.00	4.29	0.84	-0.155	-0.443
General management (GM)	1.20	6.00	3.49	1.05	0.068	-0.377
Autonomy/ independence (AU)	1.60	6.00	3.96	0.91	-0.226	-0.483
Security/stability (SE)	1.00	6.00	4.38	1.07	-0.564	-0.052
Entrepreneurial/ creativity (EC)	1.40	6.00	4.08	1.16	-0.212	-0.817
Service/dedication to a cause (SV)	1.80	6.00	4.54	0.91	-0.293	-0.581
Pure challenge (CH)	1.60	6.00	4.45	0.93	-0.434	-0.076
Lifestyle (LS)	1.80	6.00	4.51	0.85	-0.419	0.094
COI scale	2.15	5.90	4.21	0.70	-0.218	-0.145
OCQ subscales						
Affective commitment (AC)	1.38	6.13	4.22	0.95	-0.366	-0.027
Continuance commitment (CC)	1.78	6.78	4.27	1.05	-0.014	-0.027
Normative commitment (NC)	1.00	7.00	3.78	1.10	0.216	-0.034
OCQ	2.22	6.13	4.12	0.72	-0.06	-0.0244

Note: N = 158

According to table 6.2, the range of the mean score was 3.93 to 4.16. The highest score obtained was career confidence (*M* = 4.16; *SD* = 0.64), while the lowest score was career curiosity (*M* = 3.93; *SD* = 0.65). The standard deviations ranged from 0.57 to 0.70, with a minimal difference between career confidence and career curiosity. The respondents' preferences were strong for all the subscales, with the most preference for career confidence. The values are within an acceptable range for normal distribution.

6.1.2.2. Career Orientations Inventory (COI)

To determine the mean score, all the scores for each subscale were added, and the total divided by the number of items (5) in the subscale. The scale ranged from 1 (statement never true for me) to 6 (statement is always true for me). A mean of 4 and above meant at least the statement was often true. Table 6.2 provides the descriptive data in relation to the minimum score, maximum score, mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis for the COI subscales. The values are within an acceptable range for normal distribution. According to table 6.2, the range of the mean scores was between 3.49 and 4.54. The highest score obtained was service/dedication to a cause (*M* = 4.54; *SD* = 0.91), while the lowest score was career general management (*M* = 3.49; *SD* = 1.05). The standard deviation ranged from 0.70 to 1.16 with a minimal difference in standard deviation scores between the subscales. All the scales had means indicating that the statement occurred at least often (approximately 4 or more), except for general management (GM) with a mean score of 3.49. It can be concluded that for general management the respondents indicated that it is occasionally true.

6.1.2.3. Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

The scale ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). A mean of at least 6 indicated that the respondents agreed. Table 6.2 provides the descriptive data in relation to the minimum scores, maximum scores, means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis for the OCQ subscales. The values are within an acceptable range for normal distribution. According to table 6.2, the range of the mean scores was 3.78 to 4.27. The highest score obtained was for continuance commitment (*M* = 4.27; *SD* = 1.05), while the lowest score was for normative commitment (*M* = 3.78; *SD* = 1.10). The standard deviation ranged between 0.72 and 1.10, which indicated a minimal difference in standard deviation scores between subscales. All the scales had means close to 4, indicating that the respondents were neutral – that is, they neither disagreed nor agreed on issues pertaining to organisational commitment. The validity of the OCQ instrument correlated with the original Allen and Meyer (1990) OCQ questionnaire, therefore validity was not tested.

6.2. CORRELATIONAL ANALYSIS

Correlational analysis was used to determine the relationship between the constructs in order to answer the postulated hypothesis in this study. The Pearson product-moment correlation (*r*) was used to determine the direction and the strength of the relationship between each of the variables as the data was normally distributed. The

interpretations of the correlation were assessed using the guideline proposed by Cohen (1988) as reflected in table 6.3.

Table 6.3
Cohen's Interpretation of r

Correlation	Interpretation
$r \leq 0.1$	Small practical effect size
$0.3 \leq r \leq 0.49$	Medium practical effect size
$r \geq 0.5$	Large practical effect size

Source: Adapted from Cohen, 1988

Laerd Statistics (n.d.) and Mcleod (2019) provided a further interpretation of *r.* The strength of association for a small practical effect size is positive: 0.1 to 0.3 or negative: -0.1 to 0.3. The strength of association for a medium practical effect size is positive: 0.3 to 0.5 or negative: -0.3 to -0.5. The strength of association for a large practical effect size is positive: 0.5 to 1.0 or negative: -0.5 to -1.0.

The Pearson correlation coefficient was also used to examine the relationship between career adaptability and organisational commitment, career anchors and organisational commitment and career anchors and career adaptability. The correlations between the variables are reflected in table 6.4 and are discussed in the subsections below.

Table 6.4
Pearson's Product-Moment Correlations (CAAS & OCQ), (COI & OCQ), (COI & CAAS)

CAAS AND OCQ Item	**AC**	**CC**	**NC**	**OCQ**
Career concern	.054	-.206**	-.024	-.101
Career control	.093	-.073	.031	.017
Career curiosity	-.023	-.186*	-.046	-.133
Career confidence	.168*	-.171*	.106	.024
CAAS	.083	-.185*	.018	-.057
COI AND OCQ Item	**AC**	**CC**	**NC**	**OCQ**
Technical/functional (TF)	.021	-.158*	.059	-.056
General management (GM)	-.037	-.017	.050	-.007
Entrepreneurial/creativity (EC)	-.082	-.103	-.120	-.144
Lifestyle (LS)	.014	-.038	-.047	-.033
Autonomy/independence (AU)	-.098	-.154	-.106	-.175*
Security/stability (SE)	.030	.146	.170*	.166*
Service/dedication to a Cause (SV)	-.013	-.100	-.021	-.072

Pure challenge (CH)	.110	-.002	.022	.056
COI scale	-.014	-.068	.001	-.044

COI AND CAAS Item	Career concern	Career control	Career curiosity	Career confidence	CAAS
Technical/functional (TF)	.343***	.252**	.343***	.356***	.375***
General management (GM)	.265**	.237**	.330**	.235**	.310**
Entrepreneurial/creativity (EC)	.405**	.267**	.418**	.216**	.378**
Lifestyle (LS)	.290**	.216**	.342**	.195*	.301**
Autonomy/independence (AU)	.360**	.204*	.395**	.156	.325**
Security/stability (SE)	.187*	.164*	.270**	.195*	.235**
Service/dedication to a cause (SV)	.309**	.270**	.243**	.300**	.324**
Pure challenge (CH)	.291**	.263**	.323**	.364**	.359**
COI scale	.421**	.321**	.459**	.341**	.446**

Note: N = 158
Key: *p < .05 practically significant; **p < .01 statistically highly significant;
***p < .001 statistically highly significant

6.2.1. Reporting of Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients (CAAS & OCQ)

The correlational statistical data set out in table 6.4 shows a weak negative correlation between career concern and continuance commitment (r = -.206, p < 0.01); career curiosity and continuance commitment (r = -.186, p < 0.05); career confidence and continuance commitment (r = -.171, p < 0.05); career adaptabilities (CAAS) and continuance commitment (r = -.185, p < 0.05), and a weak positive correlation between career confidence and affective commitment (r = .168, p < 0.05). High values in career concern, curiosity and confidence are associated with low values in continuance commitment, while high values in career confidence are associated with high values in affective commitment. The results indicate that because the significant correlations were of low effect, the career adaptability and organisational commitment variables demonstrated a low-effect relationship.

6.2.2. Reporting of Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients (COI & OCQ)

The correlation statistical data contained in table 6.4 demonstrates a significant but weak correlation between certain dimensions of career anchors and organisational commitment. There was no significant correlation between affective commitment and career anchors. There was a weak negative correlation between technical/functional and continuance commitment (r = - .158, p < 0.5) and a weak positive correlation between security/stability and normative commitment (r = .170, p < 0.5).

High values in technical/functional were associated with low values in continuance commitment, while high values in security/stability were associated with high values in normative commitment. There was a weak negative correlation between autonomy/independence and organisational commitment (r = -.175, p < 0.5) and a weak positive correlation between security /stability and organisational commitment (r = .166, p < 0.5). High values in organisational commitment were associated with low values in autonomy/independence and high values in security/stability. The significant correlations were of low effect. The correlations between career anchors and organisational commitment were generally statistically insignificant and low (small) in effect size.

6.2.3. Reporting of Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients (CAAS & COI)

The correlational statistical data in table 6.4 demonstrates a significant positive correlation between career anchors and career adaptability. The only correlation that was not significant was that between autonomy/independence career anchor and career confidence. A moderate positive correlation of more than 0.4 was recorded between entrepreneurial/creativity career anchor and career concern (r = .405, p < 0.01); entrepreneurial/creativity career anchor and career curiosity (r = .418, p < 0.01); career concern and the overall career anchor scale (r = .421, p < 0.01); career curiosity and the overall career anchor scale (r = .459, p < 0.01); and career adaptability and the overall career anchor scale (r = .446, p < 0.01). High values in career anchor were associated with high values in career adaptability. Hence, if there are high values in career adaptability in an organisation, then they will be linked to high values in career anchors.

6.3. INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

Inferential statistics are concerned with using samples to infer something about populations. T-tests and ANOVAs were performed to examine whether the biographical groups (age, employment level, gender and race) differed significantly on their mean scores with regard to the variables of concern to this study.

An independent sample t-test was conducted to determine whether individuals of different gender groups differed in terms of career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment, and ANOVA was used to determine whether individuals differed in terms of age, employment level and race. The two inferential tests, the

independent t-tests and ANOVA have three assumptions, namely the observations must be independent of each other, they should come from a normally distributed population and the variance across groups should be equal (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2017).

In this study, the assumption of independence was achieved in that the employees were independent. The third assumption on equality of variances across the groups was tested using the Levene's test of homogeneity of variance. If the test was violated for the independent t-tests, then statistics under equal variances not assumed were presented. In terms of the ANOVA, if the variances across groups were equal, then the traditional ANOVA test was used, and if the variances across groups were not equal, then the Welch robust test of equality of means was utilised to determine whether means across groups differed.

If the means were not the same, then post hoc tests were conducted to determine which groups differed. The Tukey HSD post hoc test was used when the variances across groups were equal, and the Games-Howell test was used in instances where the variances were not equal. All the tests were performed at the 5% level of significance, and a p-value of less than 0.05 led to the conclusion that the means were different. If the p-value was greater than 0.05, then the means across the groups were the same, indicating that there was homogeneity across groups. This suggested that the respondents did not differ in respect of career adaptability, career anchor and organisational commitment.

6.3.1. Reporting the difference in mean scores for the age groups for the CAAS scale

Levene's test for equality of variance showed that all the scales had equal variance across age groups, as indicated in table 6.5. The test for equality of means showed that there was a difference in mean scores for career concern, career curiosity and the CAAS scale.

Table 6.5
ANOVA Test to Compare Mean Scores by Age for the CAAS scale

CAAS scale	Levene's test for equality of variance		Test for equality of means	
	F	***p-value***	***F***	***p-value***
Career concern	.344	.79	7.486	<.001
Career control	.647	.58	1.330	.267
Career curiosity	.286	.83	4.350	.006

Career confidence	.260	.85	1.959	.123
CAAS scale	.465	.70	4.251	.006

The ANOVA revealed no significant difference in mean scores across age groups for career control and career confidence. There was a difference across age groups for the career adaptability variables of career concern, career curiosity and the overall CAAS scale.

The results of the ANOVA showed that career concern was practically significant across age groups (F (3.154) = 7.486, $p < 0.001$). A large effect size of .13 ($\eta^2 = .13$) was obtained. Approximately 13% of the total variation in career concern was accounted for by age group. The Tukey HSD procedures indicated that there were two homogeneous groups as depicted in table 6.6.

Table 6.6
Tukey HSD Homogeneous Group for Career Concern, Career Curiosity and CAAS by Age Group

Age	N	Tukey HSD Subset for alpha = 0.05		Standard deviation
		1	2	
Career Concern				
50 – 65	18	3.3926		0.66
40 – 49	35		3.8667	0.59
30 – 39	78		4.0714	0.66
18 – 29	27		4.2827	0.75
Career Curiosity				
50 – 65	18	3.5370		0.70
40 – 49	35	3.7810	3.7810	0.62
30 – 39	78		4.0056	0.64
18 – 29	27		4.1420	0.59
CAAS				
50 – 65	18	3.6277		0.56
40 – 49	35	3.9051	3.9051	0.52
30 – 39	78		4.0867	0.57
18 – 29	27		4.1395	0.54

The mean scores for those aged between 18 and 29 (M = 4.28, SD = 0.75) , 30 to 39 (M = 4.07, SD = 0.66) and 40 to 49 (M = 3.87, SD = 0.59) were significantly higher than the mean score for those aged between 50 and 65 years (M = 3.39, SD = 0.66). This implies that individuals from the younger age group (18–29) scored higher for career concern than individuals from the older age groups (30–39, 40–49 and 50–65).

The ANOVA results revealed that career curiosity differed across the different age groups. The 18 to 29 age group scored significantly higher than the other age groups for career curiosity. A moderate effect size of .08 ($\eta^2 = .08$) was obtained. Approximately 8% of the total variance in career curiosity was accounted for by age. The Tukey HSD procedures showed that there were two homogeneous groups, as depicted in table 6.6.

The mean scores for those aged between 18 and 29 (*M* = 4.14, *SD* = 0.59) and 30 and 39 (*M* = 4.01, *SD* = 0.64) were significantly higher than the mean score for those aged between 50 and 65 (*M* = 3.54, *SD* = 0.70). The mean score for those aged between 40 and 49 (*M* = 3.78, *SD* = 0.62) was not significantly different from the other age groups and therefore belonged to both homogeneous groups. This implies that the respondents' career curiosity was stronger for the younger age group (18–29 years) than respondents from the older age groups (30–39, 40–49 and 50–65).

The ANOVA results indicated that the effect of age group on the CAAS was statistically significant (*F* (3.154) = 4.251, *p* = 0.006). A medium effect size of .08 ($\eta^2 = .08$) was obtained. Approximately 8% of the total variation in the CAAS was accounted for by race. The Tukey HSD procedures showed that there were two homogeneous groups as depicted in table 6.6.

The mean scores for those aged between 18 and 29 (*M* = 4.14, *SD* = 0.54) and 30 and 39 (*M* = 4.09, *SD* = 0.57) were significantly higher than the mean score for those aged between 50 and 65 (*M* = 3.63, *SD* = 0.56). The mean score for those aged between 40 and 49 (*M* = 3.91, *SD* = 0.52) was not significantly different from the mean score of the other age groups and belonged to both homogeneous groups. The respondents' CAAS was higher for the younger age group (18–29 years and 30–39) than the older age group (50–65).

6.3.2. Reporting the difference in mean scores for the age groups for the COI scale

Levene's test for equality of variance showed that all the scales had equal variance across groups. The test for equality of means indicated that there was a difference in mean scores for the technical/functional (TF), general management (GM), entrepreneurial/creativity (EC), autonomy/independence (AU) career anchors and the COI scale.

Table 6.7
ANOVA Test to Compare the Mean Scores by Age Group for the COI Scale

COI scale	Levene's test for equality of variance		Test for equality of means	
	F	*p-value*	*F*	*p-value*
Technical/functional (TF)	1.151	.330	3.109	.028
General management (GM)	1.260	.290	3.856	.011
Entrepreneurial/creativity (EC)	.752	.523	7.015	*p*<.001
Lifestyle (LS)	2.334	.076	2.086	.104
Autonomy/independence (AU)	.981	.404	5.129	.002
Security/stability (SE)	.562	.641	.620	.603
Service/dedication to a cause (SV)	1.851	.140	1.591	.194
Pure challenge (CH)	.658	.579	.992	.398
COI scale	1.994	.117	4.258	.006

The F-tests showed no significant difference in mean scores across the age groups for the lifestyle, security/stability, service/dedication to a cause and pure challenge career anchors. However, there were significant differences across age groups for the technical/functional, general management, entrepreneurial/creativity, autonomy/ independence career anchors, and the overall COI scale, as indicated in table 6.8.

Table 6.8
Tukey-HSD Homogeneous Group for Technical/Functional (TF), General Management (GM), Entrepreneurial/Creativity (EC), Autonomy/Independence (AU) and COI by Age Group

Age	N	Tukey HSD Subset for alpha = 0.05			Standard deviation
		1	2	3	
Technical/Functional					
50 – 65	18	3.9111			0.91
40 – 49	35	4.2571	4.2571		0.73
30 – 39	78	4.2641	4.2641		0.87
18 – 29	27		4.6556		0.72
General Management					
50 – 65	18	2.8778			1.12
40 – 49	35	3.4500	3.4500		1.14
30 – 39	78	3.4917	3.4917		0.93
18 – 29	27		3.9315		1.04
Entrepreneurial/Creativity					
50 – 65	18	3.2667			1.29
40 – 49	35	3.7143	3.7143		1.12
30 – 39	78		4.2654	4.2654	1.05
18 – 29	27			4.5556	1.06
Autonomy/ Independence					

	50 – 65	18	3.3944			0.98
	40 – 49	35	3.7971	3.7971		0.92
	30 – 39	78		4.0103	4.0103	0.88
	18 – 29	27			4.3926	0.76
COI						
	50 – 65	18	3.7481			0.85
	40 – 49	35	4.1752	4.1752		0.71
	30 – 39	78		4.2439		0.63
	18 – 29	27		4.4798		0.65

The results of the ANOVA showed that there was a statistically significant difference with regard to technical/functional for the four age groups ($F(3, 154) = 3.109, p = .028$). The effect size calculated was .06 ($\eta^2 = .06$), which was a small effect. About 6% of the total variability in technical/functional was accounted for by age group. The Tukey HSD procedures resulted in two homogeneous groups, as indicated in table 6.8.

The mean score for those aged between 18 and 29 (*M* = 4.66, *SD* = 0.72) was significantly higher than the mean score for those aged between 50 and 65 (*M* = 3.91, *SD* = 0.91). The mean score for those aged between 40 and 49 (*M* = 4.26, *SD* = 0.73) and those aged between 30 and 39 (*M* = 4.26, *SD* = 0.87) was not significantly different from the means of the other age groups. They belonged to both homogeneous groups. The respondent's preference for the technical/functional career anchor subscale was stronger for the younger age groups. ANOVA showed that the age groups differed significantly in respect of the general management career anchor (*F* (3.154) – 3.85, *p* = 0.011). A moderate effect size of .07 ($\eta^2 = .07$) was obtained. Approximately 7% of the total variance in the general management career anchor was explained by the age groups. The Tukey HSD procedures showed two homogeneous groups, as indicated in table 6.8.

The mean scores for those aged between 18 and 29 (*M* = 3.93, *SD* = 1.04) were significantly higher than the mean scores for those aged between 50– 65 (*M* = 2.88, *SD* = 1.12). The mean scores for those aged between 40 and 49 (*M* = 3.45, *SD* = 1.14) and those aged between 30 and 39 (*M* = 3.49, *SD* = 0.93) were not significantly different from the scores for the other age groups. They belonged to both homogeneous groups. The respondents' preference for general management was stronger for the younger age groups.

