Organisational career management in a protean and boundaryless world: A mixed-methods study

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Statement of Originality

To the best of my knowledge, this thesis is my own work and contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the thesis itself.

This work has not been previously submitted for any other degree at any university.

(Signed)_____ Date: 01/02/2019

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ABSTRACT

Employee development is an integral component of strategic human resources management to engage and retain employees. Protean and boundaryless career theories suggest that that organisational responsibility for employee career development has decreased. This theoretical shift was based on the assumption that with increased organisational change, downsizing, and re-structuring, employees would no longer be in a position to rely on organisations to support their career development, and instead employees would need to take responsibility for their own employability. More than two decades after these initial assertions, a small body of empirical research has highlighted that this shift from organisation to individual responsibility has not been as dramatic as first hypothesised. Rather than diminishing, the role of organisations in career development is as important as ever. This paradox between theory and practice highlights a gap in theoretical understanding of the role of the organisation in career development. In this PhD thesis, we place organisational career management (OCM) under the research microscope. First, data on the types and frequencies of individual OCM practices reported in the 1996, 1999, 2004, 2009, and 2015 Australian Cranet surveys was examined. Counterintuitive findings indicate that the use of more than half the OCM practices increased over time. Second, we interviewed 51 employees to investigate their perception of OCM. Employees identified both formal and informal OCM, and findings highlight that rather than operating in opposition, individually-driven career development and OCM are working in partnership. Next, in an effort to understand how organisations can support employees navigating voluntary career change, a systematic and theoretical review of voluntary career change was conducted. This review highlights lack of empirical research on the utility of important and well-developed career transition models and the importance of organisational factors in buffering the negative impact on employees during the pre-career change period.

Finally, further investigating two of the factors that support employee engagement in OCM, we adapted the social cognitive model of career self-management to examine the factors that enable career adaptive behaviours for employees navigating career change. Our findings demonstrate that the social cognitive model of career self-management model is a useful framework for design of strategic organisational career management systems. Our overall findings indicate OCM remains an important component of a human resources strategy.

List of Publications

This thesis consists of four distinct studies. All four studies have been presented at peer-reviewed conferences and reported within chapters in this thesis, as detailed below.

1. Hess, N. & Jepsen, D. (2016). *The impact of organisational career management practices from 1996 to 2015 on staff turnover and innovation.* Paper presented at the Australian and New Zealand Academy of Management Conference in Brisbane, Australia on December 8th. As detailed in Chapter 2.
2. Hess, N. & Jepsen, D. (2017). *The black box of voluntary career change: A systematic review and research agenda.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management, Atlanta, Georgia, USA on August 8th. As detailed in Chapter 4.
3. Hess, N. & Jepsen, D. (2018). *Organizational career management in a protean and boundaryless world: A mixed-methods study.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management, Chicago, Illinois, USA on August 6th. As detailed in Chapter 3.
4. Hess, N. & Jepsen, D. (2018). *You've got a friend in me: Importance of leadership in employee career management.* Paper presented at the Australian and New Zealand Academy of Management Conference in Melbourne, Australia on December 8th. As detailed in Chapter 5.

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Chapter 1

General Introduction

Organisational career management is a paradox. On the one hand, organisations are tasked with supporting employee career development for their strategic advantage. On the other hand, employees are tasked with managing their own career development. To unite these apparently conflicting perspectives, this thesis examines organisational career management (OCM) from both the organisational and individual perspective. Our primary aim is to better understand the role of the organisation in employee career development in a boundaryless and protean world. First, this thesis examines both the changes in OCM practices offered by organisations over the last twenty years and the impact of OCM practices at an organisational level. Second, we explore how employees, direct managers, and human resources managers conceptualised both the OCM system and the factors that support employee engagement in OCM. Third, a systematic review of the voluntary career change literature is conducted. Finally, we look to better understand how organisations can build an OCM system to support employees to engage in adaptive career behaviours when managing voluntary career change. Given the thesis by publication nature of this thesis, this introductory chapter provides a preview of the key theoretical and empirical frameworks informing the thesis, which are expanded on within each of the chapters. The complete list of references included in this thesis is provided at the end of the thesis. The introductory chapter concludes with an overview of the chapters in the thesis.

Boundaryless and protean careers

A career is the "evolving sequence of person's work experiences over time" (Arthur, Hall, & Lawrence, 1989, p. 8). More than two decades ago, theoretical perspectives of careers shifted from what was termed "traditional" or "organisational" career, i.e. a linear progression of roles within an organisation, to individual-focused theoretical perspectives, such as "boundaryless" or "protean" career. Boundaryless career (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996) is the opposite of the organisational career. The six

distinct meanings of the boundaryless career were initially conceptualised as movement across separate employers, external validation from outside the employer, sustained by external networks, intra-organisational boundary crossing, rejection of career opportunities for personal or family reasons, and perception of boundarylessness by the career actor (Arthur, 2014; Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). Boundaryless career has more recently been conceptualised with a focus on two types of mobility, namely psychological mobility or boundaryless mindset, and physical mobility or organisational mobility preference (Guan, Arthur, Khapova, Hall, & Lord, 2018; Sullivan & Arthur, 2006). Underlying each of these definitions of the boundaryless career is the basic premise that these careers are independent of, rather than dependent on, the organisation. Protean career also emphasised individual career responsibility, but rather than removing the organisation, the focus shifted to an interdependent relationship where both individual and organisation had a role which may or not be mutually dependent or beneficial (Hall, 1986, 1996b) Protean career is termed from the Greek god Proteus, who changed form as needed. A "protean" career is viewed as adaptable and flexible. Hall (1996) proposed three meanings for the protean career, namely idiosyncratic career pathways, flexibility between home-work interface, and where the individual is the central figure while the organisation provides context. Protean career has more recently been conceptualised in terms of the career management attitudes of self-directed and values-driven career management (Briscoe, Hall, & Frautschy DeMuth, 2006). Those with a values-driven protean career orientation are more likely to use their own personal values to guide their career development, those with a self-directed protean career orientation will independently manage their careers, while those with a boundaryless mindset career orientation are more comfortable with sustaining relationships across organisational boundaries, and

those with an organisational mobility preference are comfortable developing a career by physically changing employers (Briscoe et al., 2006).

'Organisational' career

Protean and boundaryless careers were established as alternative perspectives to what was termed the "organisational" career. An organisational career was defined as a career that will "unfold in a single employment setting" (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996, p. 5) or "a series of upward moves, with steadily increasing income, power, status, and security" (Hall, 1996a, p. 1). An organisational career provided stability and security, where the organisation was said to have had direct responsibility for employee career development. The shift from this 'organisational' career to individual focused theoretical perspectives of careers was largely shaped by changes in the labour market. Given increased organisational downsizing and restructuring, and increased impact of technology and globalisation, it was proposed that the employment relationship between individual and their organisation could no longer provide secure career pathways.

However, there has been critique about both the death of the organisational career and this definition of the organisational career (Arnold & Cohen, 2008; Clarke, 2013; Guest & Rodrigues, 2012; Lips-Wiersma & Hall, 2007). Organisational tenure has remained relatively stable across countries over time (Rodrigues & Guest, 2010). When organisations provide sufficient opportunities, even employees with boundaryless or protean career orientations are content to remain in a single organisation (Kostal & Wiernek, 2017; Nelissen, Forrier, & Verbruggen, 2017). Furthermore, when an organisation removed their career support, employees reacted negatively as they did not have the guidance needed to direct their career development within the organisation (Lips-Wiersma & Hall, 2007). Inkson and colleagues (2012) called on scholars to bring the boundaries back and examine the context of how careers develop within and across

organisations. In an attempt to re-claim the importance of the organisational career, Clarke (2013) made the following five propositions about the organisational career:

- Proposition 1: Organisational careers can be flexible, challenging and mobile
- Proposition 2: Organisational careers provide opportunities for employee development
- Proposition 3: Organisational careers can be jointly managed
- Proposition 4: Organisational careers foster balanced relationships
- Proposition 5: Organisational careers can hinder mobility.

This positioning of the organisational career is a balance between the bureaucratic or stable "organisational career" as previously defined, and the boundaryless and protean career theoretical perspectives. The individual may be taking increased responsibility for their career development, but the organisation provides the support system. The organisation can therefore provide an important context for understanding the individual-driven career perspectives (Budhwar & Baruch, 2003; Greenhaus, Callanan, & Godshalk, 2000).

Organisational career management

Organisational career management (OCM) "is usually employed to cover the various policies and practices, deliberately established by organisations, to improve the career effectiveness of their employees" (Orpen, 1994, p. 28). However**,** there is little consensus as to how OCM is operationalised. On one end of the continuum, OCM has been conceptualised with a focus on organisational workforce planning (De Vos, Dewettinck, & Buyens, 2009; Evans, 1988), while at the other end of the continuum OCM was conceptualised with a focus on providing opportunities for individual employee career development (Eby, Allen, & Brinley, 2005; Guan, Zhou, Ye, Jiang, & Zhou, 2015). This divide incorporates OCM's dual focus as a function of both the

organisation through career management and of supporting the individual through career planning (Schein, 1971, 1978). Career management as the organisational function relates to strategic management of the workforce to meet future needs, while career planning as the individual function relates to the process of supporting employee career exploration, career goal setting, and realising these career goals (Gutteridge, Leibowitz, & Shore, 1993a; Gutteridge & Otte, 1983; Noe, 1996). OCM provides a system of practices for employees to take responsibility for their individual career development, which can also support the employee seeing how their career goals meet their organisational workforce requirements (De Vos, Dewettinck, & Buyens, 2008). Succession planning by the organisation to ensure a managerial workforce for the future can be more effectively realised when the organisational succession planning process incorporates a review of individual employee career goals (Schein, 1978; Taylor & McGraw, 2004).

Baruch and Peiperl (2000) identified that research on careers within organisations lacked a system or theory for empirical investigation. As shown in Figure 1, Baruch and Peiperl (2000) defined five levels of OCM practices. *Basic* practices require low level of sophistication and moderate organisational involvement, such as job postings. *Formal* practices require moderate level of sophistication and lowest level of organisational involvement, such as common career paths. *Multi-directional* practices require the highest level of sophistication and moderate level of organisational involvement, such as peer appraisals. *Active planning* practices require moderate level of sophistication and the highest level of organisational involvement, such as performance appraisal as basis for career planning or succession planning. *Active management* in the centre of the model requires moderate sophistication and moderate level of organisational involvement, such as job rotations. OCM practices should be implemented according to both the internal organisational strategy and external

demands on the organisation (Baruch, 2003; Baruch & Peiperl, 2000; Budhwar & Baruch, 2003). Cultural differences have been found in the implementation of the different levels of OCM practices (Baruch & Budhwar, 2006; Budhwar & Baruch, 2003; Lewis & Arnold, 2012). Across organisations, OCM practices are seen as part of an overall OCM system.

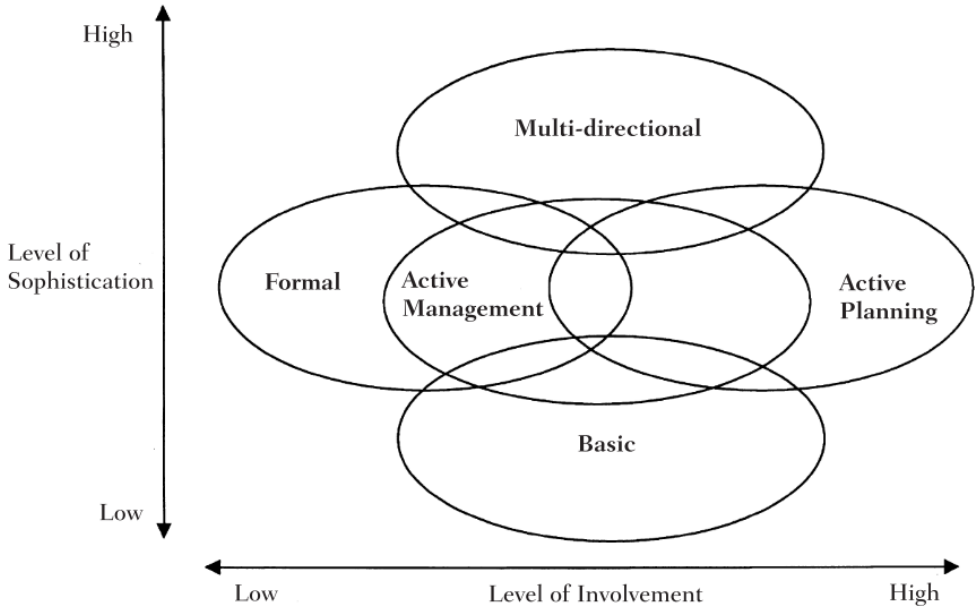


Figure 1. Model of OCM practices, Baruch and Peiperl (2000)

In the early 1990s, OCM systems were seen to be a strategic priority for the majority of organisations surveyed (Armstrong, 1992; Gutteridge, Leibowitz, & Shore, 1993b). Although empirical understanding of OCM was said to be underdeveloped (Russell, 1991). The shift to individual perspectives of careers also meant a shift in research away from OCM research (Clarke, 2013). Boundaryless and protean career theory highlight the importance of individual career responsibility, suggesting a reduction in OCM. Strategic human resources management (SHRM) and talent management literature challenge these assumptions (Dries, 2013). Strategic human resources management systems are seen as a collection of human resources practices to

drive organisational advantage (Boxall & Purcell, 2000; Jiang & Messersmith, 2018). Employee development is seen as increasingly important to achieve organisational performance (Hailey, Farndale, & Truss, 2005; Jacobs & Washington, 2003). Talent management focuses on targeting development opportunities to a group of employees that are identified as strategically important to the organisation (De Vos & Dries, 2013; Pandita & Ray, 2018; Thunnissen, 2016). Talent management, such as high flier programs, could also be perceived as a type of OCM practice. Through this lens of SHRM, rather than having a diminishing role, OCM could be perceived as being more demanding on the organisation, as the organisation strategically balances the workforce planning needs of the organisation and supporting career planning needs of the indivdiual (Lips-Wiersma & Hall, 2007).

Organisational outcomes of OCM

In studies examining OCM's organisational impact, supportive and developmental OCM practices were related to improved financial performance (De Vos et al., 2009), and increased organisational innovation (Segers & Inceoglu, 2012). However, most studies, rather than focused on organisational outcomes, have focused on the individual employee level outcomes. Employees who perceive their organisation supports their career development reported higher levels of subjective career success and commitment to their organisation than employees that perceived lower levels of support (De Vos et al., 2009; Guan et al., 2015; Moon & Choi, 2017). However, these individual outcomes appeared to be influenced by an employee's perception of the career opportunities available in their organisation (Kraimer, Seibert, Wayne, Liden, & Bravo, 2011) and their level of career self-management (Guan et al., 2015). The extent to which individuals perceive career opportunities available within their organisation will influence the extent to which they take advantage of career engagement strategies (Ghulam, 2000; Kraimer et al., 2011).

Employee engagement in OCM

Therefore, it stands to reason that individuals will engage in more career development activities when an OCM system is in place (Spurk, Kauffeld, Barthauer, & Heinemann, 2015). Although much like other training and learning opportunities (Kyndt, Onghena, Smet, & Dochy, 2014), having a strategic human resources practice in place does not guarantee that an individual will engage in this practice (Boyatzis, 2006; Kyndt & Baert, 2013). The theory of planned behaviour suggests there are three antecedents to intention to act in a certain way (Deci & Ryan, 2012). These three antecedents are perceived behavioural control, subjective norm, and attitude. Perceived behavioural control refers to the extent the individual perceives they have control over the outcomes of the behaviour. Subjective norm refers to the extent of social support to perform the behaviour, so if significant others support the behaviour then individuals are more likely to perform that behaviour. Attitude reflects the general perspective or attitude towards the behaviour, the more favourable an individual's attitude towards the behaviour, so that the more likely they are to perform the behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Armitage & Conner, 2001). Employees' intention to participate in organisational learning and job search activity was significantly predicted by attitude toward the activity, perceived behavioural control, and subjective norm (Ho, Tsai, & Day, 2011; Zikic & Saks, 2009). Both previous experience and environmental parameters including social support and perceived time available impact on these three antecedents of behavioural intention. The time then spent in career exploration and examining career resources further predicted the investment in future job search activity (Zikic & Klehe, 2006; Zikic & Saks, 2009).

Social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1980, 1991) also explains decision making and judgement based on the interaction of environmental factors, personal factors, and behaviour. The extension of this theory into the careers field, social cognitive career

theory (SCCT) reflects the interactive triad of environment, personal and behavioural factors, with an additional emphasis on the three central career-related variables of self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and personal goals. Self-efficacy is defined as "judgements of the likelihood that one can organise and execute given courses of action required to deal with prospective situations" (Bandura, 1980, p. 263). Outcome expectations are "personal beliefs about the consequences or outcomes of performing particular behaviours" (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 2004, p. 262). Goals allow individuals to enact individual agency and activity toward the desired outcome. According to SCCT, self-efficacy and outcome expectations affect the goals in which one engages, and the effort extended toward the achievement of these goals.

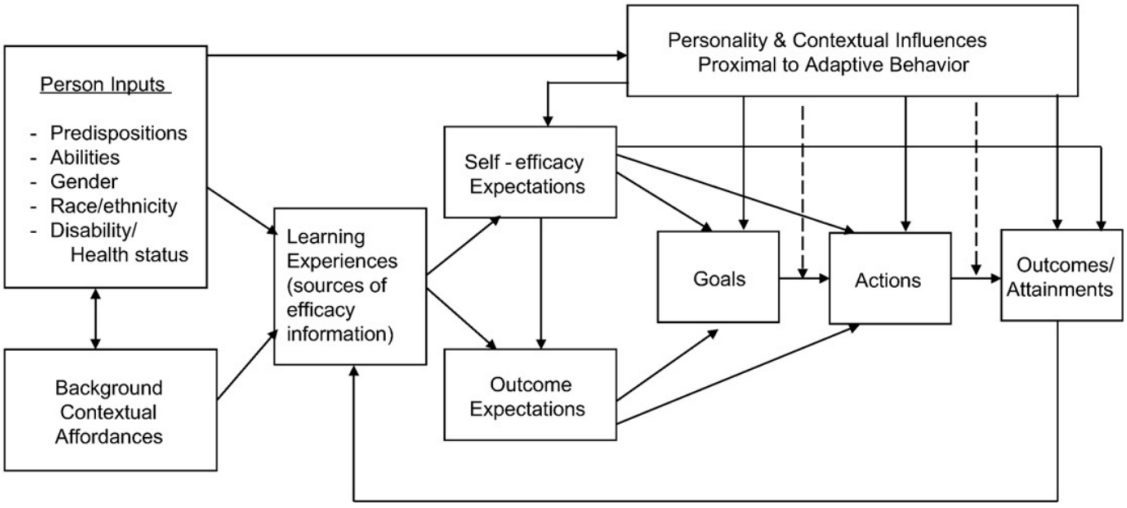
Social cognitive model of career self-management

Theory of planned behaviour and social cognitive career theory are useful in examining the outcomes of career development behaviours, such as choosing a particular course of study or occupational path. In a further extension of social cognitive theory to individual career self-management, the social cognitive model of career self-management (SC-CSM) explicitly explains the factors that allow people to engage in adaptive behaviours that support their own career development across their working life (Lent & Brown, 2013). Career self-management refers to the proactivity employees show with respect to managing their career (King, 2004; Kossek et al., 1998; Orpen, 1994). As outlined in Figure 2, SC-CSM proposes that individual engagement in adaptive career behaviours, identified as 'actions' in the model, is directly related to self-efficacy, outcome expectations, goals, and personality and contextual factors. Individuals who have high levels of self-efficacy and feel supported in their environment are likely to engage in adaptive career behaviours. Employees who engage in career self-management appear to have higher expectations of OCM support (De Vos

et al., 2009), they also can more readily identify career opportunities within the organisation (Guan et al., 2015).