The ANOVA results showed that the effect of age group on entrepreneurial/creativity was statistically significant (F (3.154) = 7.015, p < 0.001). A moderate effect size of .12 ($\eta^2 = .12$) was obtained. Approximately 12% of the total variation in entrepreneurial/creativity was explained by age group. The Tukey HSD procedures resulted in three homogeneous groups, as set out in table 6.8.

The mean scores for those aged between 18 and 29 (M = 4.56, SD = 1.06) were significantly higher than the mean scores for those aged between 40 and 49 (M = 3.71, SD = 1.12) and those aged between 50 and 65 (M = 3.27, SD = 1.29). The mean scores for those aged between 30 and 39 (M = 4.26, SD = 1.05) were significantly higher than the mean scores for those aged between 50 and 65 (M = 3.27, SD = 1.29). Those aged between 50 and 65 had a similar preference for career anchors to those aged between 40 and 49, who had similar preferences to those aged between 30 and 39, for the entrepreneurial/creativity career anchor. The respondents' preference for entrepreneurial/creativity was stronger for the younger age group (18 to 29) than the older age groups (30 – 39, 40 – 49 and 50 –65).

The ANOVA showed that the effect of age on the autonomy/independence career anchor was statistically significant across age groups (F (3.154) – 5.129, p = 0.002). A moderate effect size of .09 ($\eta^2 = .09$) was obtained. About 9% of the total variation in autonomy/independence was explained by age group. The Tukey HSD procedures showed that there were three homogeneous groups, as indicated in table 6.8.

The mean scores for those aged between 18 and 29 (M = 4.39, SD = 0.76) were significantly higher than the mean scores for those aged between 40 and 49 (M = 3.80, SD = 0.92) and those aged between 50 and 65 (M = 3.39, SD = 0.98). The mean scores for those aged between 30 and 39 (M = 4.01, SD = 0.88) were significantly higher than the mean scores for those aged between 50 and 65r (M = 3.39, SD = 0.98) . Those aged between 50 and 65 had a similar preference for the autonomy/independence career anchor compared to those aged between 40 and 49, who had similar preferences to those aged between 30 and 39 for the autonomy/independence career anchor. The respondents' preference for the autonomy/independence career anchor was therefore stronger for the 18 to 29 age group than the 30 to 39, 40 to 49 and 50 to 65 age groups.

The ANOVA showed that the effect of age groups significantly influenced the overall COI scale (F (3.154) = 4.258, p = 0.006). A moderate effect size of .08 ($\eta^2 = .08$) was

obtained. About 8% of the total variation in the COI was accounted for by age group. Post hoc procedures using the Tukey HSD procedures indicated two homogeneous groups, as indicated in table 6.8.

The mean scores for those aged between 18 and 29 (*M* = 4.48, *SD* = 0.65) and 30 and 39s (*M* = 4.24, *SD* = 0.63) were significantly higher than the mean scores for those aged between 50 and 65 (*M* = 3.75, *SD* = 0.85). The mean scores for those aged between 40 and 49 (*M* = 4.18, *SD* = 0.71) were not significantly different from the means scores for the other age groups and belonged to both homogeneous groups.

6.3.3. Reporting the difference in mean scores for the age groups for the OCQ scale

Levene's test for homogeneity of variance revealed that all the scales had equal variance across the groups except continuance commitment and normative commitment with p-values of .022 and .046 respectively, as shown in table 6.9. In this instance. Welch's robust test for equality of means was used to test for equality of means. There was a difference in mean scores for continuance commitment, normative commitment and the OCQ scale.

Table 6.9
ANOVA Test Comparing the Mean Scores by Age Group for the OCQ Scale

OCQ scale	Levene's test for equality of variance		Test for equality of means	
	F	***p-value***	***F***	***p-value***
Affective commitment (AC)	1.906	.131	.823	.483
Continuance Commitment (CC)	3.313	.022	2.936[b]	.043
Normative Commitment (NC)	2.728	.046	4.925[b]	.004
OCQ Scale	2.649	.051	4.194	.007

[b] Welch Statistic

The F-tests showed no significant difference in mean scores across age groups for affective commitment. There were significant differences in mean scores across age groups for continuance commitment, normative commitment and the OCQ scale.

The Welch robust test of equality of means demonstrated that continuance commitment was statistically significant across age groups ($Welch - F(3, 48.237) = 2.936\ p = .043$). The significance was marginal. A small effect size of .05 ($\omega^2 = .05$) was obtained. Approximately 5% of the total variation in continuance commitment was

accounted for by age groups. The Tukey HSD procedures showed that there was one homogeneous group, as indicated in table 6.10.

Table 6.10
Tukey HSD Homogeneous Group for Continuance Commitment by Age Group

	Q3: Age	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05 1
Tukey HSD	18 – 29	27	3.9712
	30 – 39	78	4.1246
	50 – 65	18	4.6273
	40 – 49	35	4.6385

There was no differentiation in groups as per the post hoc test. However, those respondents aged at 40 and above had a mean close to 5, while those younger than 40 had a mean close to 4. The agreement level seemed to be higher for the older respondents.

The Welch robust test of equality of means showed that the effect of age groups on normative commitment was statistically significant ($Welch - F(3, 49.983) = 4925, p = .004$). A moderate effect size of .07 ($\omega^2 = .07$) was obtained. Approximately 7% of the total variance in normative commitment was accounted for by age group. The Tukey HSD procedures showed that there were two homogeneous groups, as indicated in table 6.11.

Table 6.11
Tukey HSD Homogeneous Group for Normative Commitment and Organisational Commitment (OCQ) by Age Group

Age	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05 1	 2	Standard deviation
Normative Commitment				
18 – 29	27	3.6296		1.39
40 – 49	35	3.6667		1.13
30 – 39	78	3.6748		0.90
50 – 65	18		4.6667	1.03
Organisational Commitment				
18 – 29	27	3.9469		0.84
30 – 39	78	4.0267		0.56
40 – 49	35	4.2187	4.2187	0.78
50 – 65	18		4.6105	0.85

The mean scores for those aged between 18 and 29 (*M* = 3.63, *SD* = 1.39), between 40 and 49 (*M* = 3.67, *SD* = 1.13) and between aged 30 and 39 (*M* = 3.67, *SD* = 0.90) were significantly lower than the means score for those aged between 50 and 65 (*M* =

4.67, *SD* = 1.03). Those aged between 50 and 65 demonstrated greater normative commitment than those in the other age groups.

The ANOVA showed that the effect of age group on the organisational commitment scale was statistically significant ($F(3, 154) = 4.194, p = .007$). A moderate effect size of .08 ($\eta^2 = .08$) was obtained. Approximately 8% of the total variation in the organisational commitment scale was explained by age group. The Tukey HSD procedures showed that there were two homogeneous groups, as indicated in table 6.11.

The mean scores for those aged between 18 and 29 (*M* = 3.95, *SD* = 0.84) and between 30 and 39 (*M* = 4.03, *SD* = 0.56) were significantly higher than the mean scores for those aged between 50 and 65 (*M* = 4.61, *SD* = 0.85). The mean scores for those aged between 40 and 49 (*M* = 4.22, *SD* = 0.78) were not significantly different from the means scores for the other age groups. They belonged to both homogeneous groups. Those aged between 50 and 65 demonstrated greater organisational commitment than those younger than 40.

6.3.4. Reporting difference in mean scores for employment levels for the CAAS scale

Levene's test for equality of variance showed that all the scales had equal variance across employment levels, as shown in table 6.12. The test for equality of means indicated that there was no difference in mean scores across all the variables.

Table 6.12
ANOVA Test to Compare Mean Scores by Race for the CAAS scale

CAAS subscale	Levene's test for equality of variance		Test for equality of means	
	F	***p-value***	***F***	***p-value***
Career concern	0.864	0.487	0.669	0.614
Career control	2.334	0.058	0.166	0.955
Career curiosity	0.688	0.601	1.438	0.224
Career confidence	1.629	0.170	0.324	0.862
CAAS scale	1.169	.327	0.468	0.759

The ANOVA revealed no significant difference in mean scores across the employment levels for career concern, career control, career curiosity, career confidence and the overall CAAS scale.

6.3.5. Reporting difference in mean scores for employment levels for the COI scale

Levene's test for equality of variance showed that all the scales had equal variance across groups except the subscale, autonomy/independence career anchor, with a p-value of .092. The test for equality of means showed that there was a difference in the mean scores for the entrepreneurial/creativity career anchor, as indicated in table 6.13, which provides the mean scores for the COI scale.

Table 6.13
ANOVA to Compare the Mean Scores by Employment Level for the COI Scale

COI subscale	Levene's test for equality of variance		Test for equality of means	
	F	***p-value***	***F***	***p-value***
Technical/functional (TF)	0.868	0.485	0.639	0.635
General management (GM)	1.633	0.169	1.461	0.217
Entrepreneurial/creativity (EC)	0.968	0.427	6.628	$p < .001$
Lifestyle (LS)	1.024	0.397	0.487	0.745
Autonomy/independence (AU)	2.555	0.041	2.095[b]	0.092
Security/stability (SE)	2.372	0.055	0.354	0.841
Service/dedication to a cause (SV)	2.277	0.064	0.925	0.451
Pure challenge (CH)	0.949	0.438	0.929	0.449
COI scale	1.691	0.155	1.242	0.296

The F-tests showed no significant difference in mean scores across employment levels for the technical/functional, general management, lifestyle, autonomy/independence, security/stability, service/dedication to a cause and pure challenge career anchors, and the overall COI scale. However, there was a significant difference across the employment levels for the entrepreneurial/creativity career anchor.

The ANOVA results showed that the effect of employment level on the entrepreneurial/creativity career anchor was statistically significant (*F* (4.152) = 6.628, *p*, 0.001). A large effect size of .15 ($\eta^2 = .15$) was obtained. Approximately 15% of the total variation in the entrepreneurial/creativity career anchor was explained by employment levels. The Tukey HSD procedures resulted in three homogeneous groups, as indicated in table 6.14.

Table 6.14
Tukey HSD Homogeneous Group for Entrepreneurial/Creativity (EC) by Employment Level

		Tukey HSD Subset for alpha = 0.05			Standard deviation
Employment level	**N**	**1**	**2**	**3**	

Senior management	17	3.3059			0.99
Middle management	41	3.8488	3.8488		1.10
Junior management	30	3.9000	3.9000		1.25
Supervisory/officer/ professional	48		4.2574	4.2574	1.08
Clerical/admin	22			4.9455	0.88

The mean scores for clerical/admin staff (*M* = 4.95, *SD* = 0.88) were significantly higher than the mean score for the junior management staff (*M* = 3.90, *SD* = 1.25), middle management staff (*M* = 3.85, *SD* = 1.10) and senior management staff (*M* = 3.31, *SD* = 0.99). The mean scores for those in supervisory/officer/professional positions (*M* = 4.26, *SD* = 1.08) were significantly higher than those in senior management (*M* = 3.31, *SD* = 0.99). The respondents in management positions demonstrated a similar preference for the entrepreneurial/creativity career anchor. The respondents' preference for the entrepreneurial/creativity career anchor was stronger for the clerical/admin staff than those in management.

6.3.6. Reporting difference in mean scores for employment levels for the OCQ scale

Levene's test for equality of variance revealed that all the scales had equal variance across groups as set out in table 6.15. There was difference in mean scores for affective commitment and the OCQ scale.

Table 6.15
ANOVA Test to Compare Mean Scores by Employment level for the OCQ Scale

OCQ subscale	Levene's test for equality of variance		Test for equality of means	
	F	***p-value***	***F***	***p-value***
Affective commitment (AC)	.888	.473	2.639	.036
Continuance commitment (CC)	1.772	.137	1.241	.296
Normative commitment (NC)	1.120	.349	2.214	.070
OCQ scale	1.458	.218	3.328	.012

The one-way ANOVA tests showed no significant difference in mean scores across employment levels for continuance commitment and normative commitment. There were significant differences in mean scores across employment levels for affective commitment and the OCQ scale and therefore employment levels.

The ANOVA showed that affective commitment was statistically significant across employment levels (F (4.151) = 2.639, p = 0.36). A small effect size of .07 ($\eta^2 = .07$)

was obtained. Approximately 7% of the total variation in affective commitment was accounted for by employment levels. The Tukey HSD procedures showed that there were two homogeneous groups, as indicated in table 6.16.

Table 6.16
Tukey HSD Homogeneous Group for Affective Commitment and Organisational Commitment (OCQ) by Employment Level

Employment level	N	Tukey HSD Subset for alpha = 0.05		Standard deviation
		1	2	
Affective Commitment				
Clerical/admin	22	3.8701		0.80
Junior management	30	3.9131		1.15
Supervisory/officer/ professional	48	4.3176	4.3176	0.90
Middle management	41	4.3506	4.3506	0.85
Senior management	16		4.6228	0.98
Organisational Commitment				
Clerical/admin	22	3.7591		0.64
Junior management	30	3.9157	3.9157	0.76
Middle management	41	4.1614	4.1614	0.63
Supervisory/officer/ professional	48		4.3016	0.75
Senior management	17		4.3386	0.69

The mean scores for staff in clerical/admin positions (*M* = 3.87, *SD* = 0.80) and in junior management (*M* = 3.91, *SD* = 1.15) were significantly lower than the mean scores for senior management staff (*M* = 4.62, *SD* = 0.98). Staff in middle management (*M* = 4.35, *SD* = 0.85) and in supervisory/officer/professional positions (*M* = 4.32, *SD*= 0.90) belonged to both groups. Staff in senior management were more in agreement with issues pertaining to on affective commitment than staff in junior management or in clerical/admin.

The ANOVA showed that the effect of employment levels on the organisational commitment scale was statistically significant ($F(4, 152) = 3.328, p = .012$) . A moderate effect size of .08 ($\eta^2 = .08$) was obtained. Approximately 8% of the total variation in the organisational commitment scale could be explained by employment levels. The Tukey HSD procedures showed that there were two homogeneous groups, as indicated in table 6.16.

The mean scores for the clerical/admin participants (*M* = 3.76, *SD* = 0.64) were significantly lower than for the supervisory/officer/professional participants (*M* = 4.30,

SD = 0.75) and senior management participants (*M* = 4.34, *SD* = 0.69). The middle management participants (*M* = 4.16, *SD* = 0.63) and junior management participants (*M* = 3.92, *SD* = 0.76) belonged to both groups. The senior management and supervisory/officer/professional participants demonstrated more organisational commitment than the clerical/admin participants.

6.3.7. Reporting difference in mean scores for gender groups for the CAAS scale

All the scales had equal variance between the males and females because Levene's test of homogeneity of variance resulted in all the p-values being greater than .05, as shown in table 6.17.

Table 6.17
Independent T-Test to compare the mean Scores by Gender for the CAAS Scale

		Group statistics			Levene's test for equality of variances			T-test for equality of means		
Construct	**Gender**	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Equal variance**	**F**	**Sig**	**t-value**	**df**	**Sig (2-tailed p-score)**
Career concern	Female	64	3.912	.725	Assumed	.522	.471	-1.080	156	.282
	Male	94	4.034	.681	Not			-1.067	129.745	.288
Career control	Female	64	3.918	.661	Assumed	.083	.773	-.427	156	.670
	Male	94	3.963	.632	Not			-.423	131.412	.673
Career curiosity	Female	64	3.950	.620	Assumed	1.011	.316	.377	156	.707
	Male	94	3.910	.676	Not			.383	142.884	.702
Career confidence	Female	64	4.083	.622	Assumed	.972	.326	-1.203	156	.231
	Male	94	4.207	.651	Not			-1.214	139.531	.227
CAAS scale	Female	64	3.966	.563	Assumed	.142	.707	-.672	156	.502
	Male	94	4.029	.579	Not			-.676	138.000	.500

All the scales had p-values greater than 0.05 for the test on equality of means, as indicated in table 6.17. The results suggested that there was no difference between males and females regarding career adaptability.

6.3.8. Reporting difference in mean scores for gender groups for the COI scale

All the scales had equal variance between the males and females because Levene's test of homogeneity of variances resulted in all the p-values being greater than 0.05, as shown in table 6.18.

Table 6.18
Independent T-Test to Compare the Mean Scores by Gender for the COI Scale

		Group statistics			Levene's test for equality of variances			T-test for equality of means		
Construct	**Gender**	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Equal variance**	**F**	**Sig**	**t-value**	**df**	**Sig (2-tailed p-score)**
Technical/ functional (TF)	Female	64	4.400	.782	Assumed	.414	.521	1.337	156	.183
	Male	94	4.216	.869	Not			1.364	144.353	.175

General management (GM)	Female	64	3.551	.906	Assumed	4.141	.044	.623	156	.534
	Male	94	3.445	1.138	Not			.650	152.134	.516
Entrepreneurial/ creativity (EC)	Female	64	4.206	1.094	Assumed	1.083	.300	1.138	156	.257
	Male	94	3.993	1.200	Not			1.159	143.305	.249
Lifestyle (LS)	Female	64	4.481	.797	Assumed	.251	.617	-.385	156	.701
	Male	94	4.535	.893	Not			-.393	144.937	.695
Autonomy/ independence (AU)	Female	64	3.997	.819	Assumed	1.645	.202	.437	156	.663
	Male	94	3.932	.978	Not			.452	149.331	.652
Security/stability (SE)	Female	64	4.268	1.093	Assumed	.144	.705	-1.074	156	.285
	Male	94	4.454	1.055	Not			-1.066	132.222	.288
Service/ dedication to a cause (SV)	Female	64	4.590	.879	Assumed	.338	.562	.526	156	.600
	Male	94	4.512	.931	Not			.532	140.450	.596
Pure challenge (CH)	Female	64	4.493	.876	Assumed	.314	.576	.504	156	.615
	Male	94	4.417	.963	Not			.514	143.579	.608
COI scale	Female	64	4.247	.639	Assumed	2.487	.117	.507	156	.613
	Male	94	4.189	.745	Not			.522	147.869	.910

The results indicated no statistically significant difference between males and females for career anchors. This therefore implies that there was no difference in career anchors between the male and female gender groups, as indicated by the p-values, which were greater than 0.

6.3.9. Reporting difference in mean scores for gender groups for the OCQ scale

All the scales showed equal variance between the males and females because Levene's test of homogeneity of variances resulted in all the p-values being greater than .05, as shown in table 6.19.

Table 6.19
Independent T-Test to Compare the Mean Scores by Gender for the OCQ Scale

		Group statistics			Levene's test for equality of variances			T-test for equality of means		
Construct	**Gender**	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Equal variance**	**F**	**Sig**	**t-value**	**df**	**Sig (2-tailed p-score)**
Affective commitment (AC)	Female	64	4.213	1.032	Assumed	.415	.521	-.086	155	.932
	Male	94	4.226	.905	Not			-.084	120.906	.933
Continuance commitment (CC)	Female	64	4.084	.939	Assumed	1.333	.250	-1.855	156	.066
	Male	94	4.396	1.100	Not			-1.911	148.129	.058
Normative commitment (NC)	Female	64	3.610	1.109	Assumed	.099	.754	-1.585	156	.115
	Male	94	3.893	1.090	Not			-1.580	133.898	.116
OCQ scale	Female	64	4.002	.661	Assumed	.553	.458	-1.739	156	.084
	Male	94	4.204	.751	Not			-1.782	145.977	.077

All the constructs had p-values greater than .05, indicating that there was no significant difference between males and females in respect of organisational commitment.

6.3.10. Reporting difference in mean scores for race groups for the CAAS scale

Levene's test for equality of variance showed that all the scales had equal variance across groups except the career confidence subscale with a p-value of .040, as indicated in table 6.20. The Welch robust test of equality of means was used for the variable to determine the difference in mean scores. The test for equality of means showed that there was a difference in mean scores for career concern, career curiosity and the CAAS scale.

Table 6.20
ANOVA Test to Compare the Mean Scores by Race for the CAAS Scale

CAAS subscale	Levene's test for equality of variance		Test for equality of means	
	F	***p-value***	***F***	***p-value***
Career concern	.204	$.816$	15.381	$p < .001$
Career control	1.179	$.311$	1.478	$.231$
Career curiosity	.102	$.903$	8.614	$p < .001$
Career confidence	3.296	.040	.356[b]	.703
CAAS scale	.467	.628	5.964	$.003$

[b] Welch F-statistic

The ANOVA revealed no significant difference in mean scores across race for career control and career confidence. However, there was a significant difference across race regarding career concern, career curiosity and the overall CAAS scale. The results of the ANOVA showed that career concern were statistically significant across race $(F(2, 152) = 15.381, p < .001)$. A large effect size of .17 $(\eta^2 = .17)$ was obtained. Approximately 17% of the total variation in career concern was accounted for by race. The Tukey HSD procedures showed that there were two homogeneous groups, as indicated in table 6.21.

Table 6.21
Tukey HSD Homogeneous Group for Career Concern, Career Curiosity and CAAS by Race

Race	N	Tukey HSD Subset for alpha = 0.05		Standard deviation
		1	2	
Career Concern				
White	17	3.3431		0.61
Indian	26	3.6756		0.61
African	112		4.1589	0.61
Career Curiosity				
White	17	3.4706		0.64
Indian	26	3.6731		0.64

African	112		4.0440	0.63
CAAS				
White	17	3.6580		0.52
Indian	26	3.8216		0.53
African	112		4.0884	0.57

The mean scores for whites (*M* = 3.34, *SD* = 0.61) and Indians (*M* = 3.68, *SD* = 0.61) were significantly lower than the mean scores for Africans (*M* = 4.16, *SD* = 0.61). This implies that the African respondents demonstrated a stronger preference for career concern compared with the white and Indian respondents. There was no significant difference between the white and Indian respondents.

The ANOVA revealed that race differed for career curiosity (*F* (2.152) = 8.614, *p* < 0.001). A moderate effect size of .10 ($\eta^2 = .10$) was obtained. Approximately 10% of the total variance in career curiosity was accounted for by race. The Tukey HSD procedures showed that there were two homogeneous groups, as indicated in table 6.21.

The mean scores for whites *(M* = 3.47, *SD* = 0.64) and Indians *(M* = 3.67, *SD* = 0.64) were significantly lower than the mean scores for Africans *(M* = 4.04, *SD* = 0.63). This means that respondent preference for career curiosity was stronger for Africans than for whites and Indians. However, there was a bi-statistically significant difference between whites and Indians.

The ANOVA results showed that the effect of race on the CAAS was statistically significant (*F* (2.152) = 5.964, *p* = 0.003). A medium effect size of .07 ($\eta^2 = .07$) was obtained. Approximately 7% of the total variation in the CAAS was accounted for by race. The Tukey HSD procedures showed that there were two homogeneous groups, as indicated in table 6.21.

The mean scores for whites *(M* = 3.66, *SD* = 0.52) and Indians *(M* = 3.82, *SD* = 0.53) were significantly lower than the mean scores for Africans *(M* = 4.09, *SD* = 0.57). This means that the respondents' preference for the CAAS was stronger for Africans than for whites or Indians. However, there was no statistical significant difference between the whites and Indians.

6.3.11. Reporting difference in mean scores for race groups for the COI scale

Levene's test for equality of variance showed that all the scales had equal variance across groups.

Table 6.22
ANOVA Test to Compare the Mean Scores by Race for the COI Scale

COI subscale	Levene's test for equality of variance		Test for equality of means	
	F	***p-value***	***F***	***p-value***
Technical/functional (TF)	.274	$.760$	4.793	$.010$
General management (GM)	.642	$.528$	9.258	$p < .001$
Entrepreneurial/creativity (EC)	1.140	$.323$	18.874	$p < .001$
Lifestyle (LS)	2.193	.115	2.361	.098
Autonomy/independence (AU)	.263	$.769$	19.520	$p < .001$
Security/stability (SE)	2.783	$.065$	1.158	$.317$
Service/dedication to a cause (SV)	2.036	$.134$	4.774	$.010$
Pure challenge (CH)	.370	.692	1.793	.170
COI scale	.457	.634	10.417	$p < .001$

The test for equality of means showed that there was a difference in the mean scores for the technical/functional (TF), general management (GM), entrepreneurial/creativity (EC), autonomy/independence (AU), service/dedication to a cause (SV) career anchors and the COI scale, as indicated in table 6.22.

The ANOVA test showed no significant difference in mean scores across race for the lifestyle, security/stability and pure challenge career anchors, thus implying that all the race groups had similar preferences for these career anchors. However, there were significant differences across race for technical/functional, general management, entrepreneurial/creativity, autonomy/independence, service/dedication to a cause career anchors and the overall COI scale, thus implying that the different race groups had different preferences regarding these career anchors. The results of the ANOVA showed that there was a statistical significant difference at p = 0.010 regarding the technical/functional career anchor for the three race groups (F (2.152) = p 4.793, p < 0.010). The effect size calculated was 0.06 ($\eta^2 = .06$), which was a small effect size. About 6% of the total variability in the technical/functional career anchor was accounted for by race. The Tukey HSD procedures resulted in two homogeneous groups, as shown in table 6.23.

Table 6.23
Tukey HSD Homogeneous Group for Technical/Functional (TF) by Race

Race	N	Tukey HSD Subset for alpha = 0.05		Standard deviation
		1	2	
Technical/Functional				
White	17	3.7059		0.76
Indian	26		4.2846	0.79
African	112		4.3634	0.83
General Management				
White	17	2.7059		1.11
Indian	26	3.1154		0.98
African	112		3.6790	0.97
Entrepreneurial/Creativity				
White	17	2.8471		
Indian	26		3.5769	
African	112			4.3580
Autonomy/Independence				
White	17	3.0118		0.76
Indian	26	3.5192		0.73
African	112		4.1813	0.84
Service/Dedication to a Cause				
White	17	4.0588		0.90
Indian	26	4.2769	4.2769	0.85
African	112		4.6634	1.01
COI				
White	17	3.5985		0.72
Indian	26		4.0165	0.64
African	112		4.3315	0.64

The mean score for whites (*M* = 3.71, *SD* = 0.76) was significantly lower than the mean score for Indians (*M* = 4.28, *SD* = 0.79) and Africans (*M* = 4.36, *SD* = 0.83). The mean scores for Indians and for Africans were not statistically significantly different from each other. The technical/functional career anchor was stronger for Africans and Indians than for whites.

The ANOVA showed that race differed significantly for the general management career anchor ($F(2, 152) = 9.258, p < .001$). A moderate effect size of .11 ($\eta^2 = .11$) was obtained. Approximately 11% of the total variance in the general management career

anchor was explained by race. The Tukey HSD procedures showed that there were two homogeneous groups, as indicated in table 6.23.

The mean scores for whites (*M* = 2.71, *SD* = 1.11) and Indians *(M* = 3.12, *SD* = 0.98) were significantly lower than the mean scores for Africans (*M* = 3.68, *SD* = 0.97). This means that the respondents' preference for the general management career anchor was stronger for Africans than for whites and Indians. The whites and Indians had mean scores that were not statistically significantly different from each other.

The ANOVA results showed that the effect of race on the entrepreneurial/creativity career anchor was statistically significant (*F* (2.152) = 18.874, *p* < 0.001). A large effect size of .20 ($\eta^2 = .20$) was obtained. Approximately 20% of the total variation in the entrepreneurial/creativity career anchor was explained by race. The Tukey HSD procedures resulted in three homogeneous groups, as indicated in table 6.23.

The mean score for whites (*M* = 2.85, *SD* = 0.95) was significantly lower than that of Indians (*M* = 3.58, *SD* = 1.14), which in turn, was significantly lower than the mean score for Africans (*M* = 4.36, *SD* = 1.03). This means that the respondents' preference for the entrepreneurial/creativity career anchor was stronger for Africans followed by Indians and then whites. For Africans, the preference for the entrepreneurial/creativity career anchor was extremely strong.

The ANOVA showed that the effect of race on the autonomy/independence career anchor was statistically significant across race ($F(2, 152) = 19.520, p < .001$). A large effect size of .20 ($\eta^2 = .20$) was obtained. About 20% of the total variation in the autonomy/independence career anchor was explained by race. The Tukey HSD procedures showed that there were two homogeneous groups, as indicated in table 6.23.

The mean scores for whites (*M* = 3.01, *SD* = 0.76) and Indians (*M* = 3.52, *SD* = 0.73) were significantly lower than the mean scores for Africans (*M* = 4.18, *SD* = 0.84). This means that the respondents' preference for the autonomy/independence career anchor was stronger for Africans than for whites and Indians. The mean scores for whites and Indians were not significantly different.

The ANOVA revealed that race differed for the service/dedication to a cause career anchor (*F* (2.152) = 4.774, p = 0.010). A small effect size of 0.06 ($\eta^2 = .06$) was

obtained. Approximately 6% of the total variance in the service/dedication to a cause career anchor was accounted for by race. The Tukey HSD procedures showed that there were two homogeneous groups, as indicated in table 6.23.

The mean scores for whites (*M* = 4.06, *SD* = 0.90) were significantly lower than the mean scores for Africans (*M* = 4.66, *SD* = 0.85), and the mean score for Indians (*M* = 4.28, *SD* = 1.01) was not significantly different from those of the whites or the Africans. The service/dedication to a cause career anchor was stronger for Africans and Indians than for whites.

The ANOVA showed that the effect of race differed significantly for the overall career anchors scale (*F* (2.152) = 10.417, p < 0.001). A moderate effect size of .12 ($\eta^2 = .12$) was obtained. About 12% of the total variation in career anchors was accounted for by race. Post hoc procedures using the Tukey HSD procedures indicated two homogeneous groups, as shown in table 6.23.

The mean scores for whites (*M* = 3.60, *SD* = 0.72) was significantly lower than the mean score for Indians (*M* = 4.02, *SD*= 0.64) and Africans (*M* = 4.33, *SD* = 0.64). The respondents' preference for career anchors was stronger for Africans and Indians than for white

6.3.12. Reporting difference in mean scores for race groups for the OCQ scale

Levene's test for homogeneity of variance revealed that all the scales had equal variance across groups, as shown in table 6.24. The test for equality of means showed a difference in mean scores for continuance commitment, normative commitment and the OCQ scale.

Table 6.24
ANOVA Test to Compare the Mean Scores by Race for the OCQ Scale

OCQ subscale	Levene's test for equality of variance		Test for equality of means	
	F	***p-value***	***F***	***p-value***
Affective commitment (AC)	0.637	0.530	1.417	0.246
Continuance commitment (CC)	0.357	0.700	21.328	$p < .001$
Normative commitment (NC)	2.182	0.116	5.908	0.003
OCQ scale	1.767	.174	16.118	$p < .001$

The ANOVA F-test showed no significant difference in mean scores across the race groups for affective commitment, thus implying that all race groups demonstrated

similar affective commitment towards the organisation. There was a significant difference in the mean scores across the different race groups for continuance commitment, normative commitment and the OCQ scale and race. This implies that different race groups differed in continuance, normative and overall organisational commitment in the organisation. The ANOVA showed that continuance commitment was statistically significant across race (F (2.152) = 21.328, p < 0.001). A large effect size of .22 ($\eta^2 = .22$) was obtained. Approximately 22% of the total variation in continuance commitment was accounted for by race. The Tukey HSD procedures showed that there were two homogeneous groups, as indicated in table 6.25.

Table 6.25
Tukey HSD Homogeneous Group for Continuance Commitment, Normative Commitment and Organisational Commitment (OCQ) by Race

Race	N	Tukey HSD Subset for alpha = 0.05			Standard deviation
		1	2	3	
Continuance Commitment					
African	112	3.9838			0.90
Indian	26		4.9017		0.97
White	17		5.2590		1.00
Normative Commitment					
African	112	3.6202			1.14
Indian	26	3.9615	3.9615		1.07
White	17		4.5490		0.79
Organisational Commitment					
African	112	3.9538			0.67
Indian	26		4.3997		0.56
White	17			4.8379	0.68

The mean score for Africans (M = 3.98, SD = 0.90) was significantly lower than the mean score for Indians (M = 4.90, SD = 0.97) and whites (M = 5.26, SD = 1.00). This means that the whites and Indians demonstrated more continuance commitment than the Africans. The white race group demonstrated the same amount of organisational commitment as the Indian group.

The ANOVA showed that the effect of race on normative commitment was statistically significant (F (2.152) = 5.908, p = 0.003). A moderate effect size of .07 ($\eta^2 = .07$) was obtained. Approximately 7% of the total variance in normative commitment was accounted for by race. The Tukey HSD procedures showed that there were two homogeneous groups, as indicated in table 6.25.

The mean score for Africans (*M* = 3.62, *SD* = 1.14) was statistically lower than the mean score for Whites (*M* = 4.55, *SD* = 1.07), while the mean score for Indians (*M* = 3.96, *SD* = 0.79) was not significantly different from both groups. This means that the whites demonstrated higher levels of normative commitment than the Africans.

The ANOVA showed that the effect of race on the organisational commitment scale was statistically significant (*F* (2.152) = 16.118, *p* < 0.001). A large effect size of .18 ($\eta^2 = .18$) was obtained. Approximately 18% of the total variation in the organisational commitment scale was explained by race. The Tukey HSD procedures indicated that there were two homogeneous groups, as shown in table 25

The mean score for Africans (*M* = 3.95, *SD* = 0.67) was significantly lower than that of Indians (*M* = 4.40, *SD* = 0.56). The mean score for Indians (*M* = 4.40, *SD* = 0.56) was significantly lower than the mean score for whites (*M* = 4.84, *SD* = 0.68). This means that there was a difference in organisational commitment among the different race groups. The white participants demonstrated more organisational commitment, followed by the Indians and then the Africans.

6.4. INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

6.4.1. Career adaptability profile

The mean score results for career adaptability as per table 6.2 reflected the highest mean score for career confidence. Jabaar's (2017) research yielded similar results. Hartung and Cadaret (2017) described career confidence as experiencing challenges with a focus on building a future, and, to this end, persistence, hard work and self-confidence are essential. This confidence is essential in inspiring individuals to strive for a vocational intention/goal (Savickas, 2005).

With a minimal difference in mean scores, it was evident that the participants also expressed concern about their careers and vocational future. Hartung and Cadaret (2017) mentioned that such individuals plan towards career advancement in respect of experience and career opportunities. The results of the current study reflected the lowest mean score for career curiosity. Mujajati's (2016) research results reflected a similar outcome. This result implies that, to a lesser extent, participants explore, seek new information and have an inquisitive approach towards finding education and occupation information that will help their career growth. According to Mujajati (2016), a low mean score in career curiosity indicates that participants lack eagerness in

exploring career prospects by conducting research, taking risks and acquiring skills and new information.

6.4.2. Career anchor profile

The mean score results for career anchors as per table 6.2 reflected the highest mean score for service/dedication to the cause career anchor. The participants thus preferred working in an environment that entailed assisting others. The work environment of the participants involved serving the public/citizens. These participants therefore attached much importance to serving others, which was the core focus of their jobs. This finding was related to that of Schein's (1990_a) studies, in that individuals usually sought a workplace that supported their career anchor. Clinton-Baker (2013) supported these results and explained that the value of the participants was aligned to that of the organisation.

The participants scored the lowest in the general management career anchor (talent-based career anchor). The lower mean score obtained for general management competence was a result of the organisation employing a younger workforce. This result therefore indicated that there was a greater need to groom, mentor and develop this younger workforce towards managerial competence so that they could advance within the organisation. Managerial competence refers to managing resources that are human, financial and capital related. It encompasses decision making, analysing and problem solving of multidimensional challenges, exercising responsibility and authority and autonomy over managing work (Schein, 1990_a).

6.4.3. Organisational commitment profile

The highest mean score was that of continuance commitment (table 6.2). This suggests that these participants acknowledged that leaving the organisation would result in increased costs (Tladinyane, 2006). According to Lumley et al. (2011), the primary focus is on the cost involved should employees decide to leave the organisation, as well as the money they would have earned had they remained in the organisation. This investment, which participants would not wish to lose would also apply to the time and effort invested in acquiring occupation-specific skills (Coetzee et al., 2007). In summary, the key factor that kept most of the participants committed to the organisation in this study was that of the cost benefit of remaining.

The lowest means was that of normative commitment. Normative commitment refers to the moral duty of an employee to stay, regardless of the extent to which the organisation fulfils his or her needs (Lumley et al., 2011). Lumley et al. (2011) posited that such an employee has responsibility and commitment towards the organisation and thus maintains a continued relationship. Normative commitment entails the internalisation of norms and acceptance of a psychological contract with the organisation (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). The low mean score obtained for normative commitment in this study would therefore imply that the participants' lacked a moral sense of obligation.

6.4.4. Relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment

6.4.4.1. Career adaptability and organisational commitment

The research results indicated that a weak relationship existed between career adaptability and organisational commitment (see table 6.4) because the career adaptability and organisational commitment variables demonstrated a low effect relationship. High values in career concern, curiosity and confidence with an association with low values in continuance commitment would imply that individuals with career adaptive resources that enable them to deal with career-related changes and trauma, would most likely remain committed to an organisation, after they realise that leaving it would result in increased associated costs (Savickas, 1997; Tladinyane, 2006). Those individuals that demonstrate career confidence or initiative to effectively solve problems and master challenges that are career-related, would be more likely to display affective commitment towards an organisation because they identify with its values (Coetzee & Harry, 2015; Meyer & Allen, 1997). The career adaptability resources of career curiosity, concern, control and confidence influence an individual's acceptance of the organisation, and this, in turn, would determine whether or not he or she would want to be committed to an organisation. Savickas and Porfeli (2012) also postulated that individuals' ability to cope with changes in an organisation influences their decision to remain in it.

6.4.4.2. Career anchors and organisational commitment

The results indicated a weak relationship between career anchors and organisational commitment, thus implying that career anchors had a weak influence on organisational commitment (see table 6.4). Based on the results, individuals who sought work stability

and security demonstrated high levels of normative commitment towards the organisation. These individuals placed more emphasis on the security or stability the organisation offers, rather than commitment towards the organisation. Those individuals who preferred organisations that offered autonomy/independence would also be most likely to display commitment towards the organisation. Based on similar research outcomes, Coetzee et al. (2007) indicated that the relationship between career anchors and organisational commitment is significant, but such findings denote that career anchors do not influence organisational commitment. In her research on career anchors and organisational commitment, Lumley (2009) indicated that career anchors are partially related to organisational commitment.

6.4.4.3. Career adaptability and career anchors

According to table 6.4, there was a significant positive relationship between career adaptability and career anchors. Career concern, career curiosity and career adaptability demonstrated a moderate significant relationship with entrepreneurial/creativity and career anchors. Research conducted by Yang et al. (2015) demonstrated a positive correlation between career adaptability and career anchors. Hence increased career adaptability enables individuals to develop more involved or advanced career anchors (Yang et al., 2015).