Figure 2. Social cognitive model of career self-management, Lent & Brown (2013)

Voluntary career change



Career mobility is one such career opportunity that employees navigate. Boundaryless and protean career theoretical perspectives suggest employees will navigate an increased number of career transitions across their working lives (Adams, Hayes, & Hopson, 1976; Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Hall, 1996a). Voluntary career change is a unique form of career transition, which unlike involuntary or forced career change, is initiated by the individual. Although understanding the transitional nature of employees adapting to forced changes remains important, individuals initiating a voluntary career change are also likely to face transitional challenges as they plan or enact a career change within their current employer or to a different employer. The period prior to initiating the voluntary career change could be considered as a period of career indecision as the individual weighs up the cognitive (Prochaska & Diclemente, 1983; Rhodes & Doering, 1983) and emotional (George & Jones, 2001; Louis, 1980) decision making processes. Furthermore, unique from changing organisations or changing job roles, career change will likely involve additional investment by the

employee to support their movement into the new career area. Understanding voluntary career change is important for organisations to retain key strategic employees, individuals to better manage the challenges of career change, and industry groups looking to retain skilled employees in areas of skill shortage. Organisational commitment has been found to buffer the impact of voluntary career change intention on the individual (Chang, Chi, & Miao, 2007; Hess et al., 2012; Morin, Meyer, McInerney, Marsh, & Ganotice, 2015), suggesting that the individual weighs up both organisational and individual factors when navigating voluntary career change.

Role Strain versus role enrichment

Employees navigating voluntary change face increased demands on their time and resources, from initially resolving their career indecision, through to making preparatory actions to support movement into a new career area. These preparatory actions could include further study or skill development toward a future career while still engaged in their current job role. Role strain theory (Goode, 1960) suggests that the demands in one area of a person's life will impact on other areas. Alternatively, role enrichment theory (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) and role accumulation theory (Bourne, Wilson, Lester, & Kickul, 2009; Sieber, 1974) propose that rather than impeding on each other, engagement in different roles can strengthen an individual. These theoretical perspectives have been studied extensively in relation to the dual benefits of engagement in activities related to work and family activities (Moazami-Goodarzi, Nurmi, Mauno, & Rantanen, 2015; Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer, & King, 2002). Role enrichment and accumulation theories have found many accumulative positive effects of personal roles on work performance, and vice versa. To achieve these positive outcomes, individuals need to have the personal resources to support their engagement in the different roles (Harrington & Ladge, 2009; Ruderman et al., 2002). Research has found that both individual and organisational factors help employees achieve role

enrichment (McNall, Masuda, Shanock, & Nicklin, 2011; McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda, 2010). In accordance with SC-CSM, both individual and contextual factors provide the personal resources to support engagement in adaptive career behaviours. Understanding the individual and organisational factors that support employees to effectively manage the demands of voluntary career change is likely to be important in the effective design of an OCM system. Furthermore, through examining the factors that support individually-driven career development within the organisational context, we can look to resolve the OCM paradox and provide the needed synergy between the individually driven and organisational career perspectives (Arthur, 2014).

Overview of research thesis

This thesis explores the role of the organisation in employee career development and the factors that support engagement in OCM. The key research questions examined in this thesis are:

1. How have flexible employment conditions and organisational career management practices changed over time?
2. Do active management organisational career management practices impact organisational outcomes?
3. How do human resources managers, line managers, and employees perceive the organisational career management system?
4. What factors support employee engagement in organisational career management?
5. What are the antecedents and consequences of voluntary career change?
6. Does self-efficacy and leader-member exchange increase employee engagement in adaptive career behaviours to support voluntary career change?

The thesis has six chapters. This first chapter provides a preview of the theoretical frameworks and literature informing the thesis. The following four chapters present studies examining the organisational and individual employee level perspectives, and examining the research questions, as outlined in Figure 3.

Level	Study	Focus of the study	Research questions
Organisational	Study 1: OCM practices	• Longitudinal analysis of flexible employment conditions and OCM practices over 20 years • Impact of OCM practices on organisational innovation and employee turnover	1. How have flexible employment conditions and organisational career management practices changed over time? 2. Do active management organisational career management practices impact employee turnover and organisational innovation?
Individual	Study 2: OCM system and engagement	• Perception of OCM system and the factors that support employee engagement in OCM.	3. How do human resources managers, line managers, and employees perceive the organisational career management system? 4. What factors support employee engagement in organisational career management?
	Study 3: Voluntary career change	• Theoretical and systematic review of the antecedents and outcomes of voluntary career change.	5. What are the antecedents and consequences of voluntary career change?
Individual and organisational	Study 4: Employee engagement in adaptive career behaviours	• Individual and organisational factors investigated as direct factors, and career change intention investigated as a moderator, for engagement in adaptive career behaviours	6. Does self-efficacy and leader-member exchange increase employee engagement in career adaptive behaviours to support voluntary career change?

Figure 3. Research studies at the individual and organisational level.

As per standard practice for a thesis by publication, each of these chapters is a paper prepared for publication. Contributing to the richness of the thesis is the mixed-method approaches used, including examining data over time, a qualitative study, a systematic review, and a quantitative survey study.

Study 1, as reported in Chapter 2, at the organisational level includes a longitudinal analysis of changes in frequency of flexible employment conditions and OCM practices over a twenty-year period and an examination of the impact of OCM practices on employee turnover and organisational innovation. Study 2 in Chapter 3 examines individual employee perceptions of the OCM system and factors that support engagement in OCM through a qualitative study involving semi-structured interviews. Study 3 in Chapter 4 aims to better understand voluntary career change through a theoretical and systematic review of the literature. Study 4 in Chapter 5 examines the direct and indirect factors that support engagement in adaptive career behaviours. The concluding Chapter 6 summarises the key findings in this thesis and provides theoretical and practical recommendations.

The role of the organisation in employee career development is examined in two separate chapters, as outlined in Figure 4. There has been much written about the changing role of the organisation in supporting employee career development. Study 1 tests the theoretical assumption of the reduced role of the organisation, while Study 2 examines employee perceptions about how their employer supports employee career development.

First, Study 1 reports on the changes in the frequency of flexible employment conditions and OCM practices offered by organisations over twenty years as reported in the Australian survey of the Cranfield Network on International Strategic Human Resource Management (Cranet). In this chapter Baruch and Peiperl's (2000) model of OCM practices is introduced to provide context for the different levels of OCM

practices. Active management OCM practices are positioned as having dual responsibility from both the individual employee and organisation in their adoption. The impact of these active management OCM practices is examined in relation to the organisational level outcomes of employee turnover and organisational innovation.

Next, Study 2 reports on fifty-one semi structured interviews with employees, direct managers, and human resources managers across different organisations. Both employee perception of OCM and engagement in OCM are explored. To connect organisational career management with career self-management, social cognitive model of career self-management (Lent & Brown, 2013) is introduced as a potential framework to explain both the enablers and barriers for engagement in OCM.

To further examine the factors that support employee engagement in OCM, Studies 3 and 4 were conducted. As employees are anticipated to make an increased number of career transitions over their lifetimes, a better understanding of these transitions is important in designing effective OCM systems. Study 3 provides a review of career transition theoretical frameworks and a systematic review of the antecedents and outcomes of voluntary career change. That study highlights the potential impact of voluntary career change on the individual employee's performance and wellbeing. In Study 4 both the individual level factor of generalised self-efficacy and organisational level factor of leader member-exchange are explored as enablers of adaptive career behaviours during voluntary career change. Understanding the factors that support employee career self-management is important in the design of an OCM system.

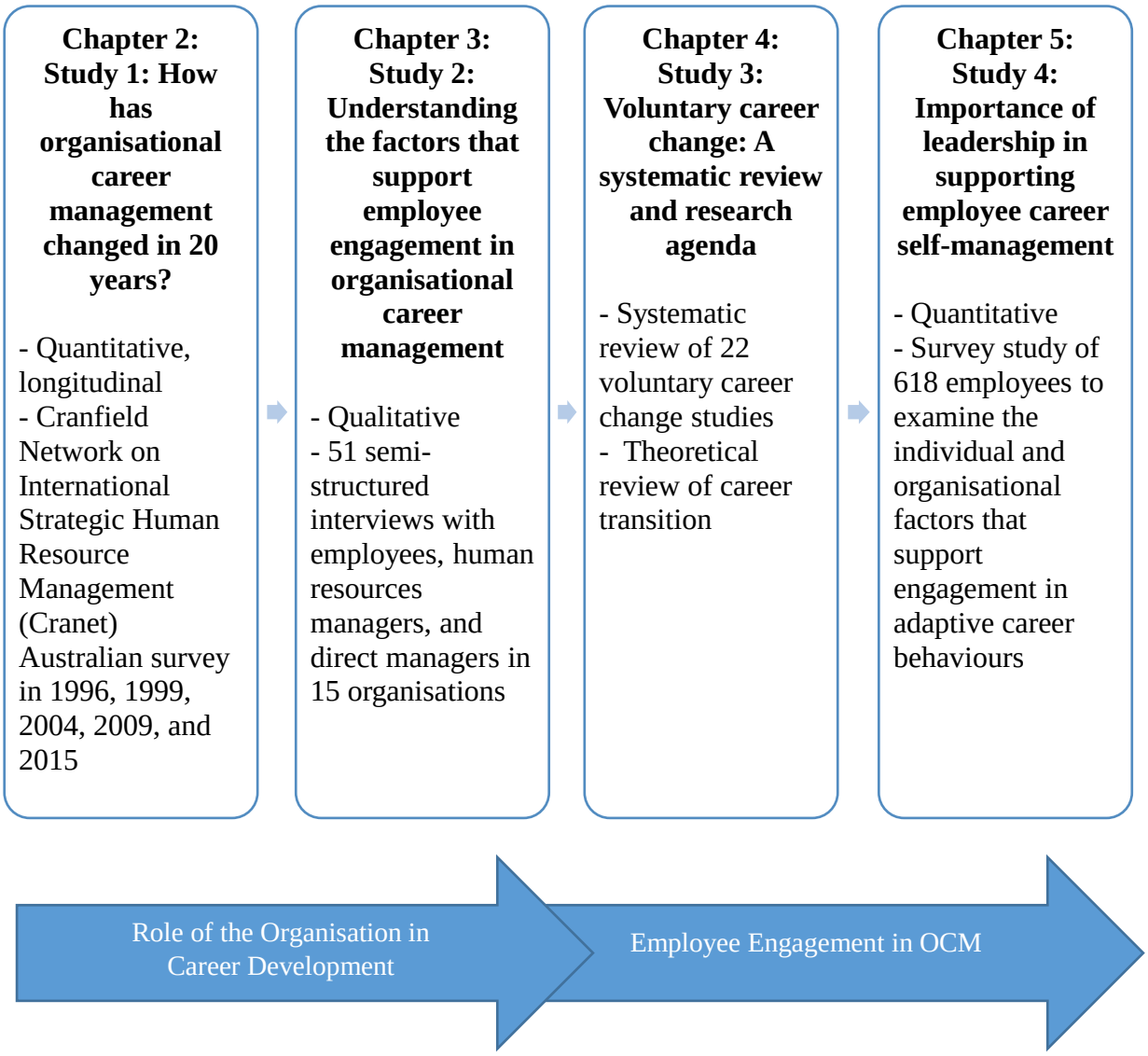


Figure 4. Overview of thesis chapters and studies.

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Chapter 2

How has organisational career management changed in 20 years?

Introduction to Study One

The first study of this thesis is a quantitative study focused at the organisational level. Changes in flexible employment conditions and organisational career management practices over the period 1996 to 2015 are explored. By exploring these changes over time we provide empirical understanding to the theoretical shift from organisational to individual career perspectives. This study also examines the impact of active management organisational career management practices on employee turnover and organisational innovation. Active management organisational career management practices are those practices that have dual responsibility by the individual and organisation, such as job rotations, secondments and networking. By examining the impact of these practices at the organisational level, we bring together the careers and strategic management literature in understanding the role of the organisation in supporting employee career development.

This study was presented at the Australian and New Zealand Academy of Management Conference in Brisbane, Australia on 8th December 2016, as detailed on page vi. Reviewer feedback and feedback received at the conference presentation have been incorporated into revisions of this paper.

This paper has been prepared according to the publication guidelines for the *Journal of Vocational Behavior.*

How has organisational career management changed in 20 years?

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ABSTRACT

Career theorists have previously asserted that organisational responsibility for career management has decreased. Yet little is known about how organisational career management practices have changed over time, nor the impact of organisational career management practices at the organisational level. To address this gap, we examine changes in flexible employment conditions and organisational career management practices over a twenty-year period from 1996 to 2015. Results show that flexible employment conditions of part-time, fixed contracts, and teleworking increased, however, more than half of the organisational career management practices also increased over this twenty-year period. We also found that organisations implementing secondments had significantly lower employee turnover, and organisations that implemented secondments, networking, or job rotations had significantly higher levels of innovation than those organisations that did not implement these practices. Future research directions and practical implications of our findings for organisational career management as an important component of a strategic human resources management system are discussed.

Keywords: Career development, employee turnover, flexible work conditions, innovation organisational career management, strategic human resources management.

How has organisational career management changed in 20 years?

There has been much theoretical debate about the role of the organisation in employee career development. Theoretical perspectives of careers largely shifted from an organisational perspective, where employees developed their careers within an organisation, to an individual perspective where employees managed their own career development (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Hall, 1996a, 1996b). This theoretical shift was shaped by reported changes in the labour market, including organisational downsizing and technological changes (Lyons, Schweitzer, & Ng, 2015). Despite this shift in theoretical perspectives to focus on the individual perspective in managing careers, many have emphasised that, regardless of the type of job or economic uncertainty, many careers still exist within the context of organisations (Inkson, Gunz, Ganesh, & Roper, 2012; Rodrigues & Guest, 2010). Furthermore, strategic human resources management emphasises the importance of developing internal employee resources for the skills needed for the future (Harris, Pattie, & McMahan, 2015; W. Liu, 2018). There is an apparent organisational career management (OCM) paradox in understanding the role of the organisation in employee career development

This paper examines the changing role of the organisation in career management. Our research contribution is twofold, to provide empirical understanding for the theoretical shift in career development and provide evidence of impact of OCM at the organisational level. First, we examine the shifts in employment practices through a longitudinal analysis of four flexible employment conditions in organisations from 1996 to 2015. Next, we examine the implementation of 16 OCM practices over this same twenty-year period. Finally, we look to identify the impact of organisational career management practices at the organisational level through an examination of the impact of the application of active management OCM practices, i.e. those practices with

dual individual and organisational involvement, on employee turnover and organisational innovation.

Theoretical shift from organisational to individual career management

The traditional viewpoint of careers was that organisations had formal and bureaucratic career pathways for employees (Mirvis & Hall, 1994; Sullivan, 1999). The labour market was viewed as stable, and consequently organisations were said to provide stable and predictable career pathways for their employees (Adamson & Doherty, 1998). In the 1990s there was a reported shift in this 'traditional' labour market which would necessitate a shift in organisational structures, and consequently, career pathways within organisations (Chay & Aryee, 1999; Herriot & Pemberton, 1996; Mirvis & Hall, 1994). This shift in the labour market encompassed organisational downsizing, restructuring, globalisation, and technological changes (Adamson & Doherty, 1998; Sullivan, 1999; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). Mirvis and Hall (1994) proposed that within this new labour market "people working in these organisations will be expected to move seamlessly across levels and functions, through different kinds of jobs, and even from company to company" (p. 367). There would consequently be an increase in flexible employment conditions rather than secure or permanent employment conditions (Mirvis & Hall, 1994). Flexible employment conditions include part-time, temporary or fixed contracts to save the costs associated with employing staff, and teleworking to increase productivity through technological advancements (Baruch, 2004b). This labour market with increased flexible employment conditions was viewed as requiring employees to be more adaptable and individually-driven in managing their careers (Adamson & Doherty, 1998). As a result of this reported shift in the labour market, the focus of career theories also shifted from an organisational perspective of careers to an individually-driven perspective, e.g. boundaryless or protean career (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Hall, 1996b; Mallon, 1999).

Arthur and Rousseau (1996) define the boundaryless career as opposite of organisational careers. Boundaryless career theory posits that employment conditions are increasingly less secure and more flexible (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Guan et al., 2018). The common factor across different types of boundaryless careers is "independence from, rather than dependence on, traditional organisational career" (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996, p. 6). Protean career theory (Hall, 1996a, 1996b) also emphasises individual career responsibility, but rather than removing the organisation, the focus shifted to an interdependent relationship where both the individual and the organisation had a role which may or may not be mutually dependent or beneficial. Protean career theory highlights the importance of individuals developing competencies and skills to support their own employability (Briscoe et al., 2006).It was hypothesised that in 'traditional' or 'organisational' careers, organisations had a greater responsibility than individuals for career management. Theoretical perspectives such as boundaryless and protean careers, emphasise a decline in organisational career management and an increase in individual responsibility for careers (Lyons et al., 2015; Mirvis & Hall, 1994). Based on this reported shift in the labour market to greater flexibility and less secure employment conditions, and the consequent theoretical shift from organisational to individual career management, it is hypothesised:

Hypothesis 1a: Flexible employment conditions have significantly increased from 1996 to 2015.

Hypothesis 1b: Organisational career management (OCM) practices have significantly decreased from 1996 to 2015.

Strategic human resources management

Ironically at the same time as the theoretical shift from organisational to individually-driven careers, in the human resources literature there was a focus on organisations implementing strategic human resources management in support of

employee development. Strategic human resources management developed as a distinct field of study, alongside, yet largely independent from the vocational psychology and career development literature. Strategic human resources management (SHRM) refers to the linking of business strategy with the human resources function to drive performance outcomes, such as productivity and market value (Boxall & Purcell, 2000; Lengnick-Hall & Lengnick-Hall, 1988; Schuler, 1992). SHRM views employees as important resources to achieve organisational competitive advantage. The function of SHRM is to develop and retain employees, i.e. grow and reduce the loss of human capital from one organisation to other organisations. Human capital is defined as the monetary value allocated to employees within employing organisations (Strober, 1990). Employees are more productive when they are skilled and experienced and will consequently achieve higher salaries than those employees that do not hold the same level of human capital (Strober, 1990). Employee development supports employees to build the personal attributes needed to increase job performance (Feldman & Ng, 2007; Koster, 2011).

Employee development can focus either on developing general human capital, i.e. transferrable skills or knowledge, or specific human capital, i.e. skills and knowledge only relevant to that employer. It was largely assumed that employers would focus on employee development that builds specific human capital rather than general human capital (G. Becker, 1964; Strober, 1990). However, rather than being in opposition to each other, general and specific training appear to be complementary programs of development for the employee. Organisations still accept or share the costs for training, even if the skills developed are general in nature, or transferrable by employees to other organisational settings (Benson, 2006; Kessler & Lülfesmann, 2006). Employee participation in general training builds the personal attributes and skills that support increased performance and productivity and personal attributes and skills developed in general training support the employee in specific training. This

investment in strategic human resources practices has mutual benefit for the employer to increase their human capital and for the employee to increase their employability. Furthermore, with increased external competition for skilled employees, such as noted in the "war for talent", employee development is seen as strategically important for employee attraction and retention (Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, & Eberley, 2008; Sung & Choi, 2018).

Organisational career management

Organisational career management (OCM) refers to the strategic human resources policies and practices designed and implemented to assist employees manage their careers (Orpen, 1994). Russell's (1991) review highlighted the field of OCM research lacked coherence both from a theoretical and practical standpoint. There was both a lack of awareness for practitioners about what was happening across organisations, and for theorists across vocational and organisational research disciplines. A broader, systematic focus of research was needed for both scholars and practitioners to examine how organisational career management improves individual and organisational effectiveness (Wils, Guérin, & Bernard, 1993). However, given the theoretical shift from organisational to individual career perspectives in careers literature, there appeared to be move away from OCM research (Clarke, 2013). OCM has remained both theoretically and empirically underdeveloped (Bagdadli & Gianecchini, 2018; De Vos & Dries, 2013).

OCM research has been hampered by a lack of clear definition of the construct. There is no definitive list of OCM practices. It could be said that nearly all SHRM practices have an impact on employee career development (Armstrong, 1992). Lists of OCM practices have ranged from twelve OCM practices (De Vos et al., 2009) to more than thirty OCM practices (Gutteridge & Otte, 1983). This divide is largely based on how OCM is defined. Gutteridge and Otte (1993) included recruitment and selection

practices, such as interview process and informal canvassing, however, De Vos and colleagues (2009) condensed their list based on feedback from employers about which practices were most relevant to organisations in their research context. There has also been a lack of convergence in SHRM and careers inquiry. SHRM focus on human resources practices and impact on performance offers a useful perspective through which to examine OCM. SHRM and careers research have been brought together under the umbrella of talent management (De Vos & Dries, 2013). However, talent management generally relates to the SHRM practices implemented to support the development of a unique or specific group of strategically important employees. Talent management programs could therefore be seen as a subset of OCM. There remains a need to widen the research net to include all employees (Evans, 1988) and better understand how organisations can adopt SHRM practices to support sustainable employee career development (De Prins, De Vos, Van Beirendonck, & Segers, 2015).