6.4.5. Differences between biographical groups regarding career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment

A secondary objective was to explore whether there were differences between the variables of career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment and the biographical variables of age, employment level, gender and race. The overall summary of the results indicated no significant difference in gender for career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment.

6.4.5.1. Age

The study results revealed that career adaptability differed significantly for different age groups, particularly in respect of career concern and career curiosity (table 6.5). The results further revealed that those below the age of 50 demonstrated concern and curiosity over their careers, thus implying that the younger employees showed concern about their vocational future (Hartung & Cadaret, 2017). Younger employees would therefore expend more effort improving their skills and researching career-related information than older employees Coetzee & Harry, 2015). These findings were similar

to those of Martin and Roodt (2008) in that a positive correlation demonstrated that age was congruent with organisational commitment, whereby an increase in age had a resultant effect on the escalation of the degree of organisational commitment. This is because as employees age, new occupational prospects decrease, and older workers have more specialised occupations (Martin & Roodt, 2008).

The study results revealed that different age groups preferred different career anchors (table 6.7). Significant differences in career anchor preferences were found among the different age groups. Participants in the younger age groups responded more strongly to the career anchors of technical/functional, general management, entrepreneurial/creativity, and autonomy/independence than the older age groups. In terms of the literature, similar findings were evident in Bezuidenhout et al.'s (2013) research in that the younger workforce preferred similar career anchors, with the older workforce choosing service/dedication to a cause. Bezuidenhout et al. (2013) thus concluded that age affects the choice of a career anchor. Fakir (2010) also found that career anchors differed significantly in respect of age.

The study results revealed that age influenced organisational commitment significantly, particularly continuance and normative commitment (table 6.9). Those participants who were 50 and older demonstrated more organisational commitment than the younger age groups. The findings were similar for continuance and normative commitment, in that the older age groups demonstrated a greater amount of moral obligation and remained committed after considering the cost of leaving the organisation. Based on the literature, Martin and Roodt (2008) established a positive correlation indicating that age was congruent with organisational commitment, whereby an increase in age had a resultant effect on the degree of organisational commitment. According to Martin and Roodt (2008), this is because with an increase in new occupational prospects, older workers tend to have more specialised occupations (Martin & Roodt, 2008). Ng and Feldman (2010) drew a similar conclusion, namely that with advancement in age, normative commitment increased positively because of the individual's positive job attitude.

6.4.5.2. Employment level

The study results revealed that career adaptability had no significant difference in relation to employment level (table 6.12). This result differed from that of Mujajati (2016) in that the study outcomes revealed that the degree of career adaptability was

different for various job levels and employment status. Moshupi's (2013) findings indicated that when women were placed in executive positions they had to survive in these positions through adaptation, thus implying that career adaptability does differ for different job levels.

The study results revealed that career anchors differed significantly only in respect of entrepreneurial/creativity. The lowest employment level demonstrated the highest levels of entrepreneurial/creativity (table 6.13). Coetzee and Schreuder (2008) found that the employment level affected an individual's career anchor. In line with this finding, Clinton-Baker's (2013) indicated a difference in the career anchors between managers and staff in that staff preferred technical/functional and entrepreneurial/creativity and managers preferred general management and autonomy/independence.

The study results (table 6.15) revealed that employment level influenced affective commitment, with the more senior employees (senior management) demonstrating more commitment out of choice than the lower-level employees (clerical/admin). This is aligned to the findings of Jena (2015), who postulated that employment levels influence organisational commitment differently in that executives tend to be more committed than nonexecutives and they also demonstrate higher levels of affective commitment.

6.4.5.3. Gender

In this study, the results revealed the same for both gender groups on career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment (tables 6.17, 6.18 and 6.19). This implies that gender had no influence on career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment.

According Coetzee and Harry (2015) research on career adaptability and gender is limited. Some research reported that there is no relationship between gender and career adaptability, while other studies concluded that there is a relationship between them. Contrary to the research findings of the current study, Ferreira (2012), Mujajati (2016) and Stoltz (2014) concluded in their studies that females do have higher career adaptability than males. Ferreira (2012) explained that the reason for these results is that females are more likely to seek occupational development prospects. Also, it was found that women adapt more easily than men and therefore have a higher degree of

career adaptability than men (Coetzee & Harry, 2015). The results of the current study therefore indicated that females had equal career adaptive resources to men.

The results of this study indicated that the males and females do not have different career anchors (see table 6.18). A similar conclusion was drawn by Cai et al. (2017) in that there was no difference in the preference for a type of career anchor or anchors as both male and females tend to have similar preferences in their choice of career anchors. In research conducted by Lumley (2009), the results indicated that males prefer technical/functional competence where they can apply their skills, while females look for secure and stable conditions that allow them to assist others. Coetzee et al. (2007) and Fakir (2010) also concluded that males and females differ in respect of their career anchors.

The results of the study indicated that both males and females were equally committed to the organisation (see table 6.19). In their studies, Coetzee et al. (2007) and Sehunoe et al. (2015) indicated that there were no significant differences between the genders. Marshall and Bonner (2003) supported these findings and explained that females and males tend to be equally committed to an organisation, with the only difference being that the reasons for their commitment might differ. Metcalf and Dick (2000) recorded no difference in gender groups for low-level staff, but, as seniority increases, the commitment levels of males were slightly higher than those of females. Van Dyk et al.'s (2013) findings were similar in that females demonstrated slightly lower commitment to the organisation on the premise that the female organisation fit was perceived to be lower.

6.4.5.4. Race

The results of this study revealed that there were significant differences in career concern, career curiosity and career adaptability between the African race group and both the Indian and white race groups, with no significant differences between the Indian and white race groups (table 6.20). These results imply that the African race group in this study were more career adaptive in that these individuals were better equipped or had more adaptive resources to handle vocational changes or career-related challenges (Tladinyane & Van der Merwe, 2016). Coetzee and Harry (2015) described career concern as an individual demonstrating concern about over future work-related growth and subsequently planning accordingly for the future. The central element in career concern is taking responsibility for one's vocational future (Hartung

& Cadaret, 2017). Career curiosity, however, focuses on searching one's environment for career-related information and going the extra mile to gather information and develop one's skills and aptitude (Coetzee & Harry, 2015). The African race group in this study demonstrated more concern over their career future and therefore put in more effort into research career information and improved their skills and competency levels, compared with the Indian and white race groups. Similar results were obtained by Mujajati (2016), Potgieter (2013), Stoltz (2014) and Tladinyane and Van der Merwe (2015).

Tladinyane and Van der Merwe's (2015) research found that in terms of race, Africans differed from whites in their career adaptability in that the African participants demonstrated greater career concern than their white counterparts. Also, the African employees were more attracted to or influenced by occupational development prospects offered by an organisation, thus requiring them to become more adaptive to occupational, work or job title changes (Stoltz, 2014).

The results of this study revealed a significant difference between the race groups in respect of career anchors (table 6.22). The African race group preferred positions involving technical/functional, general management, entrepreneurial/creativity, autonomy/independence and service/dedication to a cause compared with the white race group. The same applied to the Indian race group, except for service/dedication for a cause, in that the Indians' preferences were the same as those of both the Africans and whites. Based on the literature, these results were supported by Bezuidenhout et al. (2013), Coetzee and Schreuder (2008) and Ndzube (2013) because their research findings reflected a preference for different career anchors according to different race groups. Bezuidenhout et al.'s (2013) study revealed that different race groups had different career anchors. For Africans, the short-term career anchors were managerial and technical/functional, while for the whites, stability, security and lifestyle were the dominant career anchors.

Regarding the medium-term career anchors, the whites favoured lifestyle, while the Africans preferred entrepreneurial/creativity (Bezuidenhout et al., 2013). In terms of organisational commitment, the study revealed significant differences for organisational commitment, in particular continuance and normative commitment (table 6.24). This implies that those employees who remained committed, would do so out of a moral duty to stay, regardless of the extent to which the organisation fulfilled

their needs (Lumley et al., 2011), or remain in the organisation since leaving it would result in increased associated costs (Tladinyane, 2006). These findings were supported by the research outcomes of different researchers in that the studies yielded different findings with respect to race. According to Lumley (2009), the differences in commitment levels in different race groups are based on different motivating factors between the race groups that influence commitment to the organisation.

6.4.6. Summary of relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment

Table 6.26 provides a summary of the relationship between the variables of career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment, and the differences in the biographical variables of age, gender, employment level and race.

Table 6.26
Summary of Significant Relationships

Variables	Relationship
Career adaptability and organisational commitment	Significant relationship (low effect/weak)
Career concern, career curiosity, career confidence versus continuance commitment	Weak negative relationship
Career confidence versus affective commitment	Weak positive relationship
Career anchors and organisational commitment	Significant relationship (weak)
Affective commitment and career anchors	No significant relationship
Technical/functional and continuance commitment	Weak negative relationship
Security/stability and normative commitment	Weak positive relationship
Autonomy/independence and organisational commitment	Weak negative relationship
Security/stability and organisational commitment	Weak positive relationship
Career adaptability and career anchors	Significant positive relationship
Entrepreneurial/creativity, career concern and career curiosity	Moderate positive relationship
Career concern, career curiosity and career anchors	Moderate positive relationship
Gender	No significant difference between males and females for career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment
Race	Significant differences in race for career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment
Career adaptability and race	
Career control and career confidence	No significant differences in race
Career concern, career curiosity and career adaptability	Africans have a higher career concern than whites and Indians

	No significant differences between whites and Indians
Career anchors and race	Higher preference for Africans and Indians than whites
Lifestyle, security/stability and pure challenge	No significant differences in race
Technical/functional	Africans and Indians preferred technical/functional career anchors compared with whites
	No significant differences between Africans and Indians
General management and autonomy/independence	Africans had a stronger preference to whites and Indians No significant differences between whites and Indians
Entrepreneurial/creativity	Very strong preference by Africans, followed by Indians and then whites
Service/dedication to a cause	Africans have a higher preference than whites
	Indians not significantly different compared with Africans and whites
Organisational commitment and race	Whites more inclined towards organisational commitment, followed by Indians and then Africans
Affective commitment	No significant difference in race
Continuance commitment	Whites and Indians have a greater but equal inclination towards continuance commitment than Africans
Normative commitment	Whites have a greater inclination towards normative commitment than Africans, with Indians not being significantly different from both groups
Employment level	No significant difference for career adaptability with significant difference for career anchors and organisational commitment
Career adaptability and employment level	No significant difference
Career anchors and employment level	No significant difference
Technical/functional, general management, lifestyle, autonomy/independence, security/stability, service/dedication to a cause, pure challenge and COI	No significant difference
Entrepreneurial/creativity	Higher preference for clerical/admin than management
Organisational commitment and employment level	Significant difference
Continuance and normative commitment	No significant difference
Affective commitment	Senior management have a greater inclination towards affective commitment than junior management or clerical/admin
Age	Significant differences in age for career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment
Career adaptability and age	
Career concern, career curiosity and career adaptability	Significant difference
Career anchors and age	Stronger preference for younger than older age groups

Lifestyle, security/stability, service/dedication to a cause	No significant differences regarding age
Technical/functional, general management, entrepreneurial/creativity, autonomy/independence	Significant difference in age Stronger preference for younger than older age groups
Organisational commitment and age	Oldest age group (50 – 65) more inclined than other age groups
Affective commitment	No significant differences in age
Continuance commitment	Stronger inclination for older than younger age groups
Normative commitment	Oldest age group (50–65) more inclined than other age groups

Based on the results of this study, as highlighted in table 6.26, table 6.27 indicates whether the study hypotheses were accepted or rejected.

Table 6.27
Overview of Decisions Regarding the Research Hypotheses

Hypotheses	Decision
H_0: There is no a significant relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment.	Rejected
H_1: There is a significant relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment	Partially accepted
H_0: Individuals from different gender, race, employment level and age groups do not differ significantly regarding career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment.	Rejected
H_2: Individuals from different gender, race employment level and age groups differ significantly regarding career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment.	Partially accepted

6.5. CHAPTER SUMMARY

Descriptive, correlational and inferential statistics were reported on and interpreted in this chapter. The research results of the empirical study were used to determine whether the hypotheses formulated for the study, as set out in chapters 1 and 5, could be accepted or rejected. Furthermore, these empirical findings assisted the researcher to align the literature review in chapters 2 to 4 to the empirical study set out in chapter 5.

The conclusions, limitations and recommendations are discussed in chapter 7, which deals with the last step of the empirical study.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter covers the conclusions of the study, discusses its limitations and makes recommendations for the discipline of industrial and organisational psychology, particularly with regard to retention practices. Suggestions are made for possible further research.

7.1. CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions were drawn in relation to the literature review and empirical study.

7.1.1. Conclusions relating to the literature review

The general aim of this research was to investigate the relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment, and to determine whether individuals from different age, employment level, gender and race groups differ significantly in respect of these three variables. The general aim of this study was realised through the achievement of the specific aims, as set out in the subsections below

Conclusions were drawn about each of the specific aims regarding the relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment.

7.1.1.1. Specific aim 1

Specific aim 1: Conceptualise career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment and explain the theoretical relationship between the three variables (career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment).

This aim was realised in chapter 2 (career adaptability), chapter 3 (career anchors) and chapter 4 (organisational commitment). These chapters focused on a conceptual understanding of and the relationship between these concepts.

When career changes occur, usually caused by occupational trauma (e.g. redundancy and career/work changes) (Savickas, 2005), a person's thoughts and behaviours are activated to face such changes (Bimrose et al., 2011). The resources that individuals would use to cope or adapt to change are conceptualised as career adaptability

(Tladinyane & Van der Merwe, 2016). The resources used are social or psychological (Jiang, 2017). According to Glavin (2015), this creates readiness for vocational change. Mayo (1991) conceptualised career anchors as follows: a particular area that a person of his or her own free will, does not compromise on when selecting an occupation or organisation. This self-concept is categorised into talent, attitude/values or needs/motives and the driving factors might be money, status and/or opportunity to use talent. Cesinger (2011) explained that this occupational interest and these values determine vocational choice (Cesinger, 2011) and vocational development (Ndzube, 2013). These driving forces direct an individual's thoughts to continue employment with an organisation, depending on whether the organisation meets his or her needs/motives/talents. Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) conceptualised organisational commitment as an enforced approach or mind-set directed towards an intention. This mind-set is categorised into a cognitive element, which is the behaviour that drives commitment, and an affective element, which drives feelings of guilt.

Organisational commitment has a huge effect on organisational accomplishments as employees' retention levels are higher and they perform better on the job (Meyer & Allen, 1996). Committed employees are therefore more valued by the organisation because of their increased levels of productivity and less likelihood of leaving the organisation (Wainwright, 2019). Organisations focus on committed employees when retaining talent (Wainright, 2019). Strategies to foster commitment are thus vital in managing human resources with a greater focus on fostering employees who are dedicated to achieving the organisation's objectives (Lesabe & Nkosi, 2007). Commitment by employees can therefore be enhanced by ensuring alignment between their motivations and values which constitute their career anchors (Coetzee et al., 2007). Individuals' ability to cope with changes in an organisation influences their decision to remain with it (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Career adaptability therefore fosters an improved association with both the organisation and occupation and motivates an employee to remain longer in an organisation (Johnson, 2018).

7.1.1.2. Specific aim 2

Specific aim 2: To determine the implications of the theoretical relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment for retention practices

The following conclusions were drawn:

- The career adaptability resources of career curiosity, concern, control and confidence influence an individual's choice to accept an organisation, which in turn, determines whether or not an individual wish to remain committed to the organisation.
- Career adaptability promotes an improved association with both the organisation and the occupation. This motivates a worker to remain with the organisation in terms of the positive correlation that career adaptability has with organisational commitment (Ferreira et al., 2013; Johnson, 2018).
- Employees' motivations and values, which make up their career anchors, influence them to remain longer in an organisation (Coetzee et al., 2007).
- Understanding employees' organisational commitment has a significant effect on organisational accomplishments as employee retention levels are higher and they perform better on the job (Meyer & Allen, 1996).
- Organisations have a role to play in enhancing organisational commitment by fulfilling individual's needs, including their career anchors (Manetjie, 2009). Hence an organisation's understanding of its employees' career anchors encourages them to remain longer with an organisation (Schein, 1990_a).
- Organisations can use career anchors to understand the reasons for an individual remaining committed to a job or organisation (Schein, 1990_a). This helps the organisation to put measures in place to retain its employees (Lumley, 2009).
- Organisations should focus on nurturing employees' career adaptability (concern, curiosity, control and confidence) as this will have positive implications for employees wishing to stay in an organisation (Ferreira & Coetzee, 2013).

7.1.2. Conclusions relating to the empirical study

The primary aims of the study were as follows:

- Investigate the empirical relationship dynamics between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment.
- Determine whether age, employment level, gender and race groups differ significantly regarding career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment.

- Formulate recommendations for the discipline of industrial and organisational Psychology, particularly with regard to retention practices and possible further research.

The findings of the empirical study indicated that hypothesis H_1 was rejected regarding the relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment. Hypothesise H_2, which related to the differences in the biographical variables of age, employment level, gender and race in relation to career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment, was rejected. Further discussions pertaining to the conclusions drawn, based on the findings of the study, are provided in the subsections below.

7.2. CONCLUSIONS RELATING TO THE CENTRAL HYPOTHESIS

The central hypothesis was formulated to conclude that a relationship does exist between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment. Furthermore, individuals from different age, employment level, gender and race groups differ significantly in respect of these three variables. The empirical study provided statistically significant evidence to support the central hypothesis that a partial significant relationship does in fact exist between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment.

7.3. CONCLUSIONS RELATING TO THE CONTRIBUTION TO THE FIELD OF INDUSTRIAL AND ORGANISATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

The empirical outcomes of this study should make a contribution to the field of industrial and organisational psychology, in particular to retention practices. A conceptual outline of career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment was provided in the literature review chapters. These chapters also provided explanations of the underlying frameworks of career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment. This understanding should spread the wealth of knowledge already theorised by theorists and researchers in the field of industrial and organisational psychology. The outcomes confirmed or broadened the scope of current theory on the relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment.

The empirical study will hopefully add a new body of knowledge based on the new relationships identified between the sub-variables belonging to the three main constructs in this study. This knowledge could be added to existing methodologies or

strategies that can be used to better understand the relationship between the three variables of career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment. An understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of the measuring instruments should also add to the body of knowledge.

Based on the empirical findings of this study, it is essential for industrial psychologists and managers to further analyse and understand the implications of the relationships between the different variables in this study, with a view to enhancing retention strategies. These include the importance of organisations having an awareness of its employees' motives, needs and talents (career anchors), and if these are supported by the organisation, employees should want to remain longer in the organisation. Organisations could use this as a practice to retain their employees.

Improved retention strategies and methodologies on encouraging and providing career adaptive support could be practised by organisations in order to encourage organisational commitment, thus resulting in employees remaining longer in their organisations. An understanding of the organisational commitment factors influencing employees towards being committed to an organisation would contribute to enhancing retention strategies.

7.4. LIMITATIONS

The limitations of the literature review and empirical study are outlined below.

7.4.1. Limitations of the literature review

With regard to the literature review, the following limitations were encountered:

- The scope of the paradigm used was limited to the positivist epistemological approach and humanistic paradigm.
- There is a paucity of literature on the relationship between career adaptability and career anchors by other theorists.
- The literature on race in relation to the three variables in South Africa is limited.
- There is also a lack of literature specific to the three variables in the government in South Africa.
- The study was limited to the public sector.
- No literature could be found with similar studies conducted in the National or Provincial Treasuries.

- There is a paucity of literature containing similar studies in the South African public service.

7.4.2. Limitations of the empirical study

The following limitations should be taken into account:

- Smaller participation numbers of members of the coloured race group resulted in the researcher having to omit this group (statistically, below 5 provides insignificant results). Hence there was no analysis of or findings on this race group, which means that generalisation to the population would be out of the question.
- The sample size was 158. The small sample size was a limitation in that it was not large enough to confirm that the results of this study were indeed correct in terms of the relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment.
- The validity of the results could be questionable because the participants responded on the basis of their perception of statements in the CAAS, COI and OCQ.
- The study was cross-sectional in nature and therefore confirmation of the cause-effect relationship between the variables was not possible.

7.5. RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the conclusions, findings and limitations of this study, recommendations for the field of industrial and organisational psychology and possible further research in the field are outlined below.

7.5.1. Recommendations pertaining to retention practice

As stated previously, the primary aim was to outline the implications of the theoretical relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment for retention practices. Based on the research findings, the following organisational interventions are recommended:

- Employees (especially juniors) should know what their needs, motives and talents (career anchors) are, to ensure an occupational match. The organisation, however, should be aware of employees' dominant career anchors and ensure that it supports these career anchors to prevent its

employees from leaving the organisation. This might be a useful retention practice for the organisation to adopt in the future.

- Dominant career anchors in an organisation could be established with the application of the COI.
- Organisations should provide a conducive work environment, policies and practices that support the career anchors of their employees.
- Organisations also need to support the career adaptive needs, support and resources of their employees. This would encourage organisational commitment and allow an organisation to use this as a retention practice.
- Employees are influenced by different organisational commitment types. Organisations need to know these motivating factors and determine interventions to support their employees. Such support would encourage employees to stay longer in the organisation.
- When joining an organisation, career paths and plans should be in place for each employee, and implemented accordingly. This practice would grow career adaptive resources and serve as a retention strategy for the organisation.
- Subsequently, organisations should provide vocational development support, such as career counselling, training and development, mentorship programmes and on-the-job training to support these plans, also serving as retention strategies for the organisation.
- Organisations need to support the career adaptive resources of its employees by affording them opportunities to develop new skills in line with technological advancement, to enhance their experience and provide career advancement opportunities. Such initiatives would encourage employees to remain longer in the organisation, and would discourage them from seeking such opportunities outside the organisation, thus serving as a good retention measure.
- Organisations should provide challenging work assignments. This is particularly important for the younger workforce who aspire to management occupations. The practice of succession planning should therefore be considered.
- Based on the results of this study, the relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment, retention strategies for the wider public sector in South Africa should further be explored.

7.5.2. Suggestions for industrial psychologists working in the field of retention

The empirical research outcomes suggested that career adaptability and career anchors have a significantly weak relationship with organisational commitment. Nevertheless, this implies that an organisation should understand the career anchors of its employees and see how best their career paths can be aligned with these career anchors, or how dominant career anchors can be supported by an organisation. Organisations should emphasise nurturing career adaptability (concern, curiosity, control and confidence) because this will have positive implications for employees wishing to stay in an organisation. The leaders in organisations should nurture employees' career adaptability to show career concern, research career options, decide on career ambitions and maintain confidence in executing plans. This would be possible by encouraging employees to have career plans and to afford them increased work exposure. Organisations should therefore motivate, encourage and support the adaptive behaviours/culture of its employees. Based on the results of the empirical study, there should be a drive towards organisations supporting their employees' career anchors and providing an adaptive environment, because this will then influence greater commitment to the organisation. Hence industrial psychologists could enhance existing retention guiding frameworks for both organisations and employees in respect of how the above could be achieved. The empirical results also underscored a significant relationship between career adaptability and career anchors. This outcome should encourage industrial psychologists to further explore the relationship between career adaptability and career anchors, and the positive contribution to retention practice.

It is therefore recommended that industrial psychologists analyse the relationships between the variables and sub-variables of the empirical results of this study, and subsequently determine strategies that organisations could adopt in terms of retention mechanisms for their employee*s.*

7.5.3. Recommendations for future research

- Research in this area could be applied to more government departments. Expansion of the scope of the research to the wider public service would help to establish the dominant career anchors of public service employees, with the intention of supporting these anchors.

- Research on career anchors of employees within the private and public sectors.
- Additional research should be conducted to explore the relationship between career adaptability and career anchors because of the paucity of studies in this area.
- Further research should be conducted on other career outcomes (job satisfaction, career success or turnover intention) and organisational commitment.
- This research study indicated a congruence between career adaptive behaviour and the likelihood of remaining in an organisation for longer. Considering that retention focuses on practices to increase employees' tenure with an organisation, further research on promoting career adaptive behaviour to increase employee tenure in the South African public service could be explored.
- This study also indicated that if an organisation supports the career anchors of an employee, then this encourages him or her to stay longer. Further research could be undertaken on supporting employee career anchors as a retention practice in the South African public service.

7.6. INTEGRATION OF THE RESEARCH

The general aim of this research was to investigate the relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment for retention practices, and to determine whether individuals from different age, employment level, gender and race groups differed significantly in respect of these three variables.

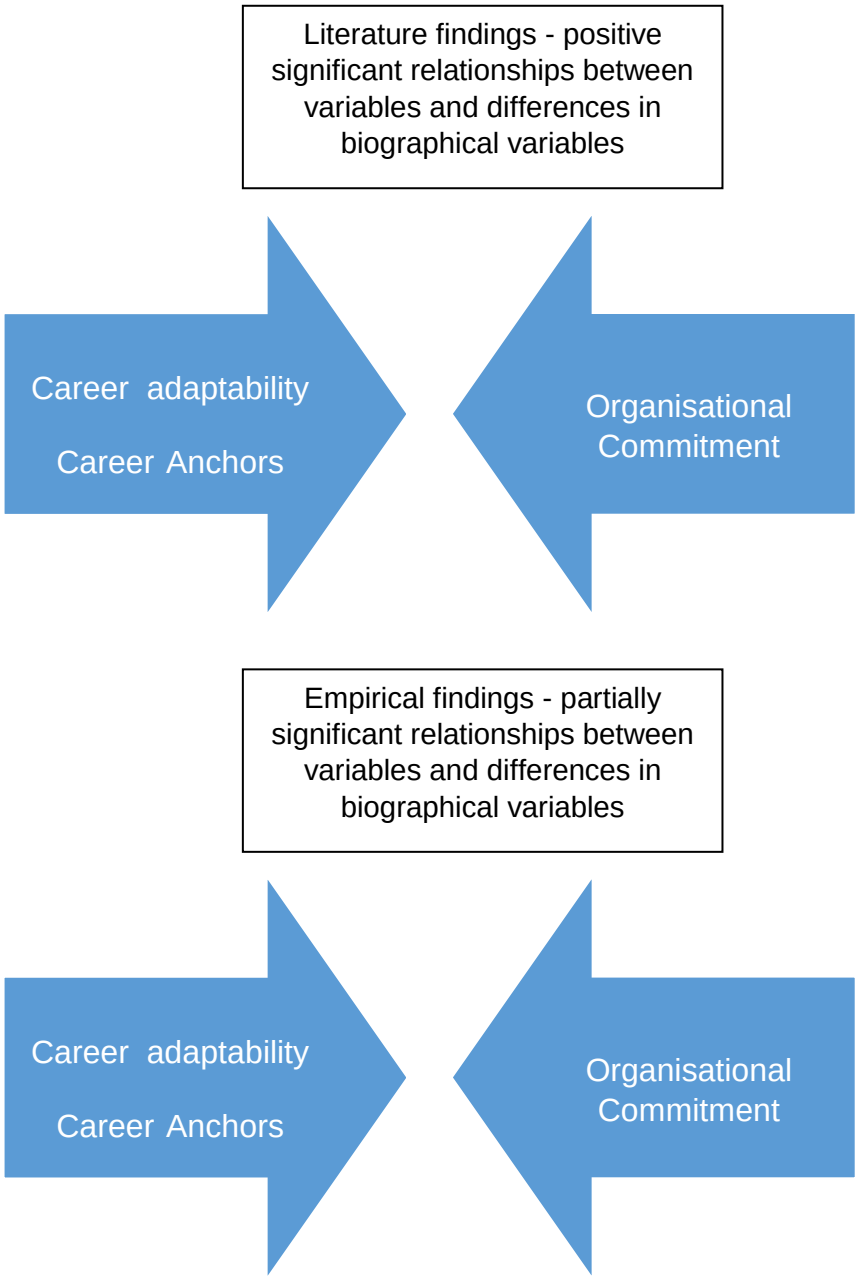
The literature review explored the conceptualisation, theories and models, practical implications and other research findings on career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment. The literature review revealed that positive relationships between the variables and the biographical variables did in fact differ for the three variables in this study.

The empirical study explored the relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment. The research outcomes as per the statistical evidence partially accepted the central hypothesis in that there is a partial relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment. Using the empirical study outcomes, recommendations were made for the field of industrial

and organisational psychology and the discipline of career psychology, as well as possible further research in the field. This is depicted in figure 7.1.

Figure 7.1

Illustration of Literature and Empirical Findings



7.7. CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter focused on the conclusions drawn in terms of both the theoretical and empirical objectives of the study. Possible limitations were highlighted with reference to both the theoretical and empirical research. Recommendations were made for possible future research to investigate the relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment. In conclusion, the research was integrated, emphasising the extent to which the study's results provided support for the relationship between the variables of career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment.

REFERENCES

Abesselo, M., Rossier, J., & Hirschi, A. (2017). *Basic values, career orientations, and career anchors: Empirical investigation of relationships*. *Frontiers of Psychology.* https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.01556

Ahmed, N., & Oranye, N. O. (2010). Empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment: A comparative analysis of nurses working in Malaysia and England. *Journal of Nursing Management, 18*, 582–591. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2834.2010.01093.x

Akuoko, K.O. (2012). Employee retention strategies and workers performance: General views of employees inAshanti Region of Ghana. *International Journal of Business and Management Tomorrow, 2*(8), 1. https://www.academia.edu/22657668/Staff_selection_and_retention_at_the_Independent_Electoral_Comission_IEC_Botswana

Aloysius, M. C. M. (2015). *Protean career orientation and career success among early career graduates*. https://ssrn.com/abstract=3086709

Aydogmus, C. (2018). Millennials' career attitudes: The roles of career anchors and psychological empowerment. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, *8*(6), 1–23. http://dx.doi.org/10.6007/IJARBSS/v8-i6/4176

Bafaneli, S. (2015). Staff selection and retention at the independent electoral commission (IEC) Botswana. *International Journal of Novel Research in Humanity and Social Sciences, 2*(3), 28-47. https://www.academia.edu/22657668/Staff_selection_and_retention_at_the_Independent_Electoral_Commission_IEC_Botswana

Bairagi, V., & Munot, M. V. (2019). *Research methodology: A practical and scientific approach*. Chapman & Hall. https://0-doi-org.oasis.unisa.ac.za/10.1201/9781351013277

Baruch, Y., & Bozionelos, N. (2011). *APA handbook of industrial and organisational psychology: Selecting and developing members of the organisation*. American Psychological Association. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/12170-003

Bekwa, N. N., Grobler, S., Olivier, B. H., Sadiki, M., & Van Niekerk, A. (2019). *Economic and management research for HMEMMS80*. University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa: Custom Edition Pearson Education.

Berkovich, I. (2018). Effects of principal-teacher sex similarity on teacher's trust and organisational commitment. *Sex Roles, 78*(7-8), 561–572. https://doi .org/10 .1007/ s11199-017-0814-3

Bezuidenhout, M., Grobler, A., & Rudolph, E. C. (2013). The utilisation of a career conversation framework based on Schein's career anchors model. *South African Journal of Human Resource Management, 11*(1), 1. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm. v11i1.491

Bimrose, J., Barnes, S. A., & Hughes, D. (2011). *The role of careers adaptability in skills supply* (pp. i–iv, 5–66). Evidence Report, UK Commission for Employment and Skills, University of Warwick. https://warwick.ac.uk/fac/soc/ier/people/abrown/publications/ukces_35_adaptability.pdf

Blanche, M. T., Durrheim, K., & Painter, D. (Eds.). (2006). *Research in practice: Applied methods for the social sciences*. Juta.

Blanche, M. T., Durrheim, K., & Painter, D. (2009). *Research in practice: Applied methods for the social sciences.* University of Cape Town Press.

Bravo, J., Seibert, S. E., Kraimer, M. L., Wayne, S. J., & Liden, R. C. (2017). Measuring career orientations in the era of the boundaryless career. *Journal of Career Assessment*, *25*(3), 502–525. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1177/1069072715616107

Brooks, G. R., & Wallace, J. P. (2006). A discursive examination of the nature, determinants and impact of organisational commitment. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, *44*(2), 222–239. https://doi.org/10.1177/1038411106061511

Brown, A., Bimrose, J., Barnes, S. A., & Hughes, D. (2012). The role of career adaptabilities for mid-career changers. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 80*(3), 754–761. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2012.01.003

Cai, M., Chapman, J. R., & Brown, B. (2017). Gender differences and age progression in career anchors. *International Journal of Organizational Diversity*, *17*(1), 1–9. https://doi.org/10.18848/2328-6261/CGP/v17i01/1-9

Cesinger, B. (2011). *Measurement of objective and subjective career success.* Stiftungslehrstuhl Für Unternehmensgründungen Und Unternehmertum (Entrepreneurship) an Der Universität Hohenheim, 1–12. http://www-1v2.rz.uni-mannheim.de/WP/WP_02_2011.pdf

Chan, D. (2014). *Individual adaptability to changes at work.* Refine Catch.

Chelliah, S., Sundarapandiyan, N., & Vinoth, B. (2015). Research on employees' organisational commitment in organisations: A case of SMEs in Malaysia. *International Journal of Managerial Studies and Research (IJMSR), 3*(7). https://www.arcjournals.org/international-journal-of-managerial-studies-and-research/volume-3-issue-7/2

Chen, H., Fang, T, Liu, F., Pang, L., Wen, Y., Chen, S. & Gu, X. (2020). Career adaptability research: A literature review with scientific knowledge mapping in web of science. *International Journal of Environmental Science and Public Health, 17*(5986), 1–21.

Cherry, K. (2014). *Two sides of I-O psychology*. http://psychology.about.com/od/ioppsychology/f/organisational.htm

Cherry, K. (2020). *Sample types and errors in research*. https://www.verywellmind.com/what-is-a-sample-2795877

Clinton-Baker, M. (2013). *The relationship between career anchors, organisational commitment and turnover intention* (Master's dissertation). University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa. https://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/13098/dissertation_clinton-baker_m.pdf?sequence=1

Coetzee, M. (2008). Psychological career resources of working adults: A South African survey. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology, 34*(2), 10–20. http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v34i2.491

Coetzee, M. (2014). *Psycho-social metacapacities: Dynamics of contemporary career development*. Springer International.

Coetzee, M., & Harry, N. (2015). Gender and hardiness as predictors of career adaptability: An exploratory study among black call centre agents. *South African Journal of Psychology, 45*(1), 81–92. https://doi.org/10.1177/0081246314546346

Coetzee, M., & Schreuder, A. M. D. (2008). A multi-cultural investigation of students' career anchors at a South African higher education institution. *South African Journal of Labour Relations, 32*(2), 45–65. http://reference.sabinet.co.za/sa_epublication_article/labour_v32_n2_a4

Coetzee, M., & Schreuder, A. M. D. (2011). The relation between career anchors, emotional intelligence and employability satisfaction among workers in the service industry. *Southern African Business Review*, *15(*3), 78. https://journals.co.za/doi/pdf/10.10520/EJC92935

Coetzee, M., & Schreuder, D. (2013). Career anchors and emotional intelligence as predictors of human resource staff graduateness skills and employability attributes. *South African Journal of Labour Relations*, *37*(02), 97–117. https://hdl.handle.net/10520/EJC143766

Coetzee, M., & Stoltz, E. (2015). Employees' satisfaction with retention factors: Exploring the role of career adaptability. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 89*, 83–91. https://www.scirp.org/%28S%28351jmbntvnsjt1aadkposzje%29%29/reference/referencespapers.aspx?referenceid=2975035

Coetzee, M., Ferreira, N., & Masenge, A. (2013). Psychological career resources, career adaptability and hardiness in relation to job embeddedness and organisational commitment. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, *23*(1), 31–40. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14330237.2013.10820591Coetzee, M., Ferreira, N., & Potgieter, I. L. (2015). Assessing employability capacities and career adaptability in a sample of human resource professionals. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management, 13*(1), 1–9. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v13i1.682

Coetzee, M., Ferreira, N., & Shunmugum, C. (2017). Psychological career resources, career adaptability and work engagement of generational cohorts in the media industry. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management/SA Tydskrif vir Menslikehulpbronbestuur*, *15*(0), 868. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v15i0.868

Coetzee, M., Schreuder, A. M. G., & Clinton-Baker, M. (2015). Career anchors, organisational commitment and employee turnover intention in the retail sector.

South African Journal of Labour Relations, *39*(2), 105–122. http://hdl.handle.net/10500/21841

Coetzee, M., Schreuder, A. M. G., & Tladinyane, R. (2007). Organisational commitment and its relation to career anchors. *Southern African Business Review, 11*(1), 65–86. http://hdl.handle.net/10500/13688

Coetzee, M., Schreuder, D., & Tladinyane, R. (2014). Employees' work engagement and job commitment: The moderating role of career anchors. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management/SA Tydskrif vir Menslikehulpbronbestuur, 12*(1). Doi: https://doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v12i1.572

Cohen, J. (1988). Set correlation and contingency tables. *Applied Psychological Measurement, 12*(4), 425–434.

Cortés-Sánchez, J. D., & Grueso-Hinestroza, M. P. (2017). Factor analysis evaluation of Schein's career orientations inventory in Colombia. *Business: Theory and Practice, 18*(1), 186–196. https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=3029302

Creed, P. A., Muller, J., & Patton, W. (2003). Leaving high school: The influence and consequences for psychological well-being and career-related confidence. *Journal of Adolescence*, *26*(3), 295–311.

Creswell, J. W., & Poth, C. N. (2018). *Qualitative inquiry and research design choosing among five approaches*. Sage Publications.

Danziger, N., Rachman-Moore, D., & Valency, R. (2008). The construct validity of Schein's career anchors orientation inventory. *Career Development International, 13*(1), 7–19. https://doi.org/10.1108/13620430810849506

Dehnad, M., Moghadam, Y. M., Delavar, A. & Darvishi, Z. A. (2018). Construction and validation of components of career anchors. *BFUP International Journal*, *1*, *15–37.*

Delong, T. J. (1982). Re-examining the career anchor model. *Personnel*, *59*(3), 50–61. https://www.igi-global.com/chapter/examining-career-anchor-model/62885

Dries, N. (2013). Career stages and anchors. *Encyclopedia of Management.* https://www.researchgate.net/ publication/235434243_Career_Stages_and_Anchors

Eastern Cape Social Development and Special Programmes. (2012). Attraction and retention policy (Regulation 2012-307). http://www.ecdsd.gov.za/knowledgehub/Human%20Resources%20Policies/Attraction%20Retention%20Policy.pdf

Ellison, J. A., & Schreuder, A. M. G. (2000). The relation between career anchors, occupational types and job satisfaction of midcareer employees. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 26*(2). https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v26i2.700

Fakir, Z. (2010). *The relationship between career anchors and job satisfaction amongst leading employee within a leading retail organisation in the Western Cape*.