OCM system of practices

Although there is general consensus that OCM should be strategically designed to achieve individual and organisational benefits, there has also been limited consensus in how the OCM practices should be operationalised. Sturges and colleagues (2002) grouped OCM practices as either formal (e.g. training) or informal (e.g. impartial career advice) practices, while Eby and colleagues (2005) grouped OCM practices based on the individual outcomes. These groupings included career planning and exploration (e.g. career planning workshops), future strategic planning (e.g. succession planning), internal labour market information (e.g. job postings), formal external training (e.g. tuition reimbursement), and informal internal training (e.g. in-house workshops). To assist researchers and practitioners examine the individual and organisational perspectives of OCM, Baruch and Pepeirl (2000)'s OCM system of practices model defined five levels of OCM practices. These practices ranged from low involvement

basic level practices to high involvement *multi-directional* practices. *Basic level* practices were the most frequently reported OCM practices and include job postings and formal education. *Active planning* practices "share both an active involvement on the part of the organisation in the careers of individuals and a planning element that considers the individual's development over time, as well as the organisation's need to fill jobs in the future" (Baruch & Peiperl, 2000, p. 356). These practices include performance appraisal, career counselling, and succession planning. *Active management* practices involve dual involvement from the individual and organisation, including job rotations, formal mentoring, and career workshops. *Formal* practices refer to information sharing from an organisational system down to the individual, including written career development plans, dual career ladder, common career paths, and books or information pamphlets. *Multi-directional* practices include assessment centres, peer appraisal and upward appraisal relating to feedback from multiple perspectives to inform career planning by the individual. This model emphasises the importance of creating an OCM system of practices aligned to the organisational climate and the external labour market (Baruch & Budhwar, 2006; Budhwar & Baruch, 2003; Lewis & Arnold, 2012).

Baruch and Peiperl's (2000) OCM system of practices model was examined in the United Kingdom (Lewis & Arnold, 2012); India (Budhwar & Baruch, 2003); cross-culturally (Baruch, 2003); and comparatively between India and United Kingdom (Baruch & Budhwar, 2006). The level of OCM practices appeared to be directly related to the climate and culture of the organisational setting, which was influenced by both the country of origin and organisational climate. In developing business contexts, the role of the organisation appears to be consistent with a 'traditional' model with OCM practices based on organisational rather than individual needs (Krishnan & Maheshwari, 2011; Tzabbar, Vardi, & Baruch, 2003). This model emphasised the importance of

creating an OCM system of practices aligned to the organisational climate and the external labour market (Baruch, 2003, 2004a; Budhwar & Baruch, 2003). Lips-Wiersma and Hall (2007) concluded that OCM is more demanding on the organisation than was viewed as the traditional organisational structure. OCM requires the development of a system that is flexible enough to adapt to the unique needs of the individual while meeting the strategic goals of the organisation (Slay Ferraro & Taylor, 2007).

There have been three propositions about SHRM architecture in organisations. Much like Baruch and Peiperl (2000) model, the contingency perspective suggests that SHRM practices are implemented based on the stage of the organisational development or their strategic goals (Baird & Meshoulam, 1988). The resource-based view, much like talent management perspective, suggests a differentiation of SHRM practices based on the talent composition of the organisation (D. P. Lepak & Snell, 1999; Wright, McMahan, & McWilliams, 1994). While the universal perspective, suggests there is a universal list or bundles of SHRM best practices which should be implemented across employees and organisations (Pfeffer, 1998). It is suggested that organisations that more effectively design their SHRM systems, based on either the contingency, resource-based, or universal perspective, will achieve strategic organisational outcomes (Boxall & Purcell, 2000). Numerous reviews have examined the impact of SHRM practices on organisational performance, with mixed results. SHRM practices differentiation did not appear to result in stronger employee commitment, retention, or wellbeing (Clinton & Guest, 2013). Consistent with the universal perspective, SHRM effectiveness was found to be positively related to employee productivity, cash flow, and market value (Huselid, Jackson, & Schuler, 1997). Rather than just a one-way direction, SHRM was found to predict both future employee productivity, which in turn predicted future SHRM implementation (Shin & Konrad, 2017). However, controlling for previous year performance removed the significant impact of SHRM on organisational performance

measures (Guest, Michie, Conway, & Sheehan, 2003), while other reviews have found only weak or limited impact of SHRM practices on organisational performance (Paauwe, 2009). These differences in results between SHRM practices and organisational performance outcomes, has largely been defined as a *black box* between SHRM practices and the outcomes. This black box could be perceived as level of strategic implementation (B. E. Becker & Huselid, 2006), organisational climate (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004), employee needs being met in the design of the SHRM architecture (Boselie, Dietz, & Boon, 2005; Boxall & Purcell, 2000; Hailey et al., 2005; van Esch, Wei, & Chiang, 2018), and lack of theoretical perspective in explaining the link between SHRM and performance outcomes (Fleetwood & Hesketh, 2008; Guest, 1997, 2001).

Despite the focus on building an OCM system to achieve strategic objectives, there has been limited research on the organisational impact of OCM. Supportive, developmental, and individual focused OCM practices appear to connect to organisational financial performance (De Vos & Cambré, 2017). Most OCM research has focused on the impact at the individual employee level rather than the organisational level. There have been mixed results for the impact of mentoring, training, development assignments, performance appraisal, and networking on employee objective career success measures, while assessment and development centres were found to have consistently positive impact on objective career success measures (Bagdadli & Gianecchini, 2018; Dougherty, Dreher, Arunachalam, & Wilbanks, 2013; Ghosh & Reio, 2013). Job rotations have also been found to provide a positive impact on career progression for high performers (Kampkötter, Harbring, & Sliwka, 2018). Rather than defining OCM as practices, other studies have defined OCM as perceived organisational support for career development. Perceived organisational support for career development has been found to be associated with reduced voluntary turnover (Guan et

al., 2015; Singh, 2018), increased career satisfaction (Barnett & Bradley, 2007; Moon & Choi, 2017; Verbruggen, Sels, & Forrier, 2007), increased affective commitment and normative commitment (Bambacas, 2010), and increased affective commitment and career progression (De Vos et al., 2009). The direct impact of perceived level of OCM on employee outcomes has been found to be influenced by both the perceived career opportunities available in the organisation (Kraimer et al., 2011), and individual factors, including career adaptability (Guan et al., 2015), career self-management (De Vos et al., 2009), career stage needs (T.-Y. Chen, Chang, & Yeh, 2003), proactive personality (Maurer & Chapman, 2013), perceived career success (Kim, 2005), protean career orientation (Rodrigues, Guest, Oliveira, & Alfes, 2015), and self-perceived employability (De Vos, De Hauw, & Van der Heijden, 2011). The organisational business strategy also has been found to impact on OCM practices. Segers and Inceoglu (2012) found that organisations at the innovative stage of development were more likely to adopt supportive and developmental OCM practices than organisations not at this innovative stage.

OCM impact on organisational outcomes appears to be based on the interaction between the individual engagement and organisation strategic intent (Segers & Inceoglu, 2012). This interaction between individual and organisational responsibility could be reflective of the active management OCM practices which emphasise an interaction or dual responsibility between individual and organisation. In these practices, such as mentoring, secondments, and job rotations, the organisation needs to create the system, and the individual needs to engage in the practice to achieve organisational benefit. The practices could also allow an individual to develop their individual employability skills within the organisational system. It is therefore hypothesised that those organisations implementing active management OCM practices

will have lower employee turnover and higher innovation than those organisations that do not implement these practices:

H2a: Organisations implementing active management OCM practices will have significantly lower employee turnover than those organisations that do not implement active management OCM practices.

H2b: Organisations implementing active management OCM practices will have significantly higher levels of innovation than those organisations that do not implement active management OCM practices.

METHOD

Participants

This study is a longitudinal analysis of OCM practices reported in the Cranfield Network on International Strategic Human Resource Management (Cranet) Australian survey in 1996, 1999, 2004, 2009, and 2015. The sampling frame for each of the surveys was all Australian organisations with more than 100 employees (McGraw, 2015). The Cranet survey was distributed to the most senior human resources manager. The sample consists of 1448 organisations, 332 from the 1996 survey, 240 from the 1999 survey, 259 from the 2004 survey, 222 from the 2009 survey, and 395 from the 2015 survey. Response rates varied from 16% to 20% of the surveyed population. The sample is sufficiently diverse to be a representative sample of medium to large organisations in Australia for each surveyed time period (Kramar, 2012).

Measures

The full Cranet survey has six organisational SHRM activities of staffing practices, employee development, compensation and benefits, employee relations and communication, and organisational details (Kramar, 2012). For the purpose of this study only the below items were examined.

Employment conditions. Four items were used to assess the flexible employment conditions of part-time, temporary, teleworking, and fixed contracts. Participants rated the approximate proportion of their employees who have the particular work arrangement. For the 1996 survey these employment conditions were on a 5-point scale "not used" to "greater than 20 percent" whereas for the 2015 there was a 7-point scale "not used" to "greater than 50%". To allow consistency in measurement across each year, the scale responses were re-calculated for each time period to a 5-point response scale "not at all" to "greater than 20 percent".

Organisational career management practices. To create the list of OCM practices for analysis, 21 OCM practices were identified based on previous research. The OCM practices included 16 listed by Baruch and Peiperl (2000), with the addition of job rotation (De Vos & Dries, 2013; Kong, Cheung, & Song, 2011); secondments (Baruch, 2003; Lewis & Arnold, 2012); special attention programs (Baruch, 2003); and career competencies (De Vos & Dries, 2013; Lewis & Arnold, 2012). Furthermore, "career counselling by human resources" and "career counselling by line manager" were combined in to one OCM practice of "career coaching" consistent with recent benchmarking (Lewis & Arnold, 2012). These 20 OCM practices were mapped with available data collected as part of the Cranet survey. For each Cranet survey there was a section in the survey with specific reference to career management programs. For the 1996 survey this OCM section had twelve practices, formal career plans, assessment centres, succession plans, job rotations, high flier schemes, international experience, internal training staff, training line managers, training with external providers, on-the-job-training, coaching/mentoring, and computer-based packages. For the 2015 survey this OCM section had fourteen practices, special tasks, projects to stimulate learning, training-on-the-job, participation in project team work, formal networking schemes, formal career plans, development centres, succession plans, planned job rotation, high

flier schemes, coaching, mentoring, and computer-based packages. To ensure consistency in changes across the years, we included only those practices that had available data for at least two out of the five survey periods. The practices from this section included in our analysis included formal career plans (career paths), assessment centres, succession plans (succession planning), job rotations, high flier schemes, coaching (career coaching), formal networking schemes (networking), and computer-based packages (computer software). The other OCM practices were identified in other sections of the survey. For example, *career break schemes* was mapped to the question in the Cranet survey "Do you offer any of these schemes in excess of statutory requirements?" with "Career break schemes" one of the response options.

It was identified that 16 of the OCM practices had available data for at least two out of the four data collection periods. These 16 OCM practices are listed in Table 1. To measure internal training, participants were asked "approximately, how many days training per year do employees in each staff category below receive on average?" For each of the other OCM practices, the scale responses were calculated for each time period to a "yes" or "no" response for use of that practice in the organisation. For example, *Performance appraisal as basis of career planning* was asked with a "yes" or "no" response for each year period. But the response scale for the OCM section of the report changed from a categorical scale of "yes" or "no" in 1996 and 1999 to a continuous scale of "not at all" to "to a very great extent" in 2005 to 2015. To allow for consistency in measurement across the survey periods all scale responses for the OCM practices was changed to the categorical response of "yes" or "no" for each year period, with the exception of *Internal Training* which was measured as mean number of training days for manager, professional, and clerical level staff for each year period.

Insert Table 1 about here

Innovation. One item from the 2015 survey was used to measure innovation. Respondents were asked to rate level of innovation of their organisation "compared to other organisations in your sector" on a 5-point scale from "poor or low-end of the industry" to "superior".

Employee turnover. One item from the 2015 survey was used to measure organisational employee turnover. Participants were asked to provide the approximate percentage of staff turnover of their workforce per year.

RESULTS

Hypothesis 1a stated that flexible employment conditions would significantly increase from 1999 to 2015. The descriptive statistics are reported in Table 2. The first of the flexible employment conditions was part-time work. It is apparent from the data that in 1996 the most reported frequency for part-time work was 'less than 5 per cent', with 57.2% of respondents reporting part-time work for 'less than 5 per cent' of their employees. Yet by 2015, the most reported frequency for part-time work was '11 to 20 per cent' of employees, with close to 30% of respondents offering part-time work to this frequency of employees. For temporary work, 'less than 5 per cent' of employees was the most reported frequency across each survey period from 1996 to 2015, at 51% of employees in 1996 to 36.2% of employees in 2015. Of particular note, the frequency of respondents offering temporary work to 'more than 20 per cent' of their employees remained consistent at 13.1% in 1996 to 13.4% in 2015. For teleworking, 'not at all' was the most reported frequency across each survey from 1996 to 2015, at 72.2% of employees in 1996 to 59.6% in 2015. There were no respondents indicating that teleworking offered to '11 to 20 per cent 'or 'greater than 20 per cent' of employees in 1996, yet by 2015 13.4% of respondents reported that teleworking was offered at this level in their organisations. Finally, the most reported frequency for fixed contracts was 'less than 5 per cent' of employees across each survey period, from 61.8% in 1996 to

40.5% in 2015. In 1996, just over 18% of respondents reported offering fixed contracts to at least six per cent of their employees, by 2015 close to half of respondents, 46.2%, were offering fixed contracts to at least six per cent of their employees.

To assess differences in frequency of OCM practices over time, non-parametric Friedman test of differences among repeated measures were conducted. There was a significant increase in the proportion of employees in part-time ($\chi2(4) = 64.882$, $p = < .001$), teleworking ($\chi2(4) = 22.872$, $p = < .001$), or fixed contract ($\chi2(4) = 29.013$, $p = < .001$) employment conditions over time. However, there was no statistically significant changes for temporary employment condition. Hypothesis 1a is partially supported.

Insert Table 2 about here

Hypothesis 1b said that there would be a significant decrease in the frequency of OCM practices from 1999 to 2015. The descriptive statistics and frequency percentages for OCM practices are reported in Table 3. Only one OCM practice was offered by more than 80% of organisations in 1996, the *formal practice of* computer software (80.3%). While five OCM practices were offered by less than 20% of organisations, the *multi directional* OCM practices of assessment centres (8.1%), subordinate appraisal (13.6%), and peer appraisal (13.9%), and the *active management* OCM practices of career break schemes (12.0%) and secondments (16%). Yet by 2015 three OCM practices were offered by more than 80% of organisations, including *active planning and active management* OCM practices of performance appraisal as basis of career planning (81.6%), career coaching (88.7%), and mentoring (86.5%). Only the *active management* practice of career break schemes (11.4%) was offered by less than 20 per cent of organisations. Career break schemes went from 12.4% in 1996 to 24.4% in 2009, following two survey periods where this OCM practice was not measured, before returning to being offered by 11.4% of organisations in 2015. Mentoring was also only

measured in 1996, 2009, and 2015, with 73.4% of organisations offering this OCM practice in 1996 to 86.5% of organisations in 2015. Networking was only measured in the last two survey periods, from 82.2% of organisations in 2009 to 64.3% of organisations in 2015. Job postings was offered by 55.7% in 1996, 52.7% in 1999, and increased to 74.8% in 2009, this OCM practice was also not reported in 2004. The mean number of professional development days remained relatively consistent over the survey periods. Clerical workers appeared to show the greatest difference with a mean of 4.28 days in 1996 to a mean of 6.90 days in 2015, in comparison to managerial workers who had a mean of 6.07 days in 1996 to 5.69 days in 2015.

To assess differences in frequency of OCM practices over time, non-parametric Friedman test of differences among repeated measures were conducted. Significant increases were found in the use of 9 of the 16 OCM practices from 1996 to 2015. *Basic* internal job postings ($\chi2(3) = 33.874$, p = < .001) from 55.4% to 73.4%, *active planning* performance appraisal as a basis for career planning ($\chi2(4) = 18.057$, p = < .001) from 74.4% to 81.6%, succession planning ($\chi2(4) = 58.877$, p = < .001) from 64.8% to 74.5%, f*ormal* career paths ($\chi2(4) = 65.550$, p = < .001) from 33.4% to 71.6%, *multi-directional* assessment centres ($\chi2(4) = 35.324$, p = < .001) from 8.1% to 26.0%, *active management* secondments ($\chi2(4) = 19.503$, p = < .001) from 16.6% to 40.6%, job rotations ($\chi2(4) = 55.480$, p = < .001) from 38.6% to 54.0%, mentoring ($\chi2(2) = 14.769$, p = < .001) from 73.4% to 86.5%, and high flier schemes ($\chi2(2) = 54.165$, p = < .001) from 19% to 48.9%.

Insert Table 3 about here

Post hoc analysis with Wilcoxon signed-rank tests were conducted to examine changes between years. There was an overall significant increase from 1996 to 2015 in use of career coaching (z = - 2.466, p = < .09) from 79.1% to 88.7% and subordinate appraisal (z = -3.483, p = < .001) from 13.6% to 24.1%. However, there was also a

significant reduction from 2009 to 2015 in the *active management* practices of job rotations (z = - 3.092, p = < .05) from 69.7% to 54.0%, career break schemes (z = - 2.714, p = < .05) from 24.4% to 11.4%, and networking (z = - 2.945, p = < .05) from 82.2% to 64.3%. There were no significant changes found for peer appraisal, computer software, or internal training. These results provide partial support for Hypothesis 1b.

Hypothesis 2a stated that organisations implementing active management OCM practices would have significantly lower levels of employee turnover than organisations not implementing these practices. Independent *t* tests were conducted to examine active management OCM practices with employee turnover and innovation. Employee turnover was significantly lower (t (202) = 2.040, p. = 024) in organisations that implemented secondments (M = 13.34%, SD = 7.25) than in those organisations that did not implement secondments (M = 16.53%, SD = 12.84). No other significant differences were found for turnover.

Hypothesis 2b said that organisations that implemented active management OCM practices would have significantly higher levels of innovation than those organisations than did not implement these practices. The level of innovation was significantly higher for organisations that implemented secondments (t (278) = -2.080, p. = 038); job rotation (t (277) = -2.363, p. = 019); or networking (t (276) = -2.341, p. = 020) than in those organisations that did not implement these OCM practices. These results provide partial support for Hypothesis 2a and 2b.

DISCUSSION

This study examined the changing role of organisations in employee career development. Our basic expectation was that, in accordance with boundaryless (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996) and protean (Hall, 1986, 1996b) career theories, there would be a reduction in the use of OCM practices over time and that those OCM practices emphasising dual responsibility would lead to organisational benefits.

Results were mixed. There was a significant increase in the proportion of employees in part-time, fixed contract, and teleworking employment conditions. Employment conditions do appear to have changed, we would therefore expect that human resources departments would also need to adapt their practices to manage these employment conditions. This study has found support for increased flexibility, however, these changes in employment conditions were not as dramatic as initially theorised (Dries, Van Acker, & Verbruggen, 2012). One of the key tenets of boundaryless career is that employment conditions are more flexible and less secure (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). Flexible employment arrangements such as part-time, teleworking, and fixed contracts were still the minority rather than majority of employment arrangements in the organisations in the current study. There was also no significant change for temporary employment from 1996 to 2015. These results are consistent with critique of 'new' career theories (Clarke, 2013; Inkson et al., 2012). Organisations can still provide secure pathways for employees to develop their careers and reinforces the important role that organisations have in providing career support for their employees.

Rather than decreasing, there was also a significant increase in the use of more than half the OCM practices from 1996 to 2015. There are more organisations using OCM practices in 2015 than in 1996. In accordance with Baruch and Peiperl (2000) OCM model of system of practices, organisations were less likely to use the more sophisticated multi-directional OCM practices of peer appraisal, subordinate appraisal, and assessment centres. However, a greater percentage of organisations were using the active planning OCM practices, such as performance appraisal as basis of career planning, career coaching, and succession planning, which requires a high level of organisational involvement. Of particular note was that the most popular organisational career management practices in 2015, with more than eighty-percent of organisations offering these practices, were the individual focused practices of career planning as

basis of performance appraisal, career coaching, and mentoring. Both boundaryless and protean career theories purport an increase in individual responsibility for career development. An important finding in this study is that organisations are not leaving employees to manage this individual career planning by themselves. However, it would also be anticipated that organisations would be implementing more OCM practices that support dual responsibility between the individual and the organisation. Active management practices are those OCM practices that have a dual responsibility from both the individual and organisation perspective. However, we found a significant decrease in the use of three out of six of these OCM practices from 2009 to 2015, including job rotations, career break schemes, and networking. This decrease could be reflective of the increased demand and organisational strategic focus that is needed to implement this level of OCM practice (Lips-Wiersma & Hall, 2007).