(Master's dissertation). University of the Western Cape, Cape Town, South Africa. http://etd.uwc.ac.za/xmlui/handle/11394/1459

Feldman, D. C., & Bolino, M. C. (1996). Careers within careers: Reconceptualizing the nature of career anchors and their consequences. *Human Resource Management Review*, *96*(2), 89–112. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1016/S1053-4822(96)90014-5

Ferreira, N. (2012). *Constructing a psychological career profile for staff retention.* http://hdl.handle.net/10500/6722

Ferreira, N., & Coetzee, M. (2013). The influence of job embeddedness on black employees' organisational commitment. *Southern African Business Review*, *17*(3), 239–255.

Ferreira, N., Coetzee, M., & Masenge, A. (2013). Psychological career resources, career adaptability and hardiness in relation to job embeddedness and organisational commitment. *Journal of Psychology in Africa, 23*(1), 31–40. https//doi.org/10.1080/14330237.2013.10820591

Flannelly, L. T., Flannelly, K. J., & Jankowski, K. R. B. (2014). Independent, dependent, and other variables in healthcare and chaplaincy research. *Journal of Health Care Chaplaincy, 20*(4), 161–170. https//doi.org/10.1080/08854726.2014.959374

Fox, N.J. (2008). Post-positivism. The Sageencyclopedia of qualitative research methods, *2*, 659–664. http://www.researchgate.net/profile/Nick-positivism/links/00b7d533ca688688e0000000/Post-positivism.pdf.

Frost, J. (n.d*.). Statistics by Jim, making statistics intuitive*. https://statisticsbyjim.com/glossary/significance-level/

Gati, I., Levin, N., & Landman-Tal, S. (2019). Decision-making models and career guidance. In *International handbook of career guidance*. Springer.

Glavin, K. (2015). Measuring and assessing career maturity and adaptability. In P. J. Hartung, M. L. Savickas, & W. B. Walsh (Eds.), *APA handbook of career intervention* (vol. 2, pp. 183–191). Washington DC: American Psychological Association. doi: 10.1037/14439-014

Golafshani, N. (2003). Understanding reliability and validity in qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report,* 2(4). http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR8-4/golafshani.pdf

Govender, L. (2017). Job satisfaction and organisational commitment in a South African airline. *African Journal of Hospitality*, *Tourism and Leisure*, *6*(2). http://www.ajhtl.com/uploads/7/1/6/3/7163688/article_25_vol_6__2__2017.pdf

Gravetter, F. J., & Wallnau, L. B. (2017). *Statistics for the behavioral sciences.* Cengage Learning.

Greenhaus, J. H., Callanan, H., Callanan, G. A., & Godshalk, V. M. (2000). *Career management*. Dryden Press.

Greenhaus, J. H., Callanan, H., Callanan, G. A., & Godshalk, V. M. (2010). *Career management*. Sage Publications.

Hartung, P. J. (2013). The life-span, life-space theory of careers. In S. D. Brown, & R. W. Lent (Eds.), *Career development and counseling: Putting theory and research to work*. Wiley.

Hartung, P. J., & Cadaret, M. C. (2017). Career adaptability: Changing self and situation for satisfaction and success. In K. Maree (Ed.), *Psychology of career adaptability, employability and resilience*. Springer.

Hassan, G., Azizollah, A., Peyman, Y., Vahid, S., Solmaz, I., & Narges, S. (2012). Relationship between career anchors and organisational commitment among faculty members. *Journal of Studies in Education*, *2*(1), 58–71. http://dx.doi.org/10.13140/2.1.5138.4321

Hennink, M., Hutter, I., & Bailey, A. (2011). *Qualitative research methods*. Sage Publications.

Herrbach, O., & Mignonac, K. (2012). Perceived gender discrimination and women's subjective career success: The moderating role of career anchors. *Relations Industrielles/Industrial Relations, 67*(1), 25–50. https://doi.org/10.7202/1008194ar

Herscovitch, L., & Meyer, J. P. (2002). Commitment to organisational change: Extension of a three-component model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(3), 474–487. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.87.3.474

IDRE. (2014). *SPSS FAQ: What does Cronbach's alpha mean?* http://statistics.laerd.com/.../pearson-correlation-coefficient-statistical-guide

Inkson, K. (2007). *Understanding careers, the metaphors of working lives*. Sage Publications.

Iqbal, A. (2010). An empirical assessment of demographic factors, organisational ranks and organisational commitment. *International Journal of Business and Management, 5*(3), 16–27. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ijbm.v5n3p16

Ismail, S., Ferreira, N., & Coetzee, M. (2016). Young emerging adults' graduateness and career adaptability: Exploring the moderating role of self-esteem. *Journal of Psychology, 26*(1), 1–10. http://hdl.handle.net/10500/23543

Ituma, A., & Simpson, R. (2006). Moving beyond Schein's typology: Individual career anchors in the context of Nigeria. *Personnel Review*, *36*(6), 978–995. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/00483480710822463

Jabaar, R. (2017). *The relationship between organisational commitment, career adaptability and retention factors within the retail sector in the Western Cape* (Master's dissertation). University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa. http://hdl.handle.net/10500/23230

Jain, S., & Angural, V. (2017). Use of Cronbach's alpha in dental research. *Medico Research Chronicles*, *4*(03), 285–291. https://www.medrech.com/index.php/medrech/article/view/242

Jaros, S. (1997). An assessment of Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model of organizational commitment and turnover intentions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 51*(3), 319–337. https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.1995.1553

Jaros, S. (2007). Meyer and Allen model of organisational commitment: Measurement issues. *Journal of Organisational Behavior*, *4*(4), 9–25. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/228467099

Jena, R. K. (2015). An assessment of demographic factors affecting organisational commitment among shift workers in India. *Management*, *20*(1), 68–71.

Jiang, Z. (2017). Proactive personality and career adaptability: The role of thriving at work. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 98*, 85–97. doi: 10.1016/j.jvb.2016.10.003

Johnson, C. S. (2018). *A systematic review of the career adaptability literature and future outlook* (Master's dissertation). Department of Work and Organisational Psychology, University of Bern, Switzerland. https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/79440651.pdf

Kanfer, R., & Ackerman, P. L. (2004). Aging, adult development and work motivation. *Academy of Management Review*, *29*(3), 440–458. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.2307/20159053

Kannabiran, G., Dominic, P. D. D., & Sarata, A. V. (2014). Career anchors and employee retention-an empirical study of Indian IT industry. *International Conference on Computer and Information Sciences (ICCOINS)*, 1–6, doi: 10.1109/ICCOINS.2014.6868419.

Kanwar, Y. P. S., Singh, A. K., & Kodwani, A. D. (2012). A study of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intent among the IT and ITES sector employees. *The Journal of Business Perspective*, *16*(1), 27–35. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/097226291201600103

Kivunja, C., & Bawa, A. (2017). Understanding and applying research paradigms in educational contexts. *International Journal of Higher Education*, *6*(5), 26–41. https://doi.org/10.5430/ijhe.v6n5p26

Kniveton, B. H. (2004). Managerial career anchors in a changing business environment. *Journal of European Industrial Training, 28*(7), 564–573.

Kuean, W. L., Kaur, S., & Wong, E. S. K. (2010). The relationship between organisational commitment and intention to quit: The Malaysian companies perspectives. *Journal of Applied Sciences, 10*(19), 2251–2260. https://dx.doi.org/10.3923/jas.2010.2251.2260

Kuijpers, M. A., Schyns, B., & Scheerens, J. (2006). Career competencies for career success. *The Career Development Quarterly*, *55*(2), 168-178. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2161-0045.2006.tb00011.x

KZN Provincial Treasury. (2018). Provincial Treasury Human Resource Plan 2018-2023. Provincial Treasury, 1–162.

KZN Provincial Treasury. (2020). Provincial Treasury Strategic Plan 2020–2025. http://www.kzntreasury.gov.za/ResourceCenter/ANNUAL%20PERFORMANCE%20PLAN/Strategic%20Plan%202020.2025%20KZN%20Provincial%20Treasury.%20March.%20Final%20(003).pdf

KZN Provincial Treasury. (2022). Provincial Treasury Human Resource Implementation Report 2021/2022. Provincial Treasury, 1–31.

Labour.gov.za. 2015. Employment Equity Act, No 55 of 1998. [online] Available at: https://www.labour.gov.za/DocumentCenter/Acts/Employment%20Equity/Act%20-%20Employment%20Equity%201998.pdf [Accessed 8 April 2015].

Laerd Statistics. (n.d.). *Pearson's product-moment correlation.* https://statistics.laerd.com/statistical-guides/pearson-correlation-coefficient-statistical-guide.php

Learning Theories. (2014). *Humanism.* http//:www.learningtheories.com/humanism.html

Lesabe, R. A. F., & Nkosi, J. (2007). A qualitative exploration of employees' views on organisational commitment. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management, 5*(1), 35–44. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v5i1.106

Lor, P. J. (2011). *Preparing for research: Meta-theoretical considerations*. http://pjlor.files.wordpress.com/2010/06/chapter-3.

Lumley, E. J. (2009). *Exploring the relationship between career anchors, job satisfaction and organisational commitment* (Master's dissertation). University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa. http://hdl.handle.net/10500/3455

Lumley, E. J., Coetzee, M., Tlandinyane, R., & Ferreira, N. (2011). Exploring job satisfaction and organisational commitment of employees in the information technology environment. *Southern African Business Review*, *15*(1), 100–106. https://www.ajol.info/index.php/sabr/article/view/76394

Maggiori, C., Rossier, J., & Savickas, M. L. (2017). *Career Adapt-Abilities Scale–Short Form (CAAS-SF): Construction and validation*. https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/abs/10.1177/1069072714565856

Mallol, C. M., Holtom, B. C., Lee, T. W., & Kellerman, R. (2007). Job embeddedness in a culturally diverse environment. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *22*(1), 35–44. http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.491.5726&rep=rep1&type=pdf

Manerikar, V., & Manerikar, S. (2015). Research communication: Cronbach alpha. *aWEshkar – A Peer Reviewed Research Journal, 29*(1), 117–119. http://www.sciepub.com/reference/235165

Manetjie, O. M. (2009). *Organisational commitment.* http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/1133/04chapter3

Maree, J. (2012). Career Adapt-Abilities Scale – South African Form: Psychometric properties and construct validity. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, *80*(3), 730–733. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2012.01.005

Maree, K. (2017). *Psychology of career adaptability, employability and resilience*. Springer.

Marshall, V., & Bonner, D. (2003). Career anchors and the effects of downsizing and colon; Implications for generations and cultures at work. A preliminary investigation. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, *27*(6), 281–291. http://doi.org/10.1108/03090590310479910

Martin, A., & Roodt, G. (2008). Perception of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions in a post-merger South African tertiary institution. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *34*(1), 23–31. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v34i1.415

Matthews, B., & Ross, L. (2010). *Research methods: A practical guide for social sciences.* Pearson Education.

Mayo, A. (1991). *Managing careers: Strategies for organisations*. Biddles.

Mcleod, S. (2019). What does effect size tell you? *Simply Psychology*. https://www.simplypsychology.org/effect-size.html

Mercurio, A. (2015). Affective commitment as a core essence of organisational commitment: An integrative literature review. *Human Resource Development Review, 14*(4), 389–414. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F1534484315603612

Merriam-Webster.com dictionary. (n.d.). *Theory*. https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/theory

Mester, C., Visser, D., Roodt, G., & Kellerman, R. (2003). Leadership style and its relation to employee attitude and behaviour. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *29*(2), 72–82. https://doi.org/10.4102/SAJIP.V29I2.100

Metcalf, B., & Dick, G. (2000). Is the force still with you? Measuring police commitment. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 15*(8), 812–813. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/240257946

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1990). Affective and continuance commitment to the organisation: Evaluation of measures and analysis of concurrent and time-lagged relations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *75*(6), 710–720. https://doi.org/10.1037//0021-9010.75.6.710

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualisation of organisational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, *1*(1), 61–89. https://doi.org/10.1016/1053-4822(91)90011-Z

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1996). Affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organisation: An examination of construct validity. *Journal of Vocational Psychology, 49*(3), 252–276. https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.1996.0043

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1997). *Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research, and application.* Sage Publications.

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. P. (2004). *TCM employee commitment survey academic users guide 2004*. University of Western Ontario, Canada. https://www.employeecommitment.com/TCM-Employee-Commitment-SurveyAcademic-Package-2004.pdf

Meyer, J. P., & Herscovitch, L. (2001). Commitment in the workplace: Toward a general model. *Human Resource Management Review*, *11*(3), 299–326. http://doi.org/10.1016/s10534822(00)00053-x

Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J., & Smith, C. A. (1993). Commitment to organisations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualisation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *78*, 538–555. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.78.4.538

Meyer, J. P., Becker, T. E., & Van Dick, R. (2006). Social identities and commitments at work: Toward an integrative model. *Journal of Organisational Behavior*, *27*(5), 665–683. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.383

Meyer, J. P., Morin, A. J. S., & Vandenbergh, C. (2015). Dual commitment to organisation and supervisor: A person-centered approach. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *88*, 56–72. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1016/j.jvb.2015.02.001

Milanović, S. (2019). Career anchors of secondary school teachers. *Economic Themes*, *57*(3), 381–396. idoi: 10.2478/ethemes-2019-0022

Mizobuchi, T., & Hamasaki, T. (2020). Applicability analysis of the combination of career anchors and big-five personality for student career development. *IEEE International Conference on Teaching, Assessment, and Learning for Engineering (TALE)*, 831–834, doi: 10.1109/TALE48869.2020.9368474.

Mmako, M. M. & Letsoalo, M.E. (2021). Career adaptability in South Africa's Limpopo province: A case of Polokwane local municipality. *Journal of Public Administration 55(1)*. https://hdl.handle.net/10520/EJC-1f3cb86eab

Moshupi, M. M. (2013). *Career developmental experiences of women in senior leadership levels within civil engineering industry* (Master's dissertation). University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa. https://uir.unisa.ac.za/handle/10500/10193

Mowday, R., Steers, R., & Porter, L. (1979). The measurement of organisational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, *14*(2), 224–247. http://doi.org/10.1016/00018791(79)90072-1

Mujajati, E. (2016*). Investigating the relationship between career adaptability, employability attributes, and retention factors of employees in selected 21st century recruitment agencies* (Master's dissertation). University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa. https://uir.unisa.ac.za/handle/10500/22248

Muthuveloo, R. (2007). Antecedents and outcomes of organisational commitment among Malaysian engineers. *American Journal of Applied Sciences, 2*(6), 1095–1100. http://doi.org/10.3844/ajassp.2005.1095.1100

Muthuveloo, R., & Che Rose, R. (2005). Typology of organisational commitment. *American Journal of Applied Science*, *2*(6), 1078–1081. https://thescipub.com/abstract/ajassp.2005.1078.1081

Naghipour, K., & Galavandi, H. (2015). The relationship between career anchors and organisational commitment. *International Journal of Education Psychology, 1*, 241–245. doi**:** 10.4103/2395-2296.163938

Nawaz, M. S., & Pangil, F. (2016). The relationship between human resource development factors, career growth and turnover intention: The mediating role of organisational commitment. *Management Science Letters, 6*(2), 157–176. http://dx.doi.org/10.5267/j.msl.2015.12.006

Ndlovu, V. (2017). *The relationship between hardiness and career adaptability of students studying at Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) Colleges in Gauteng.* Unpublished master's dissertation, University of South Africa, Pretorial. URI: http://hdl.handle.net/10500/23110

Ndzobele, F. C. (2019). *Exploring the relationship between self-esteem and career anchors in the financial services industry.*Unpublished master's dissertation, University of South Africa, Pretoria. URI: http://hdl.handle.net/10500/26347

Ndzube, F. (2013). *The relationship between career anchors and employability* Unpublished, master's dissertation, University of South Africa, Pretoria. https://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/11906/Dissertation_Ndzube_F.pdf?sequence=1

Neuman, W. L. (1997). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches* (3rd ed.). Allyn & Bacon.

Neuman, W. L. (2011). *Social research methods qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Pearson Education.

Neymeh, R. (2009). *What is organisational commitment, why should managers want it in their workforce and is there any cost effective way to secure it?* (SMC Working Paper No. 5). Swiss Management Centre, Zug, Switzerland. https://www.smcuniversity.com/working_papers/Ranya_Nehmeh

Ng, T. W. H., & Feldman, D. C. (2010). The relationships of age with job attitudes: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, *63*, 677–718. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2010.01184.x

Nouri, B. A., & Mousavi, M. M. (2020). The effect of career anchors on human resource development. *Management Research and Practice*, *12*(3), 5–20. http://mrp.ase.ro/no123/f1.pdf

Nyathi, F. (2020). *The relationship between career adaptability and organisational commitment amongst employees in the investment sector.* Unpublished master's dissertation, University of South Africa, Pretoria. http://hdl.handle.net/10500/27433

Ogony, S.M. (2018). Factors causing turnover in the public service, South Africa. *Journal of Management and Administration, 1,* 77–100. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/330507909_

O'Reilly, C. (1989). Corporations, culture, and commitment: Motivation and social control in organisations. *California Management Review*, *31*(4), 1–17. http://doi/org/10.2307/41166580

O'Reilly, C., & Chatman, J. (1986). Organisational commitment and psychological attachment: The effects of compliance, identification, and internalization on prosocial behaviour. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *71*(3), 492–499. http://doi.org/10.1037//00219010.71.3.492

Potgieter, M. (2013). *The relationship between career adaptability and employee engagement amongst employees in an insurance company.* Unpublished master's dissertation, University of South Africa, Pretoria. http://hdl.handle.net/10500/13742

Potgieter, I. L. (2018). Personal attributes framework for talent retention. In M. Coetzee, I. L. Potgieter, & N. Ferreira (Eds), *Psychology of retention*. Springer, Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-98920-4_9

Potgieter, I. L., & Kelebogile, M. (2021). Organisational trust and commitment among South African public service employees: Influence of socio-demographics. *Journal of Psychology in Africa, 31*, 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1080/14330237.2021.2001909.

Public Service Commission (2017). Recruitment, retention, career pathing and utilisation of career member's expertise and skill in the public service. http://www.psc.gov.za/documents/reports/2017/V17%20Final%20RRCU%20DRAFT%20REPORT%20-%20Comm%20Comments.pdf

Rahim Nia, F., & Sadeghi, F. (2016). The moderating role of job satisfaction on the relationship between the impact of internal brand management and career anchors on desire to stay. *Quarterly Journal of Modern Marketing Studies, 4* (6), 67–88.