In examining the impact of these active management OCM practices on organisational outcomes, we found organisations implementing secondments had lower turnover and higher innovation than those organisations that did not implement secondments. We also found higher levels of innovation in those organisations that implemented secondments, networking or job rotations than those organisations that did not implement these practices. Active management OCM practices create an opportunity for individuals to explore career opportunities across roles and organisations, i.e., secondments to other teams and organisations, while maintaining a relationship with their employing organisation. Thus these OCM practices could be seen as providing opportunities for employees to engage in innovative work activities, which they could implement within their organisation (Shanker, Bhanugopan, van der Heijden, & Farrell, 2017). These OCM practices also assist individuals improve their employability while also building the overall organisational capability. However, not all active management OCM practices resulted in organisational outcomes. Career break

schemes, an OCM practice that was the least offered by organisations in 2015, could be considered a unique and rare practice, and yet was not related to organisational outcomes in this study. Nor the most popular active management OCM practice of mentoring. Surprisingly, given the increased focus on talent management programs and differentiated SHRM systems, higher flier programs were also not found to be related to employee turnover or organisational innovation in this study. It should be noted that in this study only the availability of the program in the organisation was measured, it could be that level of implementation or take-up by employees would add further insight to these organisational outcomes. The present study also only looked at the data from the organisational perspective. Previous research has found that the organisational outcomes of OCM are also influenced by individual career orientation, career opportunities available, and interaction between both (Rodrigues et al., 2015). Each of these factors could have an impact both on the implementation of the practices and the organisational outcomes achieved (Guest, 2011).

Limitations and directions for future research

Further research is needed to examine this interaction among OCM, individual career orientation and organisational outcomes. This study reported on longitudinal data from the survey completions of organisations across five time periods. These organisations were not mapped across these time periods, so we are unable to draw any causal longitudinal trends in the data. Governmental industry data on flexible employment conditions could provide more nuanced data on changes in these practices, these conditions were examined within this study to compare with the changes in frequency of use of OCM practices over the time period. This study also only looked at innovation and employee turnover for the 2015 data set. Longitudinal designs allowing within-company comparisons over time will provide further evidence on what factors influence an organisation to increase or decrease their OCM practices over time. The

study is also unable to provide causal conclusions between OCM and organisational outcomes. It could be that more innovative organisations or organisations with lower turnover are more likely to offer OCM practices. Furthermore, only measurement of OCM practices that were offered rather than level nor type of implementation was investigated. Future research may look at an experimental design to measure both the employee and organisational outcomes of the implementation of different levels of OCM practices with pre and post-testing. This study also did not include all OCM practices. Future research could look at a broader range of OCM practices, differentiation of OCM practices, or systems of OCM practices. Finally, only organisations with more than 100 employees were included in this survey, future research is needed to examine smaller organisations and other employment settings.

Conclusions

This study confirms the increasingly important role that organisations have in supporting the career development of their employees. Organisations should take heed of the recent focus in emphasising the importance of organisations supporting career development activities for their employees. Employees may be taking increased responsibility to manage their careers, with more flexible employment conditions, there remains an ongoing opportunity for organisations to look strategically at how they support their employees' career development. This study has highlighted that organisations do appear to balance their organisational focused OCM practices with OCM practices focused on supporting individual career planning. This study has also reinforced that OCM is not only of potential benefit to the employee, but also to the potential ongoing performance and sustainability of the organisation.

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TABLES

Table 1

Organisational career management practices included in analyses

Level of OCM practice	OCM practice
Basic	Internal job postings
Basic	Internal training
Formal	Career paths
Formal	Computer software
Active Management	Mentoring
Active Management	Secondments
Active Management	Job rotations
Active Management	Career break schemes
Active Management	Networking
Active Management	High flier schemes
Multi-directional	Assessment centres
Multi-directional	Peer appraisal
Multi-directional	Subordinate appraisal
Active planning	Performance appraisal as basis of career planning
Active planning	Career coaching
Active Planning	Sucesssion planning

Table 2

Frequency of flexible employment conditions of part-time, temporary, teleworking, and fixed contracts across 1996 to 2015.

Employment Conditions	1996	1999	2004	2009	2015
Part Time					
Not at all	6.4%	4.7%	3.2%	2.3%	5.3%
<5%	57.2%	68.2%	46.4%	42.3%	27.0%
6-10%	16.6%	15.7%	21.0%	24.1%	18.8%
11-20%	8.9%	6.7%	12.3%	16.8%	29.3%
>20%	10.9%	4.7%	17.1%	14.5%	19.6%
Temporary					
Not at all	3.1%	0.5%	5.6%	16.4%	10.1%
<5%	51.0%	50.4%	40.1%	38.6%	36.2%
6-10%	19.4%	22.8%	27.3%	21.8%	22.2%
11-20%	13.4%	15.5%	15.5%	11.8%	18.1%
>20%	13.1%	10.8%	11.5%	11.4%	13.4%
Teleworking					
Not at all	77.2%	67.0%	66.1%	59.7%	59.6%
<5%	22.4%	32.7%	21.4%	31.5%	19.2%
6-10%	0.4%	0.1%	6.1%	4.2%	6.8%
11-20%		0.1%	3.2%	3.7%	9.0%
>20%		0.1%	3.2%	0.9%	5.4%
Fixed Contracts					
Not at all	19.4%	10.5%	26.2%	19.2%	13.3%
<5%	61.8%	59.6%	54.0%	49.8%	40.5%
6-10%	6.9%	11.5%	11.4%	17.7%	18.9%
11-20%	4.3%	7.9%	2.8%	7.8%	17.8%
>20%	7.6%	10.5%	5.6%	5.5%	9.5%

Table 3

Frequency of implementation of OCM practices across 1996 to 2015

OCM practices, by level of OCM practice (% yes)	Year				
	1996	1999	2004	2009	2015
Basic level					
Job postings	55.4%	52.7%	-	74.8%	73.4%
Internal training (Mean number of days per year)					
Manager	6.07	4.55	5.09	5.95	5.69
Professional	6.42	7.57	5.65	6.96	6.08
Clerical	4.28	3.43	3.71	4.12	6.90
Active Planning					
Performance appraisal as basis for career planning	74.4%	79.9%	89.1%	89.5%	81.6%
Career coaching	79.1%	89.0%	-	89.0%	88.7%
Succession planning	64.8%	60.8%	67.9%	82.3%	74.5%
Formal					
Career paths	33.4%	54.9%	67.5%	77.9%	71.6%
Computer software	80.3%	-	-	73.2%	77.4%
Multi-directional					
Peer appraisal	13.9%	15.9%	18.8%	20.3%	20.0%
Subordinate appraisal	13.6%	19.2%	19.1%	19.4%	24.1%
Assessment centres	8.1%	18.3%	13.2%	33.5%	26.0%
Active Management					
Secondments	16.6%	39.8%	29.3%	42.4%	40.6%
Job rotations	38.6%	48.1%	69.4%	69.7%	54.0%
Mentoring	73.4%	-	-	87.2%	86.5%
Career break schemes	12.0%	-	-	24.4%	11.4%
Networking	-	-	-	82.2%	64.3%
High flier schemes	19.0%	39.1%	72.4%	57.5%	48.9%

Conclusion to Study One

Study 1 confirmed that employment conditions in larger organisations in Australia have changed from 1996 to 2015. A greater percentage of organisations were implementing fixed contracts, teleworking, and part-time employment conditions in 2015 than in 1996. However, these flexible employment conditions still appeared to be in the minority of the organisations surveyed. Study 1 also revealed that rather than decreasing, more than half of the organisational career management practices increased over time. This increase was not isolated to only basic or formal practices which require the lowest levels of sophistication and organisational involvement, but all levels of organisational career management practices. Regardless of employment conditions, more organisations are taking action in offering organisational career management practices to their employees. However, it should be noted that there was a reduction in some of the active management organisational career management practices. When examining the impact of these active management organisational career management practices, we found that secondments were related to reduced employee turnover, and secondments, job rotation, and networking were related to increased organisational innovation. Together these findings indicate that organisational career management remains an important part of strategic human resources management. To further dissect the OCM paradox, given these results from Study 1 emphasise that OCM practices are still required by organisations, a closer investigation is needed to understand the current attitudes and opinions towards OCM. Our findings in Study 1 are further explored from the individual perspective in Study 2.

Chapter 3

Understanding the factors that support employee engagement in organisational career management

Introduction to Study Two

The results of Study 1 highlight that organisational career management remains an important part of a strategic human resources management system. Despite evidence of increased flexibility in employment conditions, Study 1 found that more organisations were supporting employee career development than before. To broaden our understanding about how organisations are supporting employee career development, Study 2 focuses at the individual employee level to understand employee perceptions of organisational career management. A study of 51 semi-structured interviews with human resources managers, direct managers, and employee level respondents in 15 organisations was conducted. The aim was to better understand how the organisational career management system was operationalised, and what factors support employee engagement in this system. Through the theoretical lens of social cognitive model of career self-management, we also sought to understand how both the individual and organisational perspectives of career development could be incorporated into the design of an organisational career management system.

This second study was presented at the Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management, Chicago, Illinois, USA on August 6th, 2018, as detailed on page vi. Reviewer feedback and feedback received at the conference presentation were incorporated into revisions to this paper.

This paper has been prepared according to the publication guidelines for the *Human Resource Management Journal.*

Understanding the factors that support employee engagement in organisational career management

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ABSTRACT

Organisational career management systems are said to be important for employees navigating increasingly complex careers. It is largely accepted that individuals are taking more responsibility for career development, however, the role of the of organisation in supporting employee career development remains unclear. This study provides an in-depth examination of organisational career management from 51 semi-structured interviews with human resources managers, direct managers, and employees in 15 organisations. Respondents identified a complex, multifaceted organisational career management system that required organisational strategic intention and individual accountability. Social cognitive model of career self-management was examined to identify the factors that support employee career self-management within the OCM system. We highlight that rather than operating in opposition, individually-driven career planning and organisational career management are working in partnership. Future research directions and practical implications to incorporate the social cognitive model of career self-management with organisational career management systems are discussed.

Keywords: Boundaryless career, career development, career self-management, organisational career management, protean career, strategic human resources management.

Understanding the factors that support employee engagement in organisational career management

Increased organisational change, and consequently increased complexity within individual careers, suggests that career management is more demanding both for employees and organisations (Lips-Wiersma & Hall, 2007). Rather than increased organisational responsibility for employee career management, boundaryless (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996) and protean (Hall, 1986, 1996a) career theories emphasise that career management has shifted from the organisation to the individual. There has been debate as to the degree of this change, yet this theoretical shift did result in a shift in research focus to the individual perspective. There have been calls to re-establish OCM research (Arnold & Cohen, 2008; Clarke, 2013), and there has been a growing body of research focused on the importance of individual career self-management (De Vos et al., 2009; King, 2004; Lent & Brown, 2013). In this paper, we aim to bridge the gap between the organisational and individual-driven perspectives of career management.

We firstly examine employee perceptions about how their organisation supports career development. OCM is defined as a system, although there is limited agreement about the purpose, practices, and operationalisation of this system. For OCM to be successful employees need to engage in this support (Arnold, Coombs, & Gubler, 2017). However, there is also limited understanding as to how an individual navigates the OCM system. We propose an expanded social cognitive model of career self-management as a framework to better understand the factors that support employee engagement in OCM. We hope to re-energise research on OCM and propose a research pathway forward to combine the individual and organisational perspectives.

Organisational career management

Organisational career management (OCM) can be defined as "any effort by organisations to assist individuals in managing their careers and to help organisations meet their goals" (Russell, 1991, p. 238). This broad definition incorporates the underlying assumption that the purpose of OCM is to provide benefit for both individuals and organisations. There has been lack of consistency within the OCM literature about this assumption of mutual benefit. Some researchers emphasise that OCM should focus on organisational outcomes, such as forecasting workforce needs and meeting future workforce requirements (Eby et al., 2005; Gutteridge et al., 1993a). Talent management literature sees the key purpose of OCM as differentiating development opportunities to employees identified as "talent" within the organisation to build a pipeline of available employees to promote within the organisation (Dries, 2013). Employees viewed as having higher strategic value to the organisation and with a unique skillset have greater opportunities for both OCM and organisational continuity than those employees identified as having less strategic value and less unique skillset (De Vos & Dries, 2013; Iles & Mabey, 1993). Employees in more strategic job roles observed a greater number of human resources practices than employees in less strategic job roles (Clinton & Guest, 2013; D. Lepak & Boswell, 2012). However, rather than focused only at strategically important employees, employees at a perceived lower-level were also found to be encouraged to engage in activities to support their future employability (Dill & Morgan, 2017). Others have emphasised that in a world of work that is increasingly complex and adaptable, OCM is needed for all employees, where both the individual and organisation have roles to achieve outcomes (Clarke, 2013; De Prins et al., 2015; De Vos & Cambré, 2017).

Within this framework of mutual responsibility, OCM includes both career planning and career management. Career planning is individual employees "evaluating

personal abilities and interests, examining career opportunities, setting career goals and planning appropriate developmental activities" (Garavan, 1990, p. 24). Career planning is largely seen as a task for individuals, yet it can also be supported by the organisation, for example with OCM practices such as career counselling, skills inventories, or career pathways (Armstrong, 1992; Garavan, 1990). Organisational involvement in helping individual career planning is motivated by reducing employee career decision-making uncertainty, which should support greater employee engagement and positive outcomes for the organisation (Granrose & Portwood, 1987). While career planning is focused at the individual level, career management is focused at the organisational level in matching individual career plans with the organisational demands¸ for example succession planning and workforce planning. These two processes of career planning and career management are not mutually exclusive, but complement each other towards the aim of achieving organisational and individual benefit (Baruch & Peiperl, 2000; Schein, 1978). OCM can therefore be most effectively realised when the functions of career management and supporting career planning are working together (Hall, 1986). Lips-Wiersma and Hall (2007) in their case study of OCM being operationalised during a period of organisational change found that these specific individual and organisational processes of career planning and career management were blurred. Instead the OCM function was like a metaphorical dance being played out with varying roles being played by the human resources managers, managers, and employees through varying OCM practices to achieve both individual employees career goals and organisational objectives.

Organisational career management system

OCM tends to be conceptualised as a distinct system (Baruch, 2003; Dreher & Dougherty, 1997; Garavan, 1990) that works alongside an organisation's other strategic human resources management (SHRM) systems, including recruitment, promotion, and

remuneration (Armstrong, 1992; Dreher & Ash, 1990; Garavan, 1990). OCM systems appeared to be widespread in the 1990s (Armstrong, 1992; Gutteridge et al., 1993b). In the United States, nearly seventy per cent of organisations reported having or were launching an OCM system (Gutteridge et al., 1993b), while in Australia, seventy-five per cent of organisations reported having or were launching an OCM system (Armstrong, 1992). Having an OCM system in place allows an employee to engage more effectively with the other SHRM systems operating within an organisation (Eby et al., 2005; Russell, 1991). Problems arise when the other SHRM systems are not effective, for example if the organisation's promotion system is not effective, an employee may not realise their career development goals (Arthur & Kram, 1989; Garavan, 1990) nor perceive suitable career opportunities within the organisation (Kraimer et al., 2011).

Organisations can structure OCM in a variety of ways (Portwood & Granrose, 1986). To support organisations design their OCM system, Baruch and Peiperl (2000) developed the OCM system of practices with five levels of OCM practices. The five levels of OCM practices included basic, active management, multi-directional, active planning, and formal practices. It was recommended that OCM should be designed as a system, "that is, as sets of practices which naturally fit together and appropriate to the organisation's stage of development, form, and/or industry" (Baruch & Peiperl, 2000, p. 360). Organisations that are more established and stable would be more aligned to basic and formal OCM practices, such as job postings and career paths. Organisations looking to better manage their workforce could consider the active planning practices, such as succession planning and performance appraisal as basis of career planning. Whereas more dynamic and open organisational settings would be more aligned to active management and multi-directional practices which provide greater individualised career support, such as job rotations and assessment centres (Baruch & Peiperl, 2000; Herriot,

1992). Much like other SHRM systems, OCM includes a combination of practices, which could be developed according to an organisation's strategic intent and will be impacted by the organisation's size, globalisation, workforce diversity, and labour market focus (Baruch, 1999, 2003; Sonnenfeld, Peiperl, & Kotter, 1988).

Despite this focus on building a strategic OCM system, there has been less agreement on the OCM practices included in this system. In a study undertaken with managers in the United Kingdom, Baruch and Peiperl (2000) found the most frequently reported OCM practices were job postings, formal education, and performance appraisal as basis of career planning. While in a study undertaken with managers in India the most frequently reported OCM practices were performance appraisal as basis of career planning, succession planning, and formal education (Budhwar & Baruch, 2003). In a financial services organisation in the United Kingdom, the most frequently reported OCM practices were in-house training, on-the-job training, and the opportunity for flexible working conditions (Crawshaw, 2006). Whereas, managers in the retail sector in the United Kingdom reported the five most frequently used OCM practices as internal job postings, performance appraisal as basis of career planning, induction, personal development plans, and competencies (Lewis & Arnold, 2012). These differences are largely explained to be based on the differing strategic focus of the organisations, however, there were also differences in perspectives based on the respondent being a human resources manager, employee, or direct manager.

Role of the direct manager in OCM implementation

Human resources departments generally design a system of OCM practices in which employee engage, but the responsibility for day-to-day career support for employees generally falls to the responsibility of the direct manager (Crawshaw & Game, 2015; Leibowitz & Schlossberg, 1981; Meckel, 1981). Roe (1996) concluded that organisations should invest more in developing the career development coaching

skills of managers rather than investing in more expensive OCM practices. The research on the support provided by direct managers in career development has been mixed. Human resources managers noted that the direct or line manager was least responsible (Tzabbar et al., 2003), while employees noted that the direct manager was most responsible for their career development support (Crawshaw, 2006). Yarnall (1996) found little evidence of managers taking increased responsibility to support their employees' career development nor an increased engagement by these line managers in voluntarily attending training opportunities to assist them to develop the skills to more effectively support employee career development. Yet supervisor coaching has been found to strengthen the relationship between future work self salience, employee engagement and work performance (Lin et al., 2016), employee promotabilty (Van Vianen, Rosenauer, Homan, Horstmeier, & Voelpel, 2018), and progress towards goal achievement (Kidd, Hirsh, & Jackson, 2004; Kidd, Jackson, & Hirsh, 2003; Kunst, van Woerkom, van Kollenburg, & Poell, 2018). Support by the manager has also been found to enhance an employee's perceived control of employment situations, which in turn strengthens employees interest in taking career sabbaticals (Altmann & Kröll, 2018). Managers also reported a peceived positive impact of their career conversations with their employees six month following intiaiting the conversations (W. A. Borgen, Butterfield, & Lalande, 2013). Furthermore, Crawshaw and Game (2014) found that OCM was more successfully realised when the individual had a strong relational attachment with their line manager. Employees who perceived a less supportive direct management relationship were less satisfied with the career growth opportunities in the organisation, less likely to engage in OCM practices, and have higher intention to quit the organisation (Crawshaw & Game, 2015).

Employee engagement in OCM

Supportive and development OCM practices appear important across organisational settings, however, important too is the individual accountability for engagement in these OCM practices (Bagdadli & Gianecchini, 2018; De Vos & Cambré, 2017). Individuals are theorised to be taking greater responsibility for their career development (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). Rather than being influenced only by their organisational environment, employees 'sculpt' their environment to achieve their career development needs (Bell & Staw, 1989). De Vos and colleagues (2009) found that career self-management positively related both to employees' perceived career success and expectations about their organisation's OCM practices (De Vos et al., 2009). However, there is limited understanding about the factors that support individual employee career self-management within the OCM system.

Lent and Brown (2013) proposed the social cognitive model of career self-management (SC-CSM) as an expansion of social cognitive career theory (Lent et al., 2004) to help better understand the process of career self-management. Social cognitive career theory incorporated three models focused on the career development *outcomes* of interest development, choice-making, and performance and persistence in educational and vocational contexts. Although examining these outcomes remains important in career development research, Lent and Brown (2013) identified that both researchers and theoretical frameworks had shifted from a static career development *outcome* focus to a dynamic career development *process* focus. In response to this shift, Lent and Brown (2013) proposed SC-CSM to focus on *processes* of career development. These processes are defined in the model as adaptive career behaviours or actions, which are behaviours individuals engage in based on their career development stage. Consistent with Super's (1990) life-span, life space career development theory, individuals can recycle through these stages and adaptive career behaviours associated with these

stages. Lent and Brown (2013) listed a number of adaptive career behaviours, including exploring possible career paths (exploration), refining networking skills (establishment), developing career self-renewal plans (maintenance), and managing transitions (disengagement/reengagement). The influence of supportive human resources practices on the relationship between career self-management and career satisfaction was stronger for younger employees than older employees (Jung & Takeuchi, 2018). Suggesting that supportive human resources practices are more important for employees earlier in their career than those employees more established in their careers to engage in career self-management.

In addition to their career stage, SC-CSM identifies self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and personal goals as factors important in engagement in these adaptive career behaviours. Consistent with SCCT and social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1980, 1991), self-efficacy is defined as "judgments of the likelihood that one can organise and execute given courses of action required to deal with prospective situations" (Bandura, 1980, p. 263). Outcome expectations are "personal beliefs about the consequences or outcomes of performing particular behaviours" (Lent et al., 2004, p. 262). Goals allow individuals to enact individual agency and activity toward the desired outcome. Self-efficacy and outcome expectations affect the goals in which one engages, and the effort extended toward the achievement of these goals. Individuals with higher levels of self-efficacy engage in more career planning and career exploration than individuals lower in self-efficacy (Olson, 2014; Rogers & Creed, 2011).

As shown in Figure 1, Lent and Brown (2013) theorised that contextual and personality factors could also influence engagement. Personality factors could affect the engagement in adaptive career behaviours, e.g. extraversion could be related to networking, conscientiousness related to planning behaviour, and openness to experience may enable exploratory behaviours (Lent & Brown, 2013). Individuals are

also more likely to engage in adaptive career behaviours when they are supported in their environment, both socially and emotionally (Lent & Brown, 2013). For employees this environmental context can relate both to the home and work environments. If there are barriers evident in their environment to prevent their engagement, then individuals will be less likely to engage. In a university student population, both teacher and parent support had a positive impact on career decision making self-efficacy (Garcia, Restubog, Bordia, Bordia, & Roxas, 2015), while social support was found to be an enabler for intention to participate in organisational learning in a public sector organisation (Ho, Tsai, & Day, 2011). This model does not explicitly link to the OCM system. We therefore propose OCM as an extension of contextual factors within the model. We see OCM as a contextual factor that will link to an employee's self-efficacy expectations, outcome expectations, personal goals, and actions. We would also expect that an employee's engagement in OCM would influence their career development outcomes.

Insert Figure 1 about here

The aims of the current study are to examine how employees perceive OCM and the factors that support engagement in OCM. Firstly, we examine how employees perceive their organisation is supporting career development of employees. OCM has largely been conceptualised as a system, but there is limited consensus of what makes up this system. There is a gap in understanding the purpose and operationalisation of OCM. Although there has been increased interest in employee perceptions' of OCM as a targeted talent management practice (De Boeck, Meyers, & Dries, 2018) and OCM during periods of organisational change (Lips-Wiersma & Hall, 2007), employees' perceptions of OCM remains underexplored (Clarke, 2013). Therefore, our first research question for this study is:

Research Question 1: What are the perceptions of OCM by individual employees?

Secondly, we look to bridge the gap between the organisational and individual-driven perspectives of career development. Self-managed perspectives of career development suggest that employees take a greater role in their own career development than previously (De Vos et al., 2009; King, 2004). According to SC-CSM, contextual factors are important in enabling career self-management, the context of the organisational setting has not been explicitly defined in this model. We propose that an organisation provides an OCM system, but it is the individual's perception of the OCM system that drives their engagement. We therefore examine the factors supporting individual engagement within OCM. Our second research question is therefore:

Research Question 2: What are the facilitating factors for engaging in OCM?

METHOD

Procedure

This study is located within the ontological paradigm of interpretivism (Alvesson & Sandberg, 2011; Denzin, 2014). We adopt a qualitative research approach to provide richness in understanding of OCM system and agency within the OCM system (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Hammersley, 2007). Because we aim to understand how "interviewees perceive the social world under study" (Qu & Dumay, 2011, p. 246) we use a semi-structured interview approach. Semi-structured interviews include prepared questions around a common theme asked in a systematic manner, and incorporate the inclusion of probing questions designed to stimulate a more elaborate understanding of the interviewee's perspective (Qu & Dumay, 2011).

Our target population was individuals currently working in an organisation. We were interested in perspectives of all levels of employees, including human resources (HR) managers, direct managers, and employees, in different organisational settings. A combination of purposeful, convenience, and snowballing sampling techniques were implemented (Patton, 2002; Suri, 2011). We first adopted maximum variation purposeful sampling by approaching participants from different industries to be included in the study. We invited by email 17 HR managers or managers known to the researchers to participate in an interview study about OCM. Fifteen HR managers or direct managers from 15 different organisations agreed to participate in the study. We then implemented snowballing sampling to ask these participants to invite other employees in their organisation to participate. The interviews were conducted by the first author between July 2017 and August 2018. Forty-five interviews were conducted in-person and nine interviews were conducted over the phone. Interviews took between 30 to 60 minutes each, with an average interview length of approximately 45 minutes. Prior to the interview, participants were administered an informed consent document. Interviews were audio recorded with the participant's permission.

Sample

This study is based on interviews with 51 currently employed individuals, as detailed in Table 1. This number of participants was chosen based on Saunders and Townsend (2016) recommendation to have a sample of at least 50 participants for samples drawn from multiple organisations. The average age of the sample was approximately 42 years, with an age range of 27 to 67 years old. Average organisational tenure was approximately seven years and two months, with a range from three months to 24 years. Thirty-six participants identified as female and 15 as male. More than 75 per cent of the participants had completed a university degree. Eight participants worked as human resources managers, 21 participants currently had direct reports and

were classified as direct managers, and the remaining 29 participants did not have any direct reports and were classified as employees in this study. Most participants were employed permanently, 39 full time and eight part-time, a further four participants were employed on a fixed-contract, three full-time and one part-time. Nine participants worked in organisations with less than 500 employees, two participants worked in organisations with 500-1000 employees, 15 participants worked in organisations with 1000-5000 employees, and the remaining 25 participants worked in organisations with more than 5000 employees. Fifteen organisations were represented in the study across a range of industries, aged care, construction, education, energy, fast moving consumer goods, government, health, insurance, motor, not-for-profit, professional services, retail, technology, and telecommunications.

Insert Table 1 about here

Interview guide instrument

The interview guide contained questions on several topics regarding OCM. In this study, we focus only on employee perception of OCM (e.g. "How does your organisation support the career development of employees?") and factors that facilitate engagement in OCM (e.g. "What leads to employee buy-in to career development programs that are available?"). Interview guide questions served as stimuli for reflection of interviewee's own experience. Appropriate follow-up questions encouraged further depth or meaning to responses (Kvale, 1996; Qu & Dumay, 2011).

Data analysis

All interviews were transcribed verbatim and analysed using a multi-step content analytical approach (Anfara & Mertz, 2006; Corbin & Strauss, 2008). First, the interviews were segmented into the two research questions for analysis and an initial theoretical coding framework was developed, informed by the theoretical frameworks

of OCM (Baruch, 2006) and SC-CSM (Lent & Brown, 2013), and initial open coding of 18 interview scripts (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). This initial iterative process involved examining the transcripts and labelling relevant words and sentences with codes based on the theoretical framework or emergent ideas from the interviews. Second, we used NVivo for code tracking and to categorise the data using this initial coding framework for the initial 18 interview scripts. Third, we revised this coding framework based on identifying new categories or higher-order themes, for example, the OCM category of OCM stakeholders was split to incorporate direct managers, human resources managers, career counsellors, and senior managers. Fourth, the resulting coding framework was used to analyse the 51 interview scripts for final coding and categorisation of the factors. The factors incorporated relevant codes based on both the theoretical framework and interviewee conceptualisation. For example, the factor of contextual factors for engaging in OCM included the codes of time, cost, and organisational structure. Finally, we completed a final review of all 51 interview scripts based on our final coding framework to identify relevant quotes to illustrate the factors identified within the study.

RESULTS

An overview of the factors that were identified for both perception of organisational career management and engagement in organisational career management is provided. De-identified coding is used to protect the confidentiality of participants. Participants were allocated a participant number and any specific participant referenced in these results are reported based on this participant number and their job role, as either HR manager, direct manager, or employee.

Perception of organisational career management

The 51 participants were asked “How does your organisation support the career development of employees?” We identified seven factors of OCM, OCM strategy,

OCM practices, OCM stakeholders, OCM processes, organisational contingency, differentiated system, and individually-driven.

OCM strategy. This factor includes the individual's perception of their organisation's overall strategy towards employee career development. OCM was observed as essential business function that needed to be a strategically informed, as stated by Participant 9, Direct Manager: "It has to be combined with business as usual, otherwise career development won't work". Others identified the consequences of not supporting employee career development including potential employee turnover, as noted by P13, HR Manager:

> "We have to understand when we give some of the brightest people opportunities, we are likely to lose them. I think there are more positives than negatives in that. Because if we don't invest in our people, we are going to lose them anyway"

The organisation's overall strategy towards OCM generally informed the OCM practices, OCM processes, and how OCM stakeholders supported employee career development. Only one participant highlighted that OCM was not a strategic priority for the organisation "Career development wasn't a priority for any of them [my employers] because they were always struggling to maintain customer satisfaction and profitability" (P5, Employee).

While another participant highlighted that the cost constraints on the business, has meant a strategic shift in support for OCM practices, P50, Employee noted:

> "The business has gone into a situation where there are cost constraints, so we are really encouraging people to tap into other people or projects to learn, rather than attend training courses. We are trying to educate that training is not the only way".

OCM practices. Across all participants there were 23 unique OCM practices referred to, as outlined in Table 2. The most frequently reported OCM practice reported across participants was the active planning OCM practice of performance appraisal as basis of career planning. Some organisations reported robust OCM systems of practices. One large organisation had designed an OCM system of practices based on employee feedback on the importance of providing career development for all employees. This system was designed to include OCM practices, but also training for employees and direct managers in how to engage in these OCM practices. These practices included:

> "Tools for employees to reflect and be clear about their aspirations, help them identify opportunities, within and beyond their current role. Tools and resources for managers, things like career discussion guides and training on how to engage their employees in career conversations, and resources for both employees and managers to look out across the organisation. Then tangible things like platforms and sites where people can go and look at opportunities, where they can reflect on their interests, strengths, aspirations, so it's kind of philosophical foundation of expectations and then tangible tools and resources" (P15, HR Manager).

Even employees in smaller organisations were offered a suite of OCM practices to support their career development. The OCM practices provided in smaller organisations appeared to incorporate both individualised career support and flexibility in access to the OCM opportunities. As highlighted by a direct manager in a small organisation:

> "We have a mentoring program. I have a mentor, who is one of the board members. That helps me with my career development, which is excellent…Study days off, support for study – very supportive environment here. We have a budget allocated to training and development, so I can pick courses that would be of benefit to me personally in my role and the organisation will cover those expenses. I work with my team to make sure that

they use their budget each year. We also have reflection leave, which is a week of additional leave with a focus on personal development" *(*P12, Direct Manager).

Insert Table 2 about here

OCM stakeholders. This factor included the key stakeholders that were influential in supporting employee career development. A number of participants highlighted that senior management, direct managers, and HR worked together in unison, "*It was multiple people in concert" (*P16, HR Manager), "It's like doing a dance I think, it's a couple of steps in, a step to the side, where all parties are trying to find that balance" (P4, HR Manager), and "They've all been really good in different ways" (P11, Employee). P4, HR Manager, summarised how the different roles work in unison:

> "Line Manager is the pivotal person, if the CEO is willing to say they are supportive of this, then that gives the endorsement for everyone in the business to do this. HR, I believe is an advisor – they can't stand in front of a business and do all of it, but they can certainly lead the way with it. Direct line manager has the most important position and provides the most important impact".

There was general consensus that the direct manager had the greatest stakeholder impact on employee career development, but this was not to discount the importance of other senior managers. "Our CEO is incredibly involved. She is very passionate about career movement and career growth, about doing new things, about being bold and being brave and helping people make moves and supporting those moves." (P16, HR Manager).

Unexpectedly, across participants there was greater emphasis on the importance of direct managers and senior managers in the implementation of OCM than on the HR function. P9, Direct Manager, observed "*We tend to stay away from HR, don't we?".*

While others highlighted the role of HR in designing the OCM practices and ensuring consistency across the organisation "She [HR Manager] maintains a level of consistency to ensure all members of the organisation have the same opportunity" (P11, Employee). Of note, two participants from two different organisations highlighted that they had specific career coaches in the organisation to support career development in addition to their direct manager or the HR function.

OCM processes. This category included all references to how the OCM practices were operationalised. A number of participants noted that their organisation had both formal and informal processes to access OCM opportunities. For example, P12, Direct Manager highlighted: "For the training and development there is a cap, but it can be negotiated for special needs". Others explained that the processes were more informal, P16, HR Manager said, "We have scaled so fast that a lot of our processes have not been formalised in a way that more traditional organisations approach career management and career development". For those with more formal OCM processes, these formal processes can also avert access to OCM opportunities, as noted by P9, Direct Manager: "If I was to fill out all of the forms that I needed for this conference next week, I would have missed the cut off deadline". Budgetary procedures can also avert access to OCM practices as noted by P51, Direct Manager "Now it all [OCM] sounds great on the surface, underlying that is that I can't send someone on a course they may desperately need if I don't have the budget".

OCM contingency. This factor related to references to how the organisation made the OCM practices contingent on organisational benefit. For example, only courses aligned to current job role would be funded. Other organisations noted a longer-term focus. For example, employees would be required to remain employed in the organisation for a certain period following receiving funding for a course, related either to their current career area or a future career area. Employees were required to agree to

terms prior to gaining access to the funded education. The consequences noted by participants of not completing the stated agreed terms, included having to pay the educational course fees back to the organisation.

Differentiated system. Most participants noted there were OCM opportunities available for all employees. Only three participants noted there was a specific talent management system in place that was differentiated based on perceived "talent". Others noted that although there was not a specific talent management program in place and the OCM system was consistent, opportunities available were dependent on employee type, i.e., operational or administrative staff roles were provided less opportunities for OCM support than technical or specialist roles. Reasoning for this differentiated focus of the OCM system was largely based on both the increased skill level required and the strategic importance of these job roles to the organisation. Two contractors interviewed had different experiences of OCM. P8, Manager, noted: "I have been with the company one year as a contractor and level of [OCM] support is maintained" while P7, Manager, observed that OCM was:

> *"*Not for contractors…my rate compared to a permanent staff member is significantly more, so part of that comes the obligation, if I want to get some training or want those career development opportunities, my rate includes money I should be paying, not the organisation paying for me to do that".

Individually-driven. Consistently participants noted the individual appears to drive the success of OCM. Organisations provided the opportunities to support employee career development, but it was up to the individual to proactively engage in the opportunities provided. Employees consistently noted it was their responsibility to drive their career development. For example: *"*The onus is on the employee to search for, find, and show interest and present learning options" (P10, Employee), *"*I have just had my latest performance review, first one in a long time because I'm very proactive, if

I'm not getting the answers I need I push for them" (P17, Employee), and "It is an individually led rather than the business imposing a career plan or path. It's on the individual designing it themselves" (P6, Employee). Direct managers also observed that the organisation provides the system, but the individual is driving the success of the system. As highlighted by P8, Direct Manager:

> "It is a good approach, but it is very employee driven. Employee needs to set-up the meetings, they need to do everything, apply, and manage the whole process themselves. The system/organisation supports that process."

Alongside this focus on individual driving their career development with the support of the organisation, was a shift of what is meant by career development within organisations. Rather than seeing career development only as upward movements, there was also a reported shift to expand understanding of career development for employees. In highlighting the new philosophy of how employees need to manage their careers, P15, HR Manager, noted the challenge was that they are:

> "shifting what you mean by career development, [from] the traditional approach that 'my career is only growing as and when I get promotions' to 'I can develop skills and experiences that make me more employable', shifting people from that traditional definition of career development to that broader definition".

Engagement in organisational career management

Participants were asked "What leads to employee buy-in to career development programs that are available?" We identified eight factors that are both enablers and barriers to engagement in OCM, age or career stage, social-cognitive factors (self-efficacy, personal goals, outcome expectations), personality factors, career decision making, individual characteristics, OCM system, direct manager, and contextual factors, Table 3 outlines examples of each factor as both an enabler and barrier to engagement in OCM.

Insert Table 3 about here

Age or career stage. This factor included all reference to age or career stage. Participants consistently noted that engagement was dependent on the age or career stage of the individual. Younger employees or employees in earlier career stages were more likely to engage than older employees or employees more established in their careers. Participants consistently noted that career development was just not of interest to some employees.

Social-cognitive factors. This factor included all elements related to self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and personal goals. In relation to self-efficacy, a number of participants noted their perception of their own abilities was at times a barrier for engagement in OCM opportunities, while managers noted that assisting employees develop their self-efficacy supported their engagement in OCM. Outcome expectations were reported to be largely shaped by previous experiences of OCM and could be either a facilitating factor or a barrier to engagement. Employees who had received support for their career development from their organisation in the past were more likely to engage than employees who had not received support for career development from their current or previous organisations. Finally, individuals identified a range of personal career goals driving their engagement in OCM, for example, moving into a new role or finding a new challenge in their work.

Personality factors. This factor included all reference to personality traits that influenced engagement in OCM. The most commonly reported personality traits were level of extraversion or introversion, which were seen as impacting engagement in OCM practices. It was noted that employees with higher levels of extraversion appeared to be more proactive in engaging in OCM, while more introverted employees appeared less engaged or may be overlooked for OCM opportunities.

Career decision making. This factor related to employees' career decision making. Some employees were seen as not engaging in OCM due to career indecisiveness or confusion. Having a clear understanding of career next steps or support in career decision making was seen as an enabler for engagement in OCM.

Individual characteristics. This factor included a range of other individual characteristics highlighted as impacting on engagement in OCM. Characteristics included remuneration level, education level, mood or mental health, financial pressures and physical health.

OCM system. This factor included aspects of the OCM system that impacted on engagement in OCM. This included reference to OCM stakeholders, OCM practices, OCM processes. For some there was clear understanding of the opportunities available and all levels of the organisation worked together to support engagement in OCM. For others there was lack of engagement in OCM because of lack of awareness of OCM practices and OCM processes, or there were limited OCM opportunities available within the organisation.

Direct manager. This factor related to all references to direct managers. Direct managers were highlighted consistently as the key OCM stakeholder for engagement in OCM practices. Direct managers were seen as a direct enabler to engage individual employees in career planning conversations, and also an indirect enabler in the sharing of information about OCM practices and OCM processes with their employees. For some employees where their direct manager was a barrier of OCM, they noted seeking out the support or information from other stakeholders, either internal or external to the organisation.

Contextual factors. This category included all factors related to the context or environmental influences in the job role, organisation, and work-home interface. A number of participants noted that perceived time available to engage in OCM was seen

as a potential barrier. This time available was seen as either in reference to the work environment or the family demands of the individual. A couple of participants highlighted that the security of the organisational structure itself impacts on engagement, while others highlighted that financial support or lack of financial support impacted on engagement.

DISCUSSION

This study examined employee perceptions of OCM and the factors that support employees to engage with OCM. A range of factors reflective of both the organisational and individual driven perspectives of career development were observed. We identified seven factors of the OCM system: OCM strategy, OCM practices, OCM stakeholders, OCM processes, organisational contingency, differentiated system, and individually-driven system. Both organisations and employees value the importance of OCM as highlighted through the OCM strategy. A range of OCM practices were reported across both small and large organisations. Consistent with Baruch and Peiperl's (2000) model we found all levels of OCM practices referenced across organisations, but consistent with previous research there appeared limited consensus across the organisations about OCM practices provided within organisations (Lewis & Arnold, 2012; Lips-Wiersma & Hall, 2007). What appeared of more importance was not the number or type of OCM practices available, but the support provided within the OCM system by the OCM strategy, OCM stakeholders, and OCM processes.

Our findings bring together the organisational and individually driven perspectives of career development. Participants noted an increased importance of this OCM system operating as an individually-driven system. Rather than operating in opposition to each other, OCM and individual career development are operating largely in parallel, in support of both individual and organisational development. This is aligned both with the perspective of protean career orientation (Briscoe et al., 2006), but also

the OCM perspective of having a system that is both strategic and flexible to meet the needs of individual employees (De Vos & Cambré, 2017; Lips-Wiersma & Hall, 2007). Further highlighting this balance between individual and organisational responsibility was the OCM contingencies in place, where the individual career development support provided to employees was contingent on their continuing organisational tenure. Also, of note was that the financial demands on the organisation did limit access to career development opportunities by employees, which required the skills by the direct manager or employee to adapt their requirements to meet their career development needs.