Reichers, A. (1985). A review and reconceptualisation of organisational commitment. *The Academy of Management Review*, *10*(3), 465. http://doi.org/10.2307/258128

Robinson, O. P., Bridges, S. A., Rollins, L. H., & Schumacker, R. E. (2019). A study of the relation between special education burnout and job satisfaction. *Journal of Research in Special Educational Needs*, *19*(4), 295–303. https://www.yourhomeworksolutions.com/wpcontent/uploads/edd/2020/07/Robinson_et_al-2019-Journal_of_Research_in_Special_Educational_Needs-4.pdf

Rossier, J., Zecca, G., Stauffer, S., Maggiori, C., & Dauwalder, J. (2012). Career AdaptAbilities Scale in a French-speaking Swiss sample: Psychometric properties and relationships to personality and work engagement. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *80*(3), 734–743. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2012.01.004

Roythorne-Jacobs, H. L. (2019). *Development of an integrated career anchor preferences, career interests and abilities measure for career path congruence.*

Unpublished master's dissertation, University of South Africa, Pretoria. URI: http://hdl.handle.net/10500/26610

Rudolph, C., Lavigne, K., Katz, I., & Zacher, H. (2017). Linking dimensions of career adaptability to adaptation results: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *102*, 151–173. http//:doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2017.06.003

Sangperm, N. (2017). Factors affecting organisational commitment of employees of autonomous university. *PSAKU International Journal of Interdisciplinary Research, 6*(1), 58–66. https://doi .org/10 .12778/2351086 18X15452373185994

Sariera, Y., Aydin, A., & Uysal, S. (2011). The effect of gender on organisational commitment of teachers: A meta-analytic analysis. *Eric Collection, 11*(2), 628–632. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ927369.pdf

Savickas, M. L. (1997). Career adaptability: An integrative construct for Life-Span, Life-Space Theory. *The Career Development Quarterly*, *45*(3), 247–259. http://doi.org/10.1002/j.21610045. 1997. tb00469.x

Savickas, M. L. (2001). A developmental perspective on vocational behaviour: Career patterns, salience, and themes. *International Journal for Educational and Vocational Guidance, 1***,** 49–57. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1016916713523

Savickas, M. L. (2005). *Career construction theory*. http://www.peopel.ku.edu/ tkrieshok/epsy845/lecture

Savickas, M. L. (2007). Prologue. In J. G. Maree (Ed.), *Shaping the story* (pp. 1–3). Van Schaik.

Savickas, M. L. (2012). Career Adapt-Abilities Scale: Construction, reliability, and measurement equivalence across 13 countries. *Journal for Vocational Behaviour, 80*(3), 661–663.

Savickas, M. L., Nota, L., Rossier, J., Dauwalder, J. P., Duarte, E., Guichard, J., Soresi, S., Esbroek, R. V., & Van Vianen, A. (2009). Life designing: A paradigm for career construction in the 21st century. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 75*(3), 239–250. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2009.04.004

Savickas, M., & Porfeli, E. (2012). Career Adapt-Abilities Scale: Construction, reliability, and measurement equivalence across 13 countries. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *80*(3), 661–673. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2012.01.011

Scales, A. (2018). *The effects of organisational commitment and harmonious passion on voluntary turnover among social workers: A mixed methods study* (Doctoral thesis). University of Mississippi, Oxford, Mississippi. https://aquila.usm.edu/dissertations

Schein, E. H. (1974). *Career anchors and career paths*: *A panel study of management school graduates.* Sloan School of Management, MIT. https://dspace.mit.edu/bitstream/handle/1721.1/1878/SWP-0707-02815445.pdf

Schein, E. H. (1978). *Career dynamics: Matching individual and organizational needs*. Addison-Wesley.

Schein, E. H. (1986). Organisational culture and leadership: A dynamic view 185. *Sage Journals, 7*(2). https://doi.org/10.1177%2F017084068600700208

Schein, E. H. (1990$_a$). *Career anchors and job/role planning: The link between career pathing and career development*. https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/4379974.pdf

Schein, E. H. (1990$_b$). *Career anchors: Discovering your real values*. Pfeiffer.

Schein, E. H. (1993). *Career anchors: Discovering your real values.* Pfeiffer.

Schein, E. H. (1996). Career anchors revisited: Implications for career development in the 21st century. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, *10*(4), 80–88. http://doi.org/10.5465/ame.1996.3145321

Schein, E. H., & Van Maanen, J. (2016). Career anchors and job/role planning: Tools for career and talent management. *Organisational Dynamics*, *45*(3), 165–173. https://iranarze.ir/wp-content/uploads/2017/01/E3330.pdf

Schreuder, A. M. G., & Coetzee, M. (2010). An overview of industrial and organisational psychology research in South Africa: A preliminary study. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 36*(1), 1–11. http://www.scielo.org.za/scielp.php?

Schreuder, A. M. G., & Coetzee, M. (2011). *Careers: An organisational perspective*. Juta.

Sehunoe, N., Viviers, R., & Mayer, C. H. (2015). Job satisfaction, organisational commitment and work engagement in an insurance company. *South African Journal of Labour Relations*, *39*(2). https://0-journals-coza.oasis.unisa.ac.za/docserver/fulltext/labour/39/2/labour_v39_n2

Seibert, S. E., Crant, J. M., & Kraimer, M. L. (1999). Proactive personality and career success. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *84*(3), 416–427. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0021-9010.84.3.416

Singh, S., Dixit, P. K. (2011). Employee retention: The art of keeping the people who keep you in business. *International Journal of Business and Management Research,1*, 441–448. https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/pdf/10.1177/2158244018810067

SPSS Tutorials. (n.d.). *SPSS*: *What is it?* https://www.spsstutorials.com/spss-what-is-it

Stewart, G., & Brown, K. (2011). *Human resource management: Linking strategy to practice* (2nd ed.). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Stoltz, E. (2014). *Employability attributes and career adaptability as predictors of staff satisfaction with retention factors* (Master's dissertation). University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa. https://uir.unisa.ac.za/handle/10500/18476

Sullivan, S., & Baruch, Y. (2009). Advances in career theory and research: A critical review and agenda for future exploration. *Journal of Management*, *35*(6), 1542–1571. http://doi.org/10.1177/0149206309350082

Suma, S., & Lesha, J. (2013). Job satisfaction and organisational commitment: The case of Shkodra Municipality. *European Scientific Journal, 9*(17), 41–51. https://eujournal.org/index.php/esj/article/view/1156

Suma, S., & Srivastava, A. (2012). Antecedents of organisational commitment across hierarchical levels. *Psychology and Developing Societies*, *24*(1), 61–83. http://doi.org/10.1177/097133361102400103

Suutari, V., & Taka, M. (2004). Career anchors of managers with global careers. *Journal of Management Development*, *23*(9), 833–847. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/235281800_Career_anchors_of_managers_with_global_careers

Tavakol, M., & Dennick, R. (2011). Making sense of Cronbach's alpha. *International Journal of Medical Education*, *2*, 53–55. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/270820426_Making_Sense_of_Cronbach's_Alpha

The Quantitative Research Sample Calculator. (n.d.). https://blog.flexmr.net/sample-size-calculator

Tien, H., Wang, Y., Chu, H., & Huang, T. (2012). Career Adapt-Abilities Scale – Taiwan form: Psychometric properties and construct validity. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *80*(3), 744–747. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2012.01.010

Tladinyane, R. (2006). *The relationship between organisational commitment and career anchors* (Master's dissertation). University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa. https://www.worldcat.org/title/relationship-between-organisational-commitment-and-career-anchors/oclc/147522964

Tladinyane, R., & Van der Merwe, M. (2015). Age and race differences on career adaptability and employee engagement amongst employees in an insurance company. *Journal of Governance and Regulation, 4*(4), 720–726. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/311238687

Tladinyane, R., & Van der Merwe, M. (2016). Career adaptability and employee engagement of adults employed in an insurance company: An exploratory study. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, *15*. http://doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v14i1.752

Tredoux, C., & Durrheim, K. (2013). *Numbers, hypotheses and conclusions: A course in statistics for the social sciences*. University of Cape Town Press.

Van Dyk, J., Coetzee, M., & Tebele, C. (2013). Organisational commitment and job embeddedness of service staff with critical and scarce skills. *South African Journal of Labour Relations*, *37*(1), 61–78. https://uir.unisa.ac.za/handle/10500/12040

Van Vuuren, L. (2010). Industrial psychology: Goodness of fit? Fit for goodness? *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *36*(2). http://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v36i2.939

Vermeulen, L. (2015). Career anchors and work behavioural style for career management in the South African public service. *European Scientific Journal, 11*(14). https://eujournal.org/index.php/esj/article/view/5704

Vos, K. G. (2019). *Career adaptability, sense of coherence and career self-efficacy of students at a residential university.* Unpublished master's dissertation, University of South Africa, Pretoria. http://hdl.handle.net/10500/26017

Wainwright, B. (2019, November 3). How to increase employee commitment. Effectory. https://www.effectory.com/knowledge/what-is-employee-commitment/

Walliman, N. (2014). *Research methods: The basics.* Routledge Taylor & Francis. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203836071

Watanabe, M. (2010). *Gender and race differences in job satisfaction and commitment among STEM Faculty: The influence of network integration and work-family balance* (Master's dissertation). University of Nebraska-Lincoln, Lincoln, Nebraska. https://digitalcommons.unl.edu/sociologydiss/4/

Welman, C., Kruger, F., & Mitchell, B. (2005). *Research methodology*. Oxford University Press.

Welman, C., Kruger, F., & Mitchell, B. (2008). *Research methodology.* Oxford University Press.

Yang, W., Guan, Y., Lai, X., She, Z., & Lockwood, A. (2015). Career adaptability and perceived over qualification: Testing a dual-path model among Chinese human resource management professionals. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *90*, 154–162. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2015.08.007

Yang, X., Feng, Y., Meng, Y., & Qiu, Y. (2019). Career adaptability, work engagement, and employee well-being among Chinese employees: The role of Guanxi. China: Capital University of Economics and Business. *Frontiers in Psychology.* https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.01029

Zacher, H. (2014). Career adaptability predicts subjective career success above and beyond personality traits and core self-evaluations. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *84*(1), 21–30. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2013.10.002

Appendix A: Turnitin digital receipt

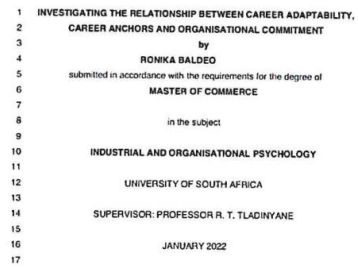
turnitin

Digital Receipt

This receipt acknowledges that Turnitin received your paper. Below you will find the receipt information regarding your submission.

The first page of your submissions is displayed below.

Submission author:	Ronika Baldeo
Assignment title:	Chapter 1
Submission title:	INVESTIGATING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CAREER ADAPT...
File name:	RONIKA_BALDEO_FINAL_DRAFT_POST_EDITING_3_JANUARY_2...
File size:	613.44K
Page count:	214
Word count:	51,743
Character count:	304,767
Submission date:	18-Jan-2022 08:55AM (UTC+0200)
Submission ID:	1743391403



INVESTIGATING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CAREER ADAPTABILITY,
CAREER ANCHORS AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT
by
RONIKA BALDEO
submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree of
MASTER OF COMMERCE
in the subject
INDUSTRIAL AND ORGANISATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA
SUPERVISOR: PROFESSOR R. T. TLADINYANE
JANUARY 2022

Appendix B: Turnitin originality report

Turnitin Originality Report

Processed on: 22-Jan-2022 20:54 SAST
ID: 1746011576
Word Count: 51747
Submitted: 1

INVESTIGATING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CAREER ADAPTABILITY, CAREER ANCHORS AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT TURNITIN REVISION 2 2022 By Ronika Baldeo

Similarity Index	Similarity by Source	
31%	Internet Sources:	28%
	Publications:	11%
	Student Papers:	14%

4% match (Internet from 05-Apr-2019)
http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/3455/dissertation_lumley_e.pdf?seq=

1% match (Internet from 27-May-2019)
http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/13098/dissertation_clinton-baker_m.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1

1% match (student papers from 29-Nov-2020)
Submitted to University of South Africa on 2020-11-29

1% match (student papers from 05-Sep-2012)
Submitted to University of South Africa on 2012-09-05

1% match ()
Jabaar, Rugshana. "The relationship between organisational commitment, career adaptability and retention factors within the retail sector in the Western Cape", 2017

< 1% match (Internet from 12-Mar-2016)
http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/6722/thesis_ferreira_n.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1

< 1% match (Internet from 08-Sep-2017)
http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/22248/dissertation_mujajati_e.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1

< 1% match (Internet from 30-Nov-2021)
https://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/27462/thesis_engelbrecht_l.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1

< 1% match (Internet from 12-Aug-2020)
http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/26610/thesis_roythorne-jacobs_hl.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1

< 1% match (Internet from 26-May-2016)
http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/20101/dissertation_mogale_pm.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1

< 1% match (Internet from 04-Jul-2014)
http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/2622/dissertation_de%20villiers_%20m.pdf.txt?sequence=3

< 1% match (Internet from 27-Nov-2019)
http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/26017/dissertation_vos_kg.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1

< 1% match (Internet from 04-Oct-2018)
http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/23278/thesis_sabbagha%2C%20mfds.pdf?s=

< 1% match (Internet from 29-Jul-2020)
http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/11906/Dissertation_Ndzube_F.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1

< 1% match (Internet from 23-May-2013)
http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/2611/dissertation_castro_m.pdf.txt?sequence=3

< 1% match (Internet from 24-Jun-2019)
http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/25528/thesis_kirsten_m.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1

< 1% match (Internet from 28-Apr-2015)
http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/5731/thesis_van%20dyk_j.pdf?sequence=1

< 1% match (Internet from 05-Oct-2020)
http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/26686/dissertation%20_leach_gc.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1

< 1% match (Internet from 12-Jun-2020)
http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/24327/dissertation_gani_k.pdf?sequence=

< 1% match (Internet from 26-May-2016)
http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/20144/thesis_chetty_p.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1

< 1% match (Internet from 26-Feb-2020)
http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/9371/Dissertation_Takawira_N.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1

< 1% match (Internet from 16-Nov-2020)
http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/26852/thesis_schoeman_pg.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1

< 1% match (Internet from 19-Feb-2020)
http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/8847/thesis_potgieter_il.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1

< 1% match (Internet from 05-Aug-2020)
http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/26600/dissertation_erasmus_s.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1

< 1% match (Internet from 13-Jan-2014)
http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/5745/thesis_pauw_d.pdf?s

< 1% match (Internet from 30-Aug-2017)
http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/23110/dissertation_ndlovu_v.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1

< 1% match (Internet from 05-Aug-2020)
http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/26597/thesis_vanderlinde_ek.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1

Appendix C: Ethics review certificate

UNISA university of south africa

UNISA CEMS/IOP RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

30 January 2019

NHREC Registration # : (if applicable)
ERC Reference # : 2018_CEMS/IOP_ 035
Name : Ms Ronika Baldeo
Student #: 31366147
Staff #: N/A

Dear Ms Ronika Baldeo,

Decision: Ethics Approval from 29 January 2019 to 29 January 2022

Researcher(s): Name: Ms Ronika Baldeo
Address: 75 Ganges Road, Belfort, Pietermaritzburg, 3201
E-mail address, telephone: +27 83 777 7085,
ronika.baldeo@kzntreasury.gov.za

Supervisor (s): Prof RT Tladinyane
E-mail address, telephone: tladirt@unisa.ac.za, +27 12 429 8095

The relationship between Career Adaptability, Career Anchors and Organisational Commitment amongst KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Treasury staff located in Pietermaritzburg

Qualification: Post graduate degree-Masters

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the Unisa CEMS/IOP Research Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. Ethics approval is granted for **Three** years.

*The **low risk application** was **reviewed** by the CEMS/IOP Research Ethics Review Committee on the 29th January 2019 in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment. The decision was approved on 29th January 2019.*

The proposed research may now commence with the provisions that:

1. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.

University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

2. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study should be communicated in writing to the Unisa CEMS/IOP Research Ethics Review Committee.
3. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.
4. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing, accompanied by a progress report.
5. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study. Adherence to the following South African legislation is important, if applicable: Protection of Personal Information Act, no 4 of 2013; Children's act no 38 of 2005 and the National Health Act, no 61 of 2003.
6. Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in future on condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data require additional ethics clearance.
7. No field work activities may continue after the expiry date (29th January 2022). Submission of a completed research ethics progress report will constitute an application for renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.

Note:
*The reference number **2018_CEMS/IOP_035** should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants, as well as with the Committee.*

Yours sincerely,

Signature
Chair of IOP ERC
E-mail: vnieka2@unisa.ac.za
Tel: (012) 429-8231

Signature
Executive Dean : CEMS
E-mail: mogalmt@unisa.ac.za
Tel: (012) 429-4805

University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

Appendix D: Participation information sheet

UNISA university of south africa

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET (COVERING LETTER)

Ethics clearance reference number:

Research permission reference number:

12 February 2019

Title: The Relationship between Career Adaptability, Career Anchors and Organisational Commitment amongst KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Treasury staff.

Dear Prospective Participant

My name is **Ronika Baldeo** and I am doing research with **Rebecca Tladinyane**, a professor in the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology towards a Masters in Commerce degree at the University of South Africa. We are inviting you to participate in a study entitled: The Relationship between Career Adaptability, Career Anchors and Organisational Commitment amongst KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Treasury staff.

Permission has been granted by the Head of Treasury to conduct this research within the department.

WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY?

This study is expected to collect important information that has the following benefits for you as a Treasury employee and the organization as a whole:

- Determine the dominant career anchors of staff and how best the organisation can adapt itself to meet these.
- Career management initiatives to allow employees to apply competencies, behaviours and attitudes that will assist with career growth.
- With Transformation on the agenda, the dominant career anchor amongst females and the career adaptability levels amongst the two different gender groups, with a specific focus on management levels.
- The levels of organisational commitment of employees
- Finally, what strategies the department can adopt aligned to career anchors and career adaptability which will foster better organisational commitment.
- The research outcomes may be used by the wider Public Service to improve on career management interventions in the Public Service.

University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

Appendix E: Consent to participate form

UNISA university of south africa

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET (COVERING LETTER)

Ethics clearance reference number:

Research permission reference number:

12 February 2019

Title: The Relationship between Career Adaptability, Career Anchors and Organisational Commitment amongst KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Treasury staff.

Dear Prospective Participant

My name is **Ronika Baldeo** and I am doing research with **Rebecca Tladinyane**, a professor in the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology towards a Masters in Commerce degree at the University of South Africa. We are inviting you to participate in a study entitled: The Relationship between Career Adaptability, Career Anchors and Organisational Commitment amongst KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Treasury staff.

Permission has been granted by the Head of Treasury to conduct this research within the department.

WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY?

This study is expected to collect important information that has the following benefits for you as a Treasury employee and the organization as a whole:

- Determine the dominant career anchors of staff and how best the organisation can adapt itself to meet these.
- Career management initiatives to allow employees to apply competencies, behaviours and attitudes that will assist with career growth.
- With Transformation on the agenda, the dominant career anchor amongst females and the career adaptability levels amongst the two different gender groups, with a specific focus on management levels.
- The levels of organisational commitment of employees
- Finally, what strategies the department can adopt aligned to career anchors and career adaptability which will foster better organisational commitment.
- The research outcomes may be used by the wider Public Service to improve on career management interventions in the Public Service.

University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

WHY AM I BEING INVITED TO PARTICIPATE?

You were selected through a random sampling process wherein permission was granted by the head of Human Resources to access a list of all permanent Treasury officials. Of a staff complement of 369, the selected sample is 158 for this study. It must be noted that there is equal presentation of different salary levels and male and female gender groups.