The changing nature of careers (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009) was also highlighted in how organisations are encouraging career development not only as preparation for promotion, but also through the development of skills to increase employability, which can be developed within the organisation (De Vos et al., 2011). For the most part, the OCM system was available to all employees, including some contractors. Although, a number of organisations noted both a formal and informal talent management program, yet even in those organisations with a formal talent management system in place, a base level of OCM practices was available for all employees. A surprising but important finding was the diminished importance of HR in the OCM system, coupled with the increased importance of both direct managers and senior managers. HR managers noted their role was to create the system and ensure consistency within the system, but all stakeholders including senior managers and direct managers were responsible for implementation. Furthermore, two organisations had appointed specific career coaches within the organisation to provide the career support to employees, rather than being provided by a HR function. This could largely reflect both senior and direct managers being more empowered to manage career development engagement, thus providing the HR function more time to create strategy and architecture of the OCM system.

The eight facilitating factors for engagement in OCM included age or career stage, social-cognitive factors (self-efficacy, personal goals, outcome expectations), personality factors, career decision making, individual characteristics, OCM system, direct manager, and contextual factors. These findings again highlighted both individual and organisational career management perspectives. In accordance with social cognitive model of career self-management, a range of social-cognitive and personality factors influence individual engagement, yet engagement was based both on these individual factors and their previous or current experience of the OCM system. When the organisation has a clear focus on supporting employee career development (OCM strategy), there are a relevant range of OCM opportunities (OCM practices), and accessibility to OCM (OCM processes), individuals are more likely to engage in the OCM system. Notably, the emphasis on age or career stage also highlighted the potential enduring importance of the development perspective of career development (Super, 1990) in how and why people engage in career development. Driving the success of the engagement was not just the individual buying-in to the system, but also the importance of the support of their direct manager. The direct manager was seen as the most important stakeholder to support employee engagement in OCM. Emphasising the complexity faced by individual employees in managing their careers, respondents also highlighted the impact of career decision making on their engagement in OCM. This further emphasises the career planning support employees need to identify OCM opportunities, but also the importance of career decision making support within the SHRM system.

These results have important theoretical and practical implications. With a renewed focus on OCM, this study highlights the increased importance of organisations supporting career development. Our key research contribution is highlighting the relevance of SC-CSM model as a relevant framework to classify enablers and barriers

of organisational career management. We also confirmed that individual career planning and organisational career management can work in unison. Additionally, we identify the major role that key stakeholders play in the success of the OCM system. Direct managers retain a key role, but the importance of senior managers appears to be increasing in both leading the OCM strategy and supporting the engagement of employees in the OCM practices. However, OCM systems can also create barriers to engagement when OCM processes become too formal or inflexible. Highlighting the importance for practitioners to ensure the OCM system is both structured, yet flexible to adapt to the individual needs of employees. Organisations may look at ways to adapt their OCM system for employees that may be more introverted or lacking in self-efficacy. We also confirmed the increased role of the individual employee in driving the overall success of the OCM system. This therefore re-emphasised that rather than having a decreased role, organisations could have an increased role in developing employee capability and capacity to effectively navigate their OCM system, for the benefit of themselves and the organisation as a whole.

Limitations and directions for future research

This study explicitly asked participants for their perceptions of OCM. Therefore, only factors that the individual interviewees were aware of and that they could describe were articulated. It could be that other important factors could have more adequately explained employee perception of OCM or their engagement in OCM. For example, recent research has highlighted that different individual career anchors influences engagement in different OCM practices (Arnold et al., 2017). Further research could examine how these career anchors, or protean or boundaryless career orientations, influence how the individual employee navigates the OCM system. In this study we also did not explicitly compare and contrast the number of OCM practices that different employees observed. Although our strength was to include employees' perceptions at

all levels and across industries, this study only examined a limited range of employees and contexts, which may not be representative of the experiences of other contexts including small to medium sized organisations or self-employment. As our study included largely white-collar professions, further research could also look to explore OCM within blue collar or industrial environments.

Conclusions

OCM is more than a group of practices, but rather it is a system that is informed by strategy, and includes stakeholders, processes, and practices, each which impact on employee career development. This OCM system is complex, multi-faceted, and requires strategic intention to effectively operate. Senior managers and direct managers are charged with taking increased responsibility for engaging employees, and individual employees are taking increased accountability for their own career development. This is not a system without flaws, and a range of barriers to individuals engaging in this system were highlighted. Furthermore, with increased complexity, individual employees need greater support in managing career development than in a stable organisational environment. Rather than a tension between individual and organisational perspectives of career development, our study confirms that the individual and organisational perspectives of career development are largely working in unison.

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FIGURES & TABLES

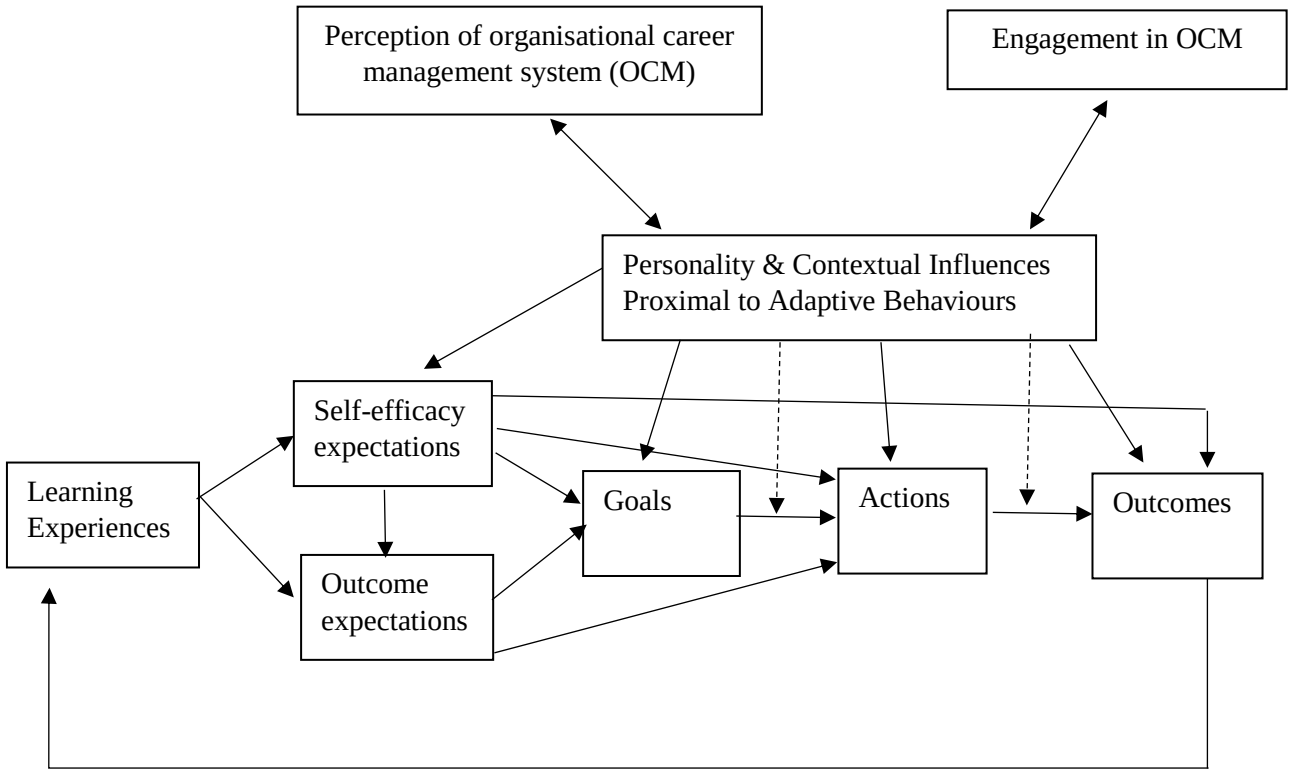

Figure 1. Research model. Adapted from Lent and Brown (2013) social cognitive model of career self-management.

Table 1

Demographics of interview participants

Case	Age	Gender	Role	Department	Industry	Number of employees	Employer tenure	Employment status	Qualification/degree
P1	36	Female	HR Manager	Human Resources	Fast Moving Consumer Goods	500-1000	1 year 8 months	Part-time	Masters
P2	43	Male	Employee	Sales	Construction	50-100	1 year 4 months	Full time	Professional Qualification
P3	32	Male	Direct Manager	Operations	Construction	50-100	9 years	Full time	Professional Qualification
P4	41	Female	Direct Manager	Operations	Motor	100-500	1 year	Full time	Masters
P5	38	Female	Employee	Operations	Construction	50-100	6 years	Contract Part-time	Professional Qualification
P6	26	Female	Employee	Human Resources	Professional Services	1000-5000	2 years	Full time	Masters
P7	54	Male	Employee	Information Technology	Telecommunications	>5000	2 years 3 months	Contract full time	High School Diploma
P8	44	Male	Direct Manager	Sales	Fast Moving Consumer Goods	>5000	2 years	Contract full time	Masters
P9	35	Female	Direct Manager	Information Technology	Government	500-1000	4 years	Full time	Masters
P10	29	Female	Employee	Research	Not for Profit	50-100	3 months	Full time	Degree
P11	33	Female	Employee	Information Technology	Not for Profit	50-100	9 years	Full time	Degree

Case	Age	Gender	Role	Department	Industry	Number of employees	Employer tenure	Employment status	Qualification/degree
P12	32	Male	Direct Manager	Information Technology	Not for Profit	50-100	1 year	Full time	Degree
P13	67	Male	Direct Manager	Operations	Construction	50-100	11 years	Full time	Degree
P14	58	Female	HR Manager	Human Resources	Not for Profit	50-100	7 years	Full time	Degree
P15	44	Male	HR Manager	Human Resources	Retail	>5000	11 years	Full time	Masters
P16	31	Male	HR Manager	Human Resources	Technology	1000-5000	1 year 1 month	Full time	Masters
P17	31	Female	Direct Manager	Operations	Education	100-500	3 years	Full time	Masters
P18	51	Female	Employee	Allied Health	Health	>5000	1 year 11 months	Full time	Trade Certificate
P19	35	Male	Direct Manager	Recruitment	Health	>5000	6 years	Full time	Degree
P20	44	Male	Direct Manager	Operations	Health	>5000	1 year	Full time	Masters
P21	33	Female	Employee	Mental Health	Health	>5000	4 years 2 months	Full time	Degree
P22	46	Female	Employee	Mental Health	Health	>5000	15 years	Full time	Masters
P23	38	Female	Employee	Mental Health	Health	>5000	11 years	Part-time	Degree
P24	53	Female	Direct Manager	Nursing	Health	>5000	5 years 2 months	Full time	Masters
P25	61	Female	Direct Manager	Allied Health	Health	>5000	19 years 2 months	Full time	Degree
P26	42	Female	Employee	Nursing	Health	>5000	4 years 6 months	Part-time	Masters
P27	39	Female	Manager	Allied Health	Health	>5000	14 years	Full time	Degree

Case	Age	Gender	Role	Department	Industry	Number of employees	Employer tenure	Employment status	Qualification/degree
P28	52	Female	Manager	Allied Health	Health	>5000	22 years 4 months	Full time	Trade Certificate
P29	42	Female	HR Manager	Human Resources	Health	>5000	3 years	Full time	Degree
P30	40	Female	Employee	Allied Health	Health	>5000	3 years	Full time	Degree
P31	39	Male	Employee	Nursing	Health	>5000	16 years	Full time	Masters
P32	57	Female	Employee	Nursing	Health	>5000	24 years	Full time	Masters
P33	32	Male	Employee	Nursing	Health	>5000	10 years 6 months	Full time	Masters
P34	30	Female	Employee	Operations	Health	>5000	1 year 10 months	Contract full time	Degree
P35	39	Female	Employee	Nursing	Health	>5000	15 years	Full time	Post graduate
P36	54	Female	Employee	Nursing	Health	>5000	6 years 8 months	Full time	Post graduate
P37	40	Female	Direct Manager	Nursing	Health	>5000	15 years	Part-time	Post graduate
P38	33	Female	HR Manager	Human Resources	Health	>5000	8 years 2 months	Part-time	Degree
P39	61	Female	Employee	Operations	Aged Care	1000-5000	8 years	Part-time	Trade Certificate
P40	28	Male	Direct Manager	Nursing	Aged Care	1000-5000	3 years	Full-time	Masters
P41	38	Male	Direct Manager	Kitchen	Aged Care	1000-5000	5 months	Full time	Degree
P42	60	Female	Direct Manager	Nursing	Aged Care	1000-5000	3 years	Full time	Masters
P43	59	Female	Direct Manager	Recreation	Aged Care	1000-5000	11 years	Part-time	Trade Certificate
P44	52	Female	Employee	Facilities	Aged Care	1000-5000	3 years	Part-time	Year 10 certificate

Case	Age	Gender	Role	Department	Industry	Number of employees	Employer tenure	Employment status	Qualification/degree
P45	45	Female	Direct Manager	Nursing	Aged Care	1000-5000	1 years 6 months	Full time	Masters
P46	35	Male	Direct Manager	Finance	Aged Care	1000-5000	15 years	Full time	Degree
P47	42	Female	Employee	Finance	Aged Care	1000-5000	11 years	Full time	Degree
P48	27	Female	HR Manager	Human Resources	Aged Care	1000-5000	3 years	Full time	Degree
P49	35	Female	Direct Manager	Operations	Insurance	1000-5000	15 years	Full time	High School
P50	34	Female	Employee	Marketing	Healthcare	1000-5000	4 years 5 months	Full time	Masters
P51	47	Female	Direct Manager	Information Technology	Energy	1000-5000	9 years	Full time	High School

Table 2

Organisational career management practices reported by participants

Level of OCM practice	OCM practices
Basic	Internal job postings
Basic	Internal training
Basic	Conferences
Basic	External training
Basic	Financial support for study
Basic	Online training
Formal	Career paths
Formal	Career development mobile application
Formal	Intranet
Formal	Study leave policy
Active management	Career break schemes
Active management	Internal mobility
Active management	Job rotations
Active management	Mentoring
Active management	Secondments
Active management	Talent management
Multi-directional	360-degree feedback
Multi-directional	Psychometric assessments
Multi-directional	Skills assessments
Active planning	Performance appraisal as basis of career planning
Active planning	Career coaching
Active planning	Career discussion guides for managers
Active Planning	Succession planning

Table 3

Example quotes that demonstrate the factors that engage employees in organisational career management

Engagement factor	Enabler	Barrier
Age or career stage	"The younger ones, or the ones that had been progressing through roles or organisations were obviously more interested in [career development] conversations. …" (Participant 7, Manager)	"…People that had been in a role for a long period of time and comfortable in the role …they were happy doing the jobs they were doing; they didn't have any interest in going anywhere". (Participant 7, Manager)
Social cognitive factors	Self-efficacy. "Letting people know that they are capable of doing more than what they currently are doing." (Participant 37, Manager)	Self-efficacy. "I kind of stopped myself because I wasn't sure if I could do the next level role" (Participant 3, Manager)
	Personal Goals. "I think it comes down to what people want to get from their careers" (Participant 21, Employee)	Personal Goals. "Career progression is voluntary. People can sit in the same position and at the same level for as long as they like." (Participant 33, Employee)
	Outcome Expectations. "Largely based on past experience. So those that were supported felt the encouragement to keep driving their development and implementing it into the work that they were doing at that time." (Participant 4, Human Resources)	Outcome Expectations. "Staff members through experience have become disillusioned. As in why bother? I've applied for this position, I've tried to get this course, and I keep getting knocked back, I can't be bothered anymore" (Participant 33, Employee)
Personality factors	"You find more extraverted people are happier to take up courses" (Participant 50, Employee)	"If you are not a motivated enough person, or a bit shy, or not so extraverted I feel you could fall between the cracks, and that is a talent that could be used" (Participant 34, Employee)

Engagement factor	Enabler	Barrier
Career decision making	"It is also providing environment to ensure that an individual is comfortable in having that [career] conversation … Because not every person will know where their skills and strengths are." (Participant 4, Human Resources) "Being able to identify if it is the right course, at the right level for me." (Participant 21, Employee)	"Sometimes if they are not clear on what they want, how do I translate that into action if I'm not clear on what I want?" (Participant 14, Human Resources) "Indecisiveness, they are caught between two study options, so they don't get started." (Participant 45, Manager)
OCM system	"For those supported by line manager, and all the support functions around the site (whether it be HR, GM or VP) … [they] kept their momentum on track. That person was then focused on the end goal. Some of those end goals could be twelve months to five years, so those little milestones of checking in and keeping that momentum going played dividends" (Participant 4, Human Resources) "All directors here want to see their employees develop and grow. There is obviously that enthusiasm and talk about it. We are all involved in shaping the organisation. Senior managers, HR, and employee need to marry up." (Participant 11, Employee)	"Other organisations I have worked for always say there is room for progression, but nothing would ever come of it" (Participant 2, Employee) "Accessibility of the information…and the clarity of policy and systems in place." (Participant 6, Employee).

Engagement factor	Enabler	Barrier
Direct manager	"Biggest influence in my career was my immediate manager in a previous role, he gave me a lot of mentoring and stuff like that. Provided overview of different roles and what could be expected." (P3, Manager) "The skill in the line manager in having those [career] conversations, in terms of drawing out their [employees] aspirations and what they are looking for" (P14, Human Resources) "It is your direct line manager that has the strong impact on whether you buy in to the process or not" (Participant 6, Employee)	"Clash of personalities with immediate manager has also been a barrier" (Participant 3, Employee) "Sometimes there is negativity from managers, because what they see is losing their resources and potentially having to re-train people …There is a conflict between short-term sales to the long-term development of a person. Those managers tending to look at short term needs can be a barrier" (Participant 13, Manager) "We have the tools, but if that doesn't come with backing from managers we are not getting buy-in" (Participant 20, Manager)

Engagement factor	Enabler	Barrier
Contextual factors	Cost. “They provide me with study support, provide financial assistance for the units I’m studying, they provide eight study days a year, which is fantastic.” (Participant 17, Manager) Time. “We've got pretty good flexible work practices, whether that is 4 days per week, or early or late starts, which helps people to balance other things in this work.” (Participant 50, Employee) Organisational Structure. “While you are in the company you have a better chance of navigating to a career where you want to go to” (Participant 8, Manager)	Cost. “Cost would also be barrier for a number of people.” (Participant 35, Employee) Time. “Time. Absolutely. Because we are busy at home, we are busy at work. You get to a point where you think, is it really worth going to that next step?” (Participant 28, Manager) Organisational Structure. “We experienced two restructures back to back, they've shifted the career next steps.” (Participant 19, Manager)

Conclusion to Study Two

Study 2 expanded on the findings of Study 1 by identifying what factors make up the organisational career management (OCM) system beyond OCM practices. Seven factors of the OCM system were identified. Human resources managers were largely seen as the architects of the system, while direct managers and senior managers had larger roles in the operationalisation of the system. Aligned to the talent management perspective, there was evidence that this system could be targeted for strategically important employees, although there appeared to be a level of support available to all employees. Emphasising both the individual career planning and OCM perspectives of the system, this system was largely individually driven, yet support received was at times reliant on organisational contingencies, such as continuing employee tenure.

Study 2 also examined the factors that support employee engagement in OCM. There were eight factors that acted as either enablers or barriers to engagement. An adapted version of the social cognitive model of career self-management, which incorporates the organisational factors of direct manager and the OCM system could provide a useful framework for the design of an OCM system. Studies 1 and 2 have found that OCM remains important for both organisations and employees. There are several possible future research directions from these studies. For the purpose of this thesis, our focus was to better understand the factors that support employee engagement in OCM. Study 2 identified several factors that support engagement in OCM, one individual employee factor was the level of career decision making. Employees with greater career decidedness were more likely to engage in OCM. To further understand the career decision making challenges that employees may face, Study 3 focuses on understanding voluntary career change.

Chapter 4

Voluntary career change: A systematic review and research agenda

Introduction to Study Three

The results of Studies 1 and 2 confirm that organisations are increasingly supporting employee career development, and also individual employees do appear to be taking increased responsibility for their career development within this system. In Study 3 our focus is again at the individual employee level with a focus on how employees navigate the self-initiated career transition of voluntary career change. Employee level of career decision making was found to be a factor that either supported or hindered engagement in OCM in Study 2. Employees are now anticipated to undertake an increased number of career transitions throughout their working life. Career transitions can either be voluntary or involuntary. In Study 3, voluntary *career* change is explicitly examined as distinct from voluntary *job* change or involuntary career change. Voluntary career change is initiated by the individual employee to move from one career area to a different career. To better understand voluntary career change a review of the theoretical perspectives that inform voluntary career change is undertaken before a systematic review of the voluntary career change literature.

This third study was presented at the Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management, Atlanta, Georgia, USA on August 8th, 2017, as detailed in page vi. Reviewer feedback and feedback received at the conference presentation were incorporated into revisions of this paper.

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Voluntary career change: A systematic review and research agenda

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ABSTRACT

Voluntary career change is a distinct and important area of turnover research. This paper presents a theoretical and empirical examination of voluntary career change. Antecedents and outcomes of voluntary career change are explored using career transition, career development, and turnover models. Most career transition theories focus on factors that follow the transition rather than stages leading to the transition. Results of a systematic review of 22 voluntary career change studies highlight critical gaps in our understanding of voluntary career change, including the lack of empirical research on the utility of important and well-developed career transition models. This paper discusses these gaps in light of key theoretical frameworks and sets a future research agenda.

Keywords: Career change, career development, career transition, systematic review, voluntary turnover

Voluntary career change: A systematic review and research agenda

Career change is complex. In a world of work that is demanding them to be more adaptive and proactive in their career management, individuals are said to voluntarily change careers with increasing frequency (Inkson et al., 2012; Rodrigues et al., 2015). Meanwhile, organisations and industries face skills shortages in a number of occupations. These conditions highlight the need to examine the unique differences between voluntary job change and voluntary career change. Voluntary career change can be viewed through the lens of employee turnover or career development literature, which has been extensively reviewed (see Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Hancock, Allen, Bosco, McDaniel, & Pierce, 2011; Hom, Mitchell, Lee, & Griffeth, 2012; Maertz & Griffeth, 2004), as has the changing nature of career development (see Baruch, 2004b; Feldman & Ng, 2007; Sullivan, 1999; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). However, despite calls for more focused examination of employee turnover (Hancock et al., 2011; Mawdsley & Somaya, 2016), there remains a gap in the literature to review the distinction between *job* and *career* turnover. This review presents a theoretical and empirical examination of voluntary career change. Individuals undertaking a voluntary career change are defined as working adults in one of three stages of the career change process: contemplating career change, currently in the process of enacting a career change, or having completed a career change. We aim to better understand this process of voluntary career change and set a future research agenda for this important and unique form of employee turnover.

Understanding individual change has been an important point of scholarly enquiry across career transition and individual change research disciplines (George & Jones, 2001; Louis, 1980; Prochaska & Diclemente, 1983; Schlossberg, 1981). For an experience to be defined as a transition there needs to be both a personal awareness of discontinuity and new

behavioural responses required (Adams et al., 1976). Both the type of transition, including whether it is voluntary or involuntary, and predictable or unpredictable (Adams et al., 1976; Louis, 1980), the stages of transition have been emphasised as important points of enquiry. At the core of these theories are the range of cognitive (Prochaska & Diclemente, 1983; Rhodes & Doering, 1983) and emotional (George & Jones, 2001; Louis, 1980) decision making processes or stages an individual navigates to adapt to the change. However, "seldom if ever does a person move neatly from phase to phase" (Adams et al., 1976, p. 13). The severity of impact of the change has been theorised to be influenced by a combination of individual (George & Jones, 2001; Louis, 1980; Schlossberg, 1981), organisational (Rhodes & Doering, 1983), and other environmental (Schlossberg, 1981) factors.

This complexity of individual change is further amplified when examining voluntary career change because of the inherent uncertainty in the labour market (W. Borgen, 1997). Voluntary career change is a unique form of turnover that not only reduces the number of employees in an organisation, but can also reduce the number of skilled employees available in particular career areas (Van der Heijden, Van Dam, & Hasselhorn, 2009). Career change is defined as movement to a new occupation that is not part of the typical progression (Carless & Arnup, 2011; Rhodes & Doering, 1983). Voluntary career change cannot be considered a dichotomous variable but rather could be considered along a continuum from inactivity to actual change behaviour (Donohue, 2006). Carless and Arnup (2011) highlighted that initiating a career change often begins about twelve months before the actual change. Schein (1971) first described the dynamics of the career in terms of boundaries. He defined a career as a sequence of boundary passages in which the individual moves up and across hierarchical boundaries, across functional boundaries, or more

centrally into the organisation, across inclusion boundaries. Hayes and Hough (1975) defined a boundary as "that which lies between two conditions that are seen to be different by the organisation, the individual, or both" (p. 84). They explained that both boundary-crossing and the individual choosing not to cross a boundary are equally important events to be examined. Technological, economical, and global integration has led to both a reduction in the number of jobs and changes in job demands (Bridges, 1994). Boundaryless career theory (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996) suggests that careers are therefore no longer 'bounded' by the organisation but rather independent from these traditional frameworks. There has been much debate as to the reality of the speed and impact of this change (Dries et al., 2012; Hess, Jepsen, & Dries, 2012), although it is largely concluded that changes in the labour market will lead to an increased number of career transitions (Inkson et al., 2012). It is therefore important to better understand voluntary career change in this increasingly transitional workforce.

Many theoretical frameworks have been used to examine the different stages of voluntary career change, as seen in Table 1. Traditionally careers were seen through the lens of developmental theories (Super, 1990). Career decision-making was largely seen as a developmental stage of adolescence or entry to the workforce, although Super (1990) did highlight individuals' movements through mini-development cycles throughout their career. Super's (1990) Life-span life-space model indicated that individuals would navigate through different levels of career concerns as they enact a career decision. Consistent with Holland's (1973, 1985, 1997) theory of personalities and environments, people are attracted to careers that best match their personality (interests, abilities, competencies), and individuals tend to have higher levels of job satisfaction when working in roles that are congruent to their interests and personality. Conversely, occupational embeddedness

(Feldman & Ng, 2007) and occupational commitment (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993) highlight the forces that enable or hinder individuals enacting a career change. These forces include the occupational fit of the career in that person's life, links provided for the individual within the occupation, the sacrifice the individuals would need to make to effect a change (Feldman & Ng, 2007), and levels of occupational commitment (Meyer et al., 1993). Similarly, the ability, motivation, and opportunity framework (Maclnnis & Jaworski, 1989) highlights that individuals require ability, motivation, and opportunity to take action. However, although important in highlighting factors in the pre-change environment, these models tend to discount the process of the career change.

Insert Table 1 about here

Career change as a process

Rhodes and Doering (1983) sought to fill this gap in understanding the career change process with the integrated model of career change. This model was inspired by Mobley's organisational turnover model (Mobley, 1977), which emphasised the important intermediary variables between job dissatisfaction and actual turnover behaviour. Career change is seen as a process from intention through to actual change, where intention is predicted by the individual's consideration of a range of individual, organisational and other factors. The immediate antecedent to actual career change is intention (Ajzen, 1991; Rhodes & Doering, 1983). There have been a range of antecedents theorised to explain behaviour intention (Ajzen, 1991; Khapova, Arthur, Wilderom, & Svensson, 2007; Lent et al., 2004; Rhodes & Doering, 1983). Rhodes and Doering's (1983) integrated model of career change suggests that job dissatisfaction leads to thoughts of job or career change while career dissatisfaction leads to intention to change careers. Social cognitive career theory (Lent et al., 2004) says self-efficacy and outcome expectations affect the goals one

engages in and the effort extended toward the achievement of these goals. In this way both self-efficacy and outcome expectations are seen as antecedents to career change intention.

To further examine this process of intention for career change, Barclay and colleagues (2011) adapted the transtheoretical model of change to career change. The transtheoretical model of change defines change along the five dimensions of pre-contemplation, contemplation, preparation, action, and maintenance. Individuals can enter the model at any stage, relapse through the stages, or exit based on a combination of individual and environmental factors (Prochaska & Diclemente, 1983), from pre-contemplation, where individuals are unaware of the need for change, to action, where individuals take action towards the change. Individuals are more likely to engage in future career change planning activity when they are in the preparation or action stages rather than in the pre-contemplation or contemplation stages (Barclay, Stoltz, & Chung, 2011). Many models of transition explain a period of inaction during career change (Adams et al., 1976; George & Jones, 2001; Prochaska & Diclemente, 1983). This period could be awareness raising during pre-contemplation and contemplation (Prochaska & Diclemente, 1983) or immobilisation where the individual has a lack of understanding, feeling overwhelmed, or a denial of the situation (Adams et al., 1976), or a period of resistance based on reconciliation of current schema and identity and future identity (George & Jones, 2001), or thoughts of the career change (Rhodes & Doering, 1983). Adams, Hayes, and Hopson (1976) explain this phase best as a sense of being "frozen up" (p. 11). This place of being "in-between" is not static or temporary, but rather the dynamics that impact on an individual in this situation remains worthy of its own investigation (Potter, 2015).

Louis (1980) defined different types of transitions and the stages of sense-making that individuals navigate to reconcile differences between pre-change and post-change

conditions. Intrarole transitions can be enacted without the individual being consciously aware, such as adjustments made in their current work role. Interrole transitions, on the other hand, would be difficult to enact without the employee being consciously aware, such as enacting a voluntary career change. Importantly, Louis (1980) typology of transitions highlights that transitions can be enacted either within the current organisation or to a different organisation. Individuals navigate a sensemaking process of weighing up their experiences of their current work environment and future work environment, with further reconciliation between the two as the individual moves further towards enacting the transition. Similarly, in Hopson's (1981) model of adult transitions proposes individuals go through stages of adjustment which were defined as immobilisation, reaction (either elation or despair, or minimisation), self-doubt, letting go, testing, and the search for meaning. An individual's stay in each stage will depend on the predictability and their preparedness for the change. Schlossberg's (1981) theory of individual transitions also focuses on individual reaction to an event or non-event of transition. In this model the individual's perception of the transition, their environmental resources, and individual characteristics all influence how the individual reacts to the change. These career transition models have been useful to understand factors influencing retirement or adaptation to career termination (Grzeda, 1999; Swain, 1991).

There is a need for individuals to initiate an increasing number of voluntary career changes throughout their working life. In a world of work that is constantly changing, individuals need to consistently build their career competencies to adapt and develop and more proactively voluntarily enact career change (Inkson et al., 2012; Rodrigues et al., 2015). There is therefore a critical requirement to understand this process of voluntary career change. Career change researchers and practitioners need to consider the process that

an individual navigates from contemplating a career change, planning for career change, through to actual career change behaviour. Different predictors have been shown to influence intention to leave and actual turnover in the job change literature (Meyer et al., 1993; Ng, Sorensen, Eby, & Feldman, 2007), and it is similarly important to separate career change intention from actual career change behaviour. Outcomes of career change are likely to differ according to the stage of career change (Super, 1990) and experience of that career change (Hopson, 1981; Louis, 1980; Schlossberg, 1981).

The aim of the current study is twofold, to systematically review voluntary career change research, and to set an agenda for future research. The study starts with reporting the frequency of each theoretical perspective used in the voluntary career change research. Next, antecedent and outcome factors related to career change intention and actual career change are explored. Finally, we identify gaps in our understanding of voluntary career change process and set a research agenda to address this gap.

METHOD

Search strategy

The purpose of this study is to examine the research findings on the antecedents and outcomes of voluntary career change. Publications included in the review cover voluntary pre-career change, career change in process, and post career change. Academic Search Premier, PsycInfo, Business Source Premier, and Proquest databases were searched. Only English language articles in peer-reviewed journals relevant to voluntary career change for working adults were included. Search terms included “career change” “occupational change” “career transition” “career mobility” “occupational mobility” and “occupational turnover”. References were added to this selection by tracing back references included in the retrieved literature.

Inclusion and exclusion criteria

Studies were included if they met the inclusion criteria. First, studies needed to focus on voluntary career change or career intention of working adults moving into to a different career. Studies related to adolescent career decision making, workforce entry or exit were excluded. Studies were excluded if the transition or change was involuntary or forced, or job or employer turnover. All genders, occupations, and ethnicities were included in the search. Data range of papers was set at 1996 to present to focus on papers published since the documentation of a shift in career trajectories was first emphasised with boundaryless career theory (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). Finally, to allow direct comparison, the review focused on quantitative studies, so papers not reporting quantitative antecedents or outcomes, or publication types of qualitative study, narrative review, theoretical perspective, dissertation, abstract, book, book chapter, report from a book chapter, letter to the editor or conference proceedings were excluded.

Procedure

The first author assessed the methodological quality of included articles. The initial search strategy yielded 5,134 papers. As seen in Figure 1, there were 3,230 papers reviewed for relevance, of which 150 were selected for further detailed review, and 24 meeting the inclusion criteria were retained for quality assessment. The 24 retained articles were reviewed based on an adapted form of the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses guidelines (Knights, Sherry, & Ruddock-Hudson, 2016; Moher, Liberati, Tetzlaff, & Altman, 2009). Each paper was reviewed to identify potential bias that could be evident in relation to participant selection, participant recruitment, confounding variables, and the validity and reliability of antecedents and outcome measures. Two papers were excluded on the basis of quality. From the remaining 22

papers, data extracted included study design, participant characteristics (sample size, occupation, gender, age, tenure, country), career change, scales, antecedents, and outcomes. The nature and significance of the relations between the antecedents and career change intention or career change behaviour was established.

Insert Figure 1 about here

RESULTS

An overview of the characteristics of sample size, job areas, and stage of change of the 22 studies are presented in Table 2, while Table 3 presents the publication details, theoretical model used, and antecedent and outcome variables in the studies. The 22 studies included more than 50,000 participants, with half the studies having more than 500 participants. A range of occupations were investigated. Nurses and teachers were represented in three studies each, while participants in ten studies represented a variety of occupations. The studies were relatively evenly distributed in each stage of investigation of voluntary career change, whether pre-career change (41% of studies), during career change (18%), and post-career change (41%). The majority of studies were from United States (32%) and Australia (32%), with the remainder from Germany, Canada, Netherlands, Taiwan, United Kingdom, and Hong Kong.

Insert Table 2 about here

A range of theoretical perspectives were used as the basis of investigation. Occupational commitment (Meyer et al., 1993) was referenced in five papers, all five investigating pre-career change. The integrated model of career change (Rhodes & Doering, 1983) was referenced in four papers, one investigating pre-career change and three investigating post-career change. Vocational personality (Holland, 1985, 1997) was

the next most frequently represented theory investigated in the three studies, one investing pre-career change and two investigating during career change. Life-span developmental theory (Super, 1990) was referenced in two studies, one investigating pre-career change and one investigating during career change. One study examined each of inter-role transition typology (Louis, 1980), social cognitive career theory (Lent et al., 2004), boundaryless career theory (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996), occupational embeddedness (Ng & Feldman, 1997), and protean career theory (Hall, 1996b). Three papers looked at longitudinal labour data and made no reference to a theoretical framework informing the study.

Insert Table 3 about here

Antecedents

Job satisfaction was the most frequently investigated antecedent across the stages of career change. Seven papers found significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and career change intention or actual career change, with those lower in job satisfaction more likely to make a career change (Blau, 2000, 2007; Carless & Bernath, 2007; Cha & Cohen-Vogel, 2011; Donohue, 2007; Van der Heijden et al., 2009; Zhou, Zou, Williams, & Tabvuma, 2017). Only one paper did not find job satisfaction as a significant antecedent (Carless & Arnup, 2011). Occupational commitment was also a frequently reported antecedent, with those lower in occupational commitment more likely to make a career change (Chang, Chi, & Miao, 2007; Fouad, Singh, Cappaert, Chang, & Wan, 2016; Morin, Meyer, McInerney, Marsh, & Ganotice, 2015; Otto, Dette-Hagenmeyer, & Dalbert, 2010; Van der Heijden et al., 2009; Yousef, Sanders, & Abbas, 2015). The next most reported antecedent was intention to change occupation (Fouad et al., 2016) or activities related to actively preparing for the change, i.e., career planning (Carless &

Bernath, 2007), actively looking for a new job one year prior (Carless & Arnup, 2011), or studying towards the future career (Nooney, Unruh, & Yore, 2010).

There were mixed findings related to demographic variables, with some studies finding demographic factors, such as age (Blau, 2000; Van der Heijden et al., 2009; Yousef et al., 2015), gender (Blau, 2000; Carless & Arnup, 2011), children (Nooney et al., 2010) and tenure (Carless & Arnup, 2011; Yousef et al., 2015) as significant antecedents of career change intention or actual career change, while other studies found no significant differences for these factors. Other individual factors reported to predict career change intention included lower career resilience (Carless & Bernath, 2007), work-to-home interface (Van der Heijden et al., 2009), motivation for skill development, risk taking style, dominant style (Donohue, 2007), uncertainty tolerance, mobility self-efficacy (Otto et al., 2010), openness to experience and extraversion (Carless & Arnup, 2011), and boundaryless career attitudes (Howes & Goodman-Delahunty, 2015). In examining career change intention, three studies found significant mediating or buffering relationships between organisational commitment and other antecedents to career change intention (Chang et al., 2007; Hess et al., 2012; Morin et al., 2015). Level of career specialisation was also found to avert career change, with one study finding that those with more specialised technical training were less likely to make a career change (Geel, Mure, & Backes-Gellner, 2011). Finally, one study that examined entrepreneurial career change found that risk taking levels did not differentiate career changers and non-changers, but did explain the approach towards career change. Those who were more risk-adverse were more likely to approach the self-employment career change in a hybrid approach rather than make a direct transition (Raffiee & Jie, 2014).

Outcomes

In addition to being the most frequently studied antecedent, job satisfaction was also the most investigated outcome variable. Jepsen and Chonduri (2001) found individuals with a changing occupational career pattern reported higher levels of job satisfaction in their 25-year career than those with a stable career pattern. Pointing to the transitional nature of career change, Smart and Peterson (1997) found job satisfaction was highest in individuals who had made a career change, and Howes and Goodman-Delahunty (2015) found job satisfaction was significantly lower for those considering career change than for those who had either made a decision to change careers or made a decision not to make a career change. Wellbeing levels were also reported as lower in profiles related to intention to career change (Morin et al., 2015). Zhou and colleagues (2017) found there was an initial increase in job satisfaction following career change, a "honeymoon period", followed by a steady decline in job satisfaction in the years following the career change.

There were mixed findings on income, with some finding increased salary levels post-career change (Krahn, Howard, & Galambos, 2015; Nooney et al., 2010), and Carless and Arnup (2011) finding no significant difference with pre and post-career change income, despite significant increase in reported job security. Individuals were more likely to change to careers more congruent to their personality (Oleski & Subich, 1996).

Limitations and future research directions reported in each of the studies are in Table 4. Consistent limitations tended to relate to cross-section research design or the lack of variables to be investigated. As a result, the focus on future research recommendations tends to be on examining voluntary career change longitudinally.

Insert Table 4 about here

DISCUSSION

Voluntary career change is a unique transition which demands scholarly enquiry, distinct from job change (Rhodes & Doering, 1983). The aim of this study was to systematically review the voluntary career change literature. There are two major observations from this review. First, emphasising the complexity of the career change process, the only consistent antecedents reported across studies were job satisfaction, occupational commitment, and intention to change careers, with individuals lower in job satisfaction, lower in occupational commitment, and higher in career change intention more likely to intend or to make a career change. Importantly the focus of investigation in the antecedents was on job satisfaction rather than career satisfaction, especially given that Rhodes and Doering (1993)'s theorised that job satisfaction and career satisfaction are two distinct antecedents in the process of career change. Our study shows conflicting results on the demographic variables and their impact on career change, and all other antecedents investigated offered unique insight into individual factors influencing voluntary career change. Notably this review further highlights the importance of examining the impact of organisational factors on career change intention and actual career change. Different levels of organisational commitment were found to have a mediating or buffering impact during the pre-career change stage (Chang, Chi, & Miao, 2007; Hess et al., 2012; Morin, Meyer, McInerney, Marsh, & Ganotice, 2015). Rhodes and Doering (1983) theorised this pre-career change period would involve the individual weighing up a range of individual, organisational, and environmental factors before moving towards a career change process, emphasising the importance of investigating both the direct and indirect antecedents to voluntary career change. None of the studies in the current systematic review examined the

external labour market environment and how this could impact career change opportunities or process.