WHAT IS THE NATURE OF MY PARTICIPATION IN THIS STUDY?

You, as the participant will be required to complete consent to participate form, biographical data (section A) and all of the attached questionnaires (section b) by responding to all of the questions to the best of your ability in relation to your perception of what the questions requires.

CAN I WITHDRAW FROM THIS STUDY EVEN AFTER HAVING AGREED TO PARTICIPATE?

Participation on this study is voluntary and that there is no penalty or loss of benefit for non-participation. You are under no obligation to consent to participation. If you do decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a written consent form.

WHAT ARE THE POTENTIAL BENEFITS OF TAKING PART IN THIS STUDY?

That the department will be able to better understand the career anchors of officials. Further, put measures in place/interventions to ensure that officials are developed for career transition / growth and finally align strategies in the afore-mentioned areas that will foster improved commitment by officials.

ARE THERE ANY NEGATIVE CONSEQUENCES FOR ME IF I PARTICIPATE IN THE RESEARCH PROJECT?

Participation in this research will not cause any harm to you. There are no negative consequences for your participation. The time you take to complete may be slightly lengthy and your patience in this regard is appreciated.

WILL THE INFORMATION THAT I CONVEY TO THE RESEARCHER AND MY IDENTITY BE KEPT CONFIDENTIAL?

University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

You are assured that information solicited will be treated with **utmost confidentiality**.
As per the provisions of the POPI Act (Protection of Personal Information Act) wherein I take full responsibility to ensure confidentiality of information during collecting, storing and data analysis and it shall not be used for any other purpose than that of the studies.
It is hereby stated that confidentiality of information in respect your name shall not be recorded anywhere, only biographical data of gender, age, salary level and race.
Your information shall be input into a database by me with no indicator of a name. The statistician that will assist with data analysis will have access to responses and biographical data making it impossible to link participant names from the consent forms.

HOW WILL THE RESEARCHER(S) PROTECT THE SECURITY OF DATA?

Hard copies of your answers will be stored by the researcher for five years and it will be in a locked cupboard/filing cabinet in Treasury House and electronic information will be stored on a password protected computer. Future use of the stored data will be subject to further Research Ethics Review and approval if applicable. Information will thereafter be destroyed.

WILL I RECEIVE PAYMENT OR ANY INCENTIVES FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS STUDY?

No incentives are to be obtained for participating in this research.

HAS THE STUDY RECEIVED ETHICS APPROVAL

This study has received written approval from the Research Ethics Review Committee of the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, Unisa. A copy of the approval letter can be obtained from the researcher if you so wish.

HOW WILL I BE INFORMED OF THE FINDINGS/RESULTS OF THE RESEARCH?

Participants will receive feedback through a summarized report regarding the final research findings. This will occur only after the masters research study has been approved by the university.

University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

Should any further clarity be required please contact Ronika Baldeo via e-mail (ronika.baldeo@kzntreasury.gov.za).

Should you have concerns about the way in which the research has been conducted, you may contact the research ethics chairperson of the College of Economic and Management Sciences (CEMS) Ethics Review Committee, Dr Marrianne Engelbrecht (C/O the CEMS Ethics Committee) if you have any ethical concerns.

INSTRUCTIONS TO RETURN COMPLETED QUESTIONNAIRES

You are requested to hand deliver completed questionnaires to room 320A at Treasury House (office of the fieldworker, Ms T Suleman). These questionnaires must be placed in a sealed box in this office.

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet and for participating in this study.

R Baldeo

.....

RONIKA BALDEO (0837777085)

University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

Appendix F: Questionnaires

Section A: Biographical Data

Please indicate your choice by marking the appropriate selected blank block with an X

Q1: Gender

MALE	
FEMALE	

Q2: Race

AFRICAN	
INDIAN	
COLOURED	
WHITE	

Q3: Age

18-29	
30-39	
40-49	
50-65	

Q4: Salary Level

Indicate your salary level below from levels 3-16

Salary Level	

Section B: Questionnaires

Attached are three questionnaires assessing Career Anchors, Career Adaptability and Organisational Commitment. Please read through each and respond as required.

Your participation and time taken to complete is highly appreciated!!!

University of Sout
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of T
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 Sout
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 42
www.uni

CAREER ADAPT-ABILITIES SCALE (Savickas, 2010)

Instructions

- The purpose of the following questions is to determine your overall career adaptability.
- Please respond to each of the following questions by marking the number that indicates your preference.
- Please answer every question.

Key:

Not strong	Somewhat strong	Strong	Very Strong	Strongest
1	2	3	4	5

	Statement	Not Strong	Somewhat Strong	Strong	Very Strong	Strongest
1	Thinking about what my future will be like	1	2	3	4	5
2	Realising that today's choices shape my future	1	2	3	4	5
3	Expecting the future to be good	1	2	3	4	5
4	Preparing for the future	1	2	3	4	5
5	Becoming aware of the educational and vocational choices that I must make	1	2	3	4	5
6	Planning how to achieve my goals	1	2	3	4	5
7	Keeping upbeat	1	2	3	4	5
8	Making decisions by myself	1	2	3	4	5
9	Taking responsibility for my actions	1	2	3	4	5
10	Sticking up for my beliefs	1	2	3	4	5
11	Counting on myself	1	2	3	4	5
12	Doing what's right for me	1	2	3	4	5
13	Exploring my surroundings	1	2	3	4	5
14	Looking for opportunities to grow as a person	1	2	3	4	5
15	Investigating options before	1	2	3	4	5

	making a choice					
16	Observing different ways of doing things	1	2	3	4	5
17	Probing deeply into questions I have	1	2	3	4	5
18	Becoming curious about new opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
19	Performing tasks efficiently	1	2	3	4	5
20	Learning new skills	1	2	3	4	5
21	Working up to my ability	1	2	3	4	5
22	Overcoming obstacles	1	2	3	4	5
23	Solving problems	1	2	3	4	5
24	Taking care to do things well	1	2	3	4	5

CAREER ORIENTATIONS INVENTORY (Schein, 1990)

Instructions

- The purpose of this questionnaire is to stimulate your thoughts about your own areas of competence, your motives, and your values.
- Try to answer the questions as honestly as you can and work quickly. Avoid extreme ratings except in situations in which you clearly have strong feelings in one direction or the other.

HOW TO RATE THE ITEMS

For each of the next forty times, rate how true that item is for you in general by assigning a number from 1 to 6. The higher the number, the more that item is true for you. For example, if the item says "I dream of being the president of a company," you would rate that as follows:

"1" if the statement is never true for you
"2" or "3" if the statement is occasionally true for you
"4" or "5" if the statement is often true for you
"6" if the statement is always true for you

Use the following scale to rate how true each of the items is for you:

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

		Never true for me	Occa-sionally true for me		Often true for me		Always true for me	For office use only
	Statement	←					→	
1	I dream of being so good at what I do that my expert advice will be sought continually.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
2	I am most fulfilled in my work when I have been able to integrate and manage the efforts of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
3	I dream of having a career that will allow me the freedom to do a job my own way and on my own schedule.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
4	Security and stability are more important to me than freedom and autonomy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
5	I am always on the lookout for ideas that would permit me to start my own enterprise.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
6	I will feel successful in my career only if I have a feeling of having made a real contribution to the welfare of society.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
7	I dream of a career in which I can solve problems or win out in situations that are extremely challenging.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
8	I would rather leave my organization than to be put into a job that would compromise my ability to pursue personal and family concerns.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
9	I will feel successful in my career only if I can develop my technical or functional skills to a very high level of competence.	1	2	3	4	5	6	

		Never true for me	Occa-sionally true for me		Often true for me		Always true for me	For office use only
	Statement	←					→	
10	I dream of being in charge of a complex organization and making decisions that affect many people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
11	I am most fulfilled in my work when I am completely free to define my own tasks, schedules, and procedures.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
12	I would rather leave my organization altogether than accept an assignment that would jeopardize my security in that organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
13	Building my own business is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position in someone else's organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
14	I am most fulfilled in my career when I have been able to use my talents in the service of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
15	I will feel successful in my career only if I face and overcome very difficult challenges.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
16	I dream of a career that will permit me to integrate my personal, family, and work needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
17	Becoming a senior functional manager in my area of expertise is more attractive to me than becoming a general manager.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
18	I will feel successful in my career only if I become a general manager in some organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
19	I will feel successful in my career only if I achieve complete autonomy and freedom.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
20	I seek jobs in organizations that will give me a sense of security and stability.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
21	I am most fulfilled in my career when I have been able to build something that is entirely the result of my own ideas and efforts.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
22	Using my skills to make the world a better place to live and work is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
23	I have been most fulfilled in my career when I have solved seemingly unsolvable problems or won out over seemingly impossible odds.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
24	I feel successful in life only if I have been able to balance my personal, family, and career requirements.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
25	I would rather leave my organization than accept a rotational assignment that would take me out of my area of expertise.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
26	Becoming a general manager is more attractive to me than becoming a senior functional manager in my current area of expertise.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
27	The chance to do a job my own way, free of rules and constraints, is more important to me than security.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
28	I am most fulfilled in my work when I feel that I have complete financial and employment security.	1	2	3	4	5	6	

		Never true for me		Occa-sionally true for me		Often true for me	Always true for me	For office use only
	Statement	←					→	
29	I will feel successful in my career only if I have succeeded in crating or building something that is entirely my own product or idea.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
30	I dream of having a career that makes a real contribution to humanity and society.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
31	I seek out work opportunities that strongly challenge my problem solving and/or competitive skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
32	Balancing the demands of personal and professional life is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
33	I am most fulfilled in my work when I have been able to use my special skills and talents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
34	I would rather leave my organization than accept a job that would take me away from the general managerial track.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
35	I would rather leave my organization than accept a job that would reduce my autonomy and freedom.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
36	I dream of having a career that will allow me to feel a sense of security and stability.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
37	I dream of starting up and building my own business.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
38	I would rather leave my organization than accept an assignment that would undermine my ability to be of service to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
39	Working on problems that are almost unsolvable is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position.	1	2	3	4	5	6	
40	I have always sought out work opportunities that would minimize interference with personal or family concerns.	1	2	3	4	5	6	

At this point, look over your answers and locate all of the items that you rated highest. Pick out the THREE items that seem most true for you and give *each* of those items an additional FOUR (4) points.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME!

ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT SURVEY

Instructions

- The purpose of the following questions is to determine your overall organisational commitment.
- Please respond to each of the following questions by marking the number that indicates your preference.
- Please try to answer every question.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Sometimes disagree	Neutral	Sometimes agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Sometimes disagree	Neutral	Sometimes agree	Agree	Strongly agree	For office use only
Affective Commitment Scale Items									
1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2	I enjoy discussing my organisation with people outside of it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3	I really feel as if this organisation`s problem are my own	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4	I think I could easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5	I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7	This org has a great deal of personal meaning for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8	I do not feel strong sense of belonging to my organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Sometimes disagree	Neutral	Sometimes agree	Agree	Strongly agree	For office use only
Continuance Commitment Scale Items									
9	I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
10	It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
11	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organisation right now	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
12	It wouldn`t be too costly for me to leave my organisation in the near future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
13	Right now, staying at my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
14	I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
15	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
16	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organisation is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice; another organisation may not match the overall benefits I have here	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
17	If I had not already put so much of myself into this organisation, I might	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Sometimes disagree	Neutral	Sometimes agree	Agree	Strongly agree	For office use only
Continuance Commitment Scale Items									
	consider working elsewhere								

	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Sometimes disagree	Neutral	Sometimes agree	Agree	Strongly agree	For office use only
Normative Commitment Scale Items									
18	I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
19	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
20	I would feel guilty if I left my organisation now	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
21	This organisation deserves my loyalty.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
22	I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
23	I owe a great deal to my organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Appendix G: Request for permission correspondences

MR LS MAGAGULA
THE HEAD OF DEPARTMENT
KZN PROVINCIAL TREASURY

SUBJECT: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH WITH KZN PROVINCIAL TREASURY OFFICIALS

Dear Mr Magagula

I am currently pursuing a Master's in Industrial and Organisational Psychology (full research) through UNISA with bursary funding from Treasury. I kindly request permission to conduct research (questionnaire/survey based). A sample of 157 Treasury officials are targeted and they would be required to complete 3 inventories adding to 88 questions. The average time taken to complete would be 45 – 60 minutes which can be completed in their own time.

Research Details and Motivation for Research

Research Topic –
The relationship between Career Adaptability, Career Anchors and Organisational Commitment amongst KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Treasury officials.

Motivation

The context of this research is on Career Anchors and Career Adaptability and how these key constructs of career development relate to individuals demonstrating commitment to an organisation.

Career Adaptability - denotes an individual's ability for coping with current and anticipated vocational development tasks, occupational transitions, and work traumas.
Career Anchors – denotes a talent, motive, value or attitude which gives stability and direction to a person's career (e.g. stability/security/financial).

Understanding the impact of career adaptability and career anchors amongst KZN Provincial Treasury staff as a means to foster organisational commitment will assist the department in understanding what the dominant career anchors are, whether the department "supports" these career anchors, whether the department supports career transitions/career pathing of staff through various departmental career development strategies including expanding work exposure for career growth and the perceptions of employees on commitment to Treasury.

Although much related research has been done in the private sector and even in academic institutions, it is lacking in the South African Public Service, leaving a gap in the literature. Also, the Career management strategies adopted by the Public Service is somehow limited.

The outcomes of this study will assist the department as follows: -

- Determine the dominant career anchors of staff and how best the organisation can adapt itself to meet these.
- Career management initiatives to allow employees to apply competencies, behaviours and attitudes that will assist with career growth.
- With Transformation on the agenda, the dominant career anchor amongst females and the career adaptability levels amongst the two different gender groups, with a specific focus on management levels.
- The levels of organisational commitment of employees
- Finally, what strategies the department can adopt aligned to career anchors and career adaptability which will foster better organisational commitment.
- The research outcomes may be used by the wider Public Service to improve on career management interventions in the Public Service.

(Please see attached a detailed Research Proposal, as has been accepted by my supervisor).

It is envisaged that the research will be initiated in June 2018, subject to the granting of Ethical Clearance by the university and may tentatively end in September 2018, with due regard to positive participation (participation is not mandatory).

It is humbly requested that due consideration be given to my request and approved, please.

R Baldeo
.....
Mrs Ronika Baldeo
Deputy Director: HR Policy, Systems and HRD

22/05/18
.....
Date

Noted and supported.
.....
Mrs Kogie Chetty
Director: Human Resources

23/5/18
.....
Date

Approved / ~~Not Approved~~
.....
Mr LS Magagula
Head of Department – KZN Provincial Treasury

23/05/2018
.....
Date

MRS KOGIE CHETTY
DIRECTOR : HUMAN RESOURCES
KZN PROVINCIAL TREASURY

SUBJECT: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO ACCESS AND USE A REPORT OF ALL PERMANENT EMPLOYEES OF TREASURY

Dear Mrs Chetty

I am currently pursuing a Master's in Industrial and Organisational Psychology (full research) through UNISA with bursary funding from Treasury. I kindly request permission to access and use an HR report that reflects all permanent Treasury employees categorised into salary levels, gender, age and race.

I would require this information to randomly select the sample of participants that will be invited to participate in this research via email using there official email addresses.

I hereby declare that the information on the report shall be used solely for the purpose indicated and strict confidentiality shall be maintained regarding the content of the report.

It is humbly requested that due consideration be given to my request and approved, please.

R Baldeo
.....

Mrs Ronika Baldeo
Deputy Director: HR Policy, Systems and HRD

22/5/18
.....
Date

Approved / Not Approved

.....
Mrs Kogie Chetty
Director: Human Resources

23/5/18
.....
Date

MR C RAJAH
DIRECTOR : IT
KZN PROVINCIAL TREASURY

SUBJECT: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO USE WORK EMAIL TO DISTRIBUTE AND RECEIVE RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRES TO EMPLOYEES OF TREASURY

Dear Mr Rajah

I am currently pursuing a Master's in Industrial and Organisational Psychology (full research) through UNISA with bursary funding from Treasury. I kindly request permission to use the work email facility for purposes of distributing research questionnaires and receiving completed questionnaires via email.

Please see attached approval granted by the HOD to conduct this research in the department.

It is humbly requested that due consideration be given to my request and approved, please.

R Baldeo
.....
Mrs Ronika Baldeo
Deputy Director: HR Policy, Systems and HRD

1/10/18
.....
Date

Approved / ~~Not Approved~~

.....
Mr Christopher Rajah
Director: IT

1/10/2018
.....
Date

Appendix H: Confidentiality agreements

UNISA university of south africa

CONFIDENTIALITY AGREEMENT WITH STATISTIAN

This is to certify that I, **Suwisa Muchengetwa**, the statistician will conduct the analysis of data for the following research:

The relationship between Career Adaptability, Career Anchors and Organisational Commitment amongst KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Treasury staff.

I acknowledge that the research project is conducted by Ronika Baldeo of the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, University of South Africa.

I understand that any information obtained during my assistance of providing statistical analysis services must remain confidential and in line with the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.

This includes information about participants, their biographical data and research responses.

I understand that any unauthorized release or carelessness in the handling of this confidential information is considered a breach of the duty to maintain confidentiality that could result in harm to participants and consequently possible liability.

Full Names: Suwisa Muchengetwa

Signature: 

Date: 02/10/2018

Full name of Primary Researcher: Ronika Baldeo

Signature of Primary Researcher: R. Baldeo

Date: 2/10/18

UNISA university of south africa

CONFIDENTIALITY AGREEMENT: FIELDWORKER ALLOCATED RESOURCE TO DISTRIBUTE AND RECEIVE QUESTIONNAIRES.

This is to certify that I, TASNEEM SULEMAN, the fieldworker as an allocated resource that will assist in distributing and receiving questionnaires on behalf of the researcher of the research project:

The relationship between Career Adaptability, Career Anchors and Organisational Commitment amongst KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Treasury staff

I acknowledge that the research project is conducted by Ronika Baldeo of the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, University of South Africa.

I understand that any information obtained during my assistance in collecting questionnaires from participants must remain confidential and in line with the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.

This includes information about the participants, in respect of their biographical data and responses, as well as any other information pertaining to their participation on this project.

I understand that any unauthorized release or carelessness in the handling of this confidential information is considered a breach of the duty to maintain confidentiality that could result in harm to participants and consequently possible liability.

Full Names: TASNEEM SULEMAN

Signature:

Date: 10/01/2019

Full name of Primary Researcher: Ronika Baldeo

Signature of Primary Researcher: RBaldeo

Date: 10/01/2019

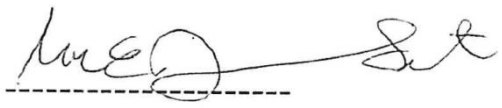
Should you have any questions or comments regarding the study, please contact Ronika Baldeo on 0837777085 or e-mail at ronika.baldeo@kzntreasury.gov.za.

Appendix I: Proof of professional editing

Mrs ME Joubert
Faerie Glen
Pretoria
31 January 2022

This is to confirm that I, Moya Eileen Joubert, in my capacity as a professional language practitioner (now retired) with approximately 40 years' experience, conducted a thorough language edit of a master's dissertation for Ms Ronika Baldeo.

Title of dissertation: "Investigating the relationship between career adaptability, career anchors and organisational commitment"



ME Joubert