Second, this review reinforces the importance of examining career change as a process. Individuals in the throes of contemplating a career change reported lower job satisfaction than those actively working towards or had completed a career change (Smart & Peterson, 1997). Howes and Goodman-Delahunty (2015) define this period of considering a career change as a crisis within the career, which is either resolved through increasing job satisfaction or moving into a new career. Accordingly, those individuals with profiles aligned to career change intention also reported lower levels of wellbeing than those with occupational and organisational committed profiles. These outcomes highlight the process of career change but more specifically highlight the impact of this pre career-change contemplation on the individual. The human adaptation to transition model (Schlossberg, 1981) defined a transition as either an event or non-event. Individuals contemplating a career change yet not moving forward with that career change may still encounter the same outcomes of adaptation. None of the papers examined individuals who had contemplated career change and not changed careers, nor the impacts of this indecision on the individual and the organisation.

Future research agenda

This review highlights a research agenda for voluntary career change. Researchers are reminded that voluntary career change is a process of transition and each stage of that transition is worthy of investigation. Although Rhodes and Doering's (1983) model of career change and other developmental career change theories (Holland, 1973, 1985, 1997; Super, 1990) were investigated, no study used a career transition model (Hopson, 1981; Louis, 1980; Schlossberg, 1981) as the basis of their research design. More specific

transition-oriented research is needed at each stage of pre-, during and post-career change. Each stage provides unique transitional challenges for the individual and organisation. At pre career-change, individuals appear to be weighing up individual, organisational, and environmental factors.

The focus on job satisfaction, occupational commitment, and organisational commitment antecedents emphasised that individuals weigh up their current "job" environment in making judgements about their career. There remains a need to better understand the weighting of "job" versus "employer" versus "career" factors that influence voluntary career change intention and actual career change. During career change contemplation, individuals experienced reduced job satisfaction and reported reduced wellbeing. Further research is needed to examine the objective and subjective consequences of this stage for individual and organisational performance. Most papers focused on the individual perspective, which is important, but organisations can also benefit in understanding how they can best support employees to navigate career change. Organisations would benefit from understanding the factors how best to support employees considering voluntary career change so that they can reduce the negative impact of the career indecision on employee performance. Further research is needed to examine how individuals approached their career change and the impact of this approach on the outcomes of the career change. In addition to understanding these individual transitional stages, further research is needed to examine the process of voluntary career change. Different careers have different levels of specialisation, and this level of constraint in the career is likely to impact the process of voluntary career change. The recommendations reported in the studies pointed consistently to the need to investigate more variables, different

viewpoints of the career change, a broader range of occupations, and the transitions longitudinally.

Limitations of the current study

This systematic review is not without limitations and the papers reviewed highlight the limitations of their findings. For the most part, the models tested explained only a small to modest amount of variance between career changers and non-career changers (Carless & Arnup, 2011), emphasising there is still much to uncover about the antecedents to voluntary career change. Voluntary career change was operationalised differently, and the timing of measurement of the antecedents and outcomes was inconsistent, limiting our ability to combine results across papers. Further limiting the findings, only quantitatively measured antecedents and outcomes were reviewed. Mixed-method and qualitative studies of voluntary career change could add to our understanding. This review only examined papers from 1996 that specifically examined voluntary career change. Papers from an earlier time or that examined forced career change, such as military (Baruch, 2006; Baruch & Campbell Quick, 2007), could offer additional insights.

Conclusion

This review highlights the complexity and transitional nature of voluntary career change. There appears to be a range of individual, environmental, and organisational factors which are both direct and indirect antecedents to voluntary career change. On the whole, voluntary career change appears to generate positive outcomes for the employee following the career change. However, emphasising the transitional nature of career change, employees in the throes of preparing for career change reported lower job satisfaction and wellbeing than employees not preparing for career change. Suggesting employees may need further support in managing this pre-career change period. As

highlighted in the theoretical discussion, further examination of the transitional nature of voluntary career change is needed. A better understanding of voluntary career change will assist organisations and industry to best support employees navigating the career change process.

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** Denotes included in systematic review.*

TABLES

Table 1

Overview of elements of theoretical frameworks mapped to different stages of career change

Theory	Pre- Career Change	During Career Change	Post-Career Change
Theory of Vocational Personalities and Environments – Holland (1973, 1983, 1997)	• Personality congruence		
Life-Span Development Theory to Career Development - Super (1990)	• Exploration • Establishment • Maintenance • Disengagement		
Occupational embeddedness Feldman & Ng (2007)	• Fit • Links • Sacrifice		
Occupational Commitment – Meyer, Allen & Smith (1993)	• Affective commitment • Normative commitment • Continuance commitment		
Ability – Motivation – Opportunity Model - Maclnnis & Jaworski (1989)	• Ability • Motivation • Opportunity		

Theory	Pre- Career Change	During Career Change	Post-Career Change
Integrated Model of Career Change - Rhodes & Doering (1983)	• 12 individual, organisation, individual x organisation, and environmental antecedents to intention to change careers	• Intention to search • Actual search • Intention to change careers • Preparation for change • Actual change	
Social Cognitive Career Theory - Lent, Brown & Hackett (1991)	• Self-Efficacy • Outcome Expectations • Personal Goals	• Intention • Behaviour	
Transtheoretical model of change - Prochaska and Diclemente (1983)	• Pre-contemplation • Contemplation	• Preparation • Action	• Maintenance
Coping with Career Transitions - Sense-making Process – Louis (1980)	• Experiences of old role • Anticipations of new role	• Experiences in new role • Differences contrasts surprises • Sense-making • Attribute meaning to differences	• Select behavioural response. • Revise map and anticipations
Model of Adult Transitions – Hopson (1981)		• Reaction (elation or despair) • Minimisation • Self-doubt	• Letting go • Testing • Searching for meaning

Theory	Pre- Career Change	During Career Change	Post-Career Change
Human Adaptation to Transition – Schlossberg (1981)		• Perceptions of transition	• Characteristics of pre-transition and post-transition environments • Characteristics of the individual • Adaptation based on combination of the above three factors

Table 2

Descriptive statistics of studies included in the systematic review

Study Details	Studies	
	n	%
Sample Size		
<100	1	5%
101-250	3	14%
251-500	7	32%
501-1000	4	18%
1000-5000	4	18%
5000+	3	14%
Job Areas		
Engineers	1	5%
Moving into Self-Employment	1	5%
Police Officers & Teachers	1	5%
Psychologists	1	5%
Technical Workers	1	5%
Medical Technologists	2	9%
Teachers	2	9%
Nurses	3	14%
Various Job Roles	10	45%
Stage of Change		
Pre-Career Change	9	41%
During Career Change	4	18%
Post Career Change	9	41%

Table 3

Antecedents, outcomes, country of origin and theoretical model used in studies at each career change stage

Stage	Paper	Country	Theoretical model	Antecedents	Outcomes
Pre-career change	Blau (2000)	United States	Louis (1980) inter-role transition typology	Demographics: • Gender (β = 0.10*) • Age (β = -0.12**) Immediate job context: • Job satisfaction (β = -0.31**) Professional context: • Role orientation (β = -0.10*) • Professional commitment (β = -0.25**)	
	Donohue (2006)	Australia	Theory of Vocational Personalities and Environments – Holland (1997)	• More congruent careers F (1,207) = 21.79**	
	Carless & Bernath (2007)	Australia	Integrated Model of Career Change - Rhodes & Doering (1983)	• Job satisfaction (β = -0.37***) • Career planning (β = -0.21***) • Career resilience (β = -0.16***)	

Stage	Paper	Country	Theoretical model	Antecedents	Outcomes
	Chang, Chi, & Miao (2007)	Taiwan	Occupational Commitment – Meyer, Allen & Smith (1993)	• Affective occupational commitment (β = -0.41*) • Organisational turnover intention played a mediating role in relationship between normative occupational commitment and occupational turnover intention.	
	van der Heijden, van Dam, & Hasselhorn (2009)	Netherlands	Occupational Commitment – Meyer, Allen & Smith (1993)	• Job satisfaction (β = -0.19***) • Occupational commitment (β = -0.19***) • Work-to-home interference (β = 0.11***) • Age (β = -0.10***)	
	Otto, Dette-Hagenmeyer & Dalbert (2010)	Germany	Protean Career Theory (Hall, 1997) Occupational Commitment – Meyer, Allen & Smith (1993) Transactional stress theory (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984)	• Work satisfaction (β = -0.12*) • Occupational Commitment (β = -0.27***) • Work-related worries (β = -0.21***) • Uncertainty tolerance (β = 0.15*) • Mobility self-efficacy (β = 0.35***) • Subjective norms (β = 0.10***)	

Stage	Paper	Country	Theoretical model	Antecedents	Outcomes
	Hess, Jepsen, & Dries (2012)	Australia	Life-Span Development Theory to Career Development – Super (1990) Ability-Motivation-Opportunity Model - MacInnis & Jaworski (1989).	• Exploration concerns (β = 0.27*) • Establishment concerns (β = -0.34*) • Exploration concerns x affective commitment (β = -0.22*) • Exploration concerns x normative commitment (β = 0.35*) • Establishment concerns x affective commitment (β = 0.28*) • Disengagement concerns x normative commitment (β = -0.34*)	
	Morin, Meyer, McInerney, Marsh & Ganotice (2015)	Hong Kong	Occupational Commitment – Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993)	• Affective organisational commitment x affective occupational commitment x normative occupational commitment (r = −.859). • Normative organisation commitment x occupational commitment (r = −.858)	• Lower wellbeing scores for those profiles with higher levels of intention to change careers than those profiles with lower levels of intention to change careers.

Stage	Paper	Country	Theoretical model	Antecedents	Outcomes
	Yousef, Sanders, & Abbaf (2015)	The Netherlands	Occupational Commitment – Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993)	• Age (β = - 0.21*) • Tenure (β = - 0.17*) • Organisational Commitment (β = - 0.16*) • Occupational Commitment (β = - 0.29*) • Affective occupational commitment (β = - 0.31**)	
During career change	Oleski & Subich, (1996)	United States	Vocational Personality – Holland (1985)	• Moving toward careers with more congruent Holland Occupational Code scores.	• Careers more congruent to their Holland Occupational Code as measured by the Self-Directed Search following career change.
	Smart & Peterson (1997)	Australia	Life-Span Development Theory to Career Development – Super (1990)	• Career exploration concerns differed significantly as basis of stage in career change F (4, 222) = 18.76*** • Post-hoc Newman-Keuls test at p <.05, revealed the groups who were actively involved in career change had significantly higher mean exploration concern scores than non-changers.	• Job satisfaction highest for those completed career change. Job satisfaction higher for non-changers than those in the process of enacting a career change. • Both career changers and non-changers significantly higher in career satisfaction than the other groups.

Stage	Paper	Country	Theoretical model	Antecedents	Outcomes
	Donohue (2007)	Australia	Career Attitude and Strategies Inventory–Holland (1997)	• Job satisfaction (β = -1.86**) • Skill development (β = 0.70**) • Dominant style (β = -0.33**) • Career worries (β = -0.41**) • Risk taking style (β = 0.42**)	
	Howes & Goodman-Delahunty (2015)	Australia	Boundaryless Careers (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996) Occupational Embeddedness (Ng & Feldman, 1997)	• Boundaryless career attitudes (β = 0.09***) • Years in career (β = 0.12***) • Financial responsibility (β = 0.99**) • Age (β = -.14**)	• Job satisfaction significantly different between career stayers, career deciders, and career changers F (2, 305) = 44.75, p < .001, n2 = 23, f = .54. "Post hoc analyses with Tukey's honest significant difference revealed that the career-deciders (M = 57.97, SD = 15.72; means expressed as percentages) had significantly lower job satisfaction than did the career-stayers (M = 74.26, SD = 13.38) and career-changers (M =75.85, SD = 14.10)" (p. 249).
Post career change	Blau (2007)	United States	Integrated Model of Career Change - Rhodes & Doering (1983)	• Occupational satisfaction (β = -0.25*) • Work exhaustion (β = 0.23*) • Intent to leave occupation (β = 0.28*)	

Stage	Paper	Country	Theoretical model	Antecedents	Outcomes
	Nooney, Unruh, & Yore (2010)	United States	Labour Data	• Graduate degree (HR = 1.628***) • Enrolled in pursuit of a non-nursing degree (HR = 5.693***) • Children in the home (HR = 1.387***) • White (HR = 1.383**)	• Higher income (HR = 1.073***)
	Cha & Cohen-Vogel (2011)	United States	Labour Data	• Job satisfaction (β = -0.24*), (working conditions and income fully mediated by job satisfaction)	
	Carless & Arnup (2011)	Australia	Integrated Model of Career Change - Rhodes & Doering (1983)	• Open to experience (β = 0.15**) • Extraversion (β = 0.11*) • Higher level of education (β = 0.15**) • Occupational tenure (β = -0.27**) • Job security (β = -0.06*) • Age (β = -0.02**) • Gender (β = -0.26*) – males' higher level of career change intention • Actively looking for a new job (1 year prior) (β = 0.64**) • Intention of leaving their current job (β = 0.01**)	• Job security significantly higher after career change (M = 7.91, SD = 2.15) than before carer change (M = 7.58, SD = 2.49), t (1460) = 4.92*** • Job satisfaction significantly higher after career change (M = 7.72, SD = 7.14) then before career change (M = 7.14, SD = 2.05), t (1464) = 9.51*** • No significant difference for weekly income before career change and after career change.

Stage	Paper	Country	Theoretical model	Antecedents	Outcomes
	Geel, Mure, & Backes-Gellner (2011)	Germany	Lazear's skill-weights approach (2009)	Occupational change immediately after apprenticeship: • Occupational specificity (z = -2.26**) Later occupational change: • Occupational specificity (z = -3.07**)	
	Raffiee & Jie (2014)	United States	Real Options Theory - Dixit & Pindyck, 1994	• Risk Aversion influences process of making change to self-employment, i.e. those with higher levels of risk aversion more likely to adopt a hybrid career change into self-employment, but did not differentiate career-changers and non-changers.	

Stage	Paper	Country	Theoretical model	Antecedents	Outcomes
	Krahn, Howard, & Galambos (2015)	Canada	Labour Data		• Education exploration related to increased career status (β = 0.27*) • Employment fluctuation related to lower income (β = - 0.18*), and for men lower career status (β = - 0.18*) and career satisfaction (β = -0.14*). • Income (β = 0.17**) and career satisfaction (β = 0.15*) higher for those that completed career change since high school and experienced employment fluctuation than those who did not complete a career change and experienced employment fluctuation. Income levels still lower than those that never changed careers.
	Fouad, Singh, Cappaert Chang, & Wan (2016)	United States	Social Cognitive Career Theory - Lent, Brown & Hackett (1991) Integrated Model of Career Change - Rhodes & Doering (1983)	Predicting career persistence: • Engineering turnover intentions (β = -1.22**) • Occupational commitment (β = -0.63**) • Managerial Support for work-family, F (1, 509) = 11.610*** • Training and development, F (1, 509) = 9.188**	

Stage	Paper	Country	Theoretical model	Antecedents	Outcomes
	Zhou, Min, Williams, & Tabvumac (2017)	United Kingdom	Job Characteristics Theory (Hackman & Oldman, 1980) Social Stratification Theory (Lenski, 1981)		• Significant increase in job satisfaction (θ0 = 0.14**) following career change. Job satisfaction then declines steadily over the next six years, by the fourth-year job satisfaction is below baseline levels.

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

Table 4

Limitations and future research directions identified in studies at each career change stage

Stage	Paper	Limitations	Future Research Recommendations
Pre-career change	Blau (2000)	• Only measured career change intention, not actual career change behaviour. • Time differences between measurements of different variables. • Only 22% of the variance in voluntary career change explained by study variables.	• Work-family and work ethic variables could be measured in future studies.
	Donohue (2006)	• The Dictionary of Holland's Occupational Codes (DHOC) used for occupation classification. • Career change measured dichotomously. • Only measured career change intention, not actual career change behaviour.	• Use of PCI for occupational classifications. • Longitudinal studies with employed adults.
	Carless & Bernath (2007)	• One item used to measure career change intention. • Only investigated intention not actual career change data. • Generalisability is limited as one profession of psychologists investigated.	• Need to replicate this research in other settings and extend investigation to other antecedents of intention to change careers. • Longitudinal research to investigate changes in job satisfaction with actual career change.
	Chang, Chi, & Miao (2007)	• All variables measured via self-report from the same source, however, common method variance was found not to be significant problem. • Difficulty of causal inference. • Generalisability is limited as one profession of nurses investigated.	• Research for non-professional and professional employees. • Cultural differences. • Career stage to be investigated as a possible moderator and interactive effects of occupational and organisational commitment.

Stage	Paper	Limitations	Future Research Recommendations
Pre-career change	van der Heijden, van Dam, & Hasselhorn (2009)	• All variables measured via self-report from the same source, common method bias may be a problem. • Attrition of sample size in the longitudinal design. • Generalisability is limited as one profession of nurses investigated. • Focus only on intention and not actual career change behaviour.	• Self-assessments combined with peer and supervisor assessments. • Replicate model with actual career change. • Other moderator and predictor variables.
	Otto, Dette-Hagenmeyer & Dalbert (2010)	• Concerns with measurement of response rates, limiting generalizability. • Only measured career change intention, not actual career change behaviour. •	• Consideration of other personality characteristics, work-related attitudes, and situational circumstances. • Examination of the disadvantages of voluntary occupational change.
	Hess, Jepsen, & Dries (2012)	• All variables measured via self-report from the same source, common method bias may be a problem. • One item used to measure Career Change Intention. Additional variables not available in current data set may better explain the underlying processes.	• How and why individuals move through different stages of career change. • Longitudinal studies on recycling process in career concerns.
	Morin, Meyer, McInerney, Marsh & Ganotice, (2015)	• Generalisability is limited as one profession of teachers investigated. • Cross-sectional design limits directionality of casual relationships between commitment, turnover, or wellbeing.	• Research for non-professional and professional employees. • Looking at other combinations of commitment, such as organisation and supervisor, or organisation and team.

Stage	Paper	Limitations	Future Research Recommendations
	Yousaf, Sanders, & Abbaf (2015)	• Common method variance. • Larger sample with more occupations could offer greater generalizability. •	• Additional moderators, including cultural differences and career stage.
During career change	Oleski & Subich, (1996)	• Generalisability is limited as sample of small private college. • Operationalisation of career change could reflect aspiration rather than behaviour. • Education experience could have impacted congruence. • Single item measure of job satisfaction. .	• Longitudinal research which tracks congruence over time. • More sophisticated measures of job satisfaction to be tracked over time.
	Smart & Peterson (1997)	• Cross-sectional data. • Generalisability is limited as sample of working adults. • Replication needed	• Cultural differences. • Longitudinal studies to confirm contrasts over time. • Further research of culturally diverse and less advantaged groups.
	Donohue (2007)	• Those classified as career changers were only in the early stages of the process, expressed intent and early action, not completed career change.	• Longitudinal design.

Stage	Paper	Limitations	Future Research Recommendations
	Howes & Goodman-Delahunty (2015)	• Non-randomised sample. • Small career changer comparison group (N = 69).	• Need for replication across larger sample size and extend research to different occupational groups. • Need to include additional measures of career mobility. • Review of potential psychological breach of those that left the profession. • Within-group differences for the career stayers, career deciders, career changers. • Longitudinal design examining changes in job satisfaction over time.
	Blau (2007)	• A limited amount of variance (15%) was explained for occupational turnover. • Not all relevant variables were included in the model. "Comparable scales for occupational: embeddedness, withdrawal expected utility and comparing alternatives, as well as occupational relational variable scales, await development." (p. 146) • Self-report data with limited base rate. • Homogeneity of sample of female medical technologists.	• Further testing robustness of occupational-work-exhaustion link with alternate measures of work exhaustion. • Testing generalizability of findings to other populations is important. • Comparison between passive and active occupational search.
	Nooney, Unruh, & Yore (2010)	• Longitudinal labour data unable to provide reason for findings, additional variables to be investigated.	• Longitudinal study from when nurses achieves their licensure.

Stage	Paper	Limitations	Future Research Recommendations
	Cha & Cohen-Vogel (2011)	• Correlational design so unable to make causal conclusions. • Direction of relationships only inferred based on research model.	• Mixed-method studies on the dynamics of job satisfaction. • Expand the variables related to working conditions to examine their impact on job satisfaction and occupational turnover.
	Carless & Arnup (2011)	• Single items were used to measure a number of the predictor variables, i.e. job satisfaction which did not achieve significance in this model. • Unable to obtain information on number of dependents. • Length of the survey suggests that participants could have resented repetitious questions.	• Better understand the role of social capital for career change. • Dynamic process of job satisfaction. • Research is needed to examine more comprehensive range of antecedents and outcomes of career change, longitudinally and quantitatively over time.
	Geel, Mure, & Backes-Gellner (2011)	Sample includes only male employees.	
Post career change	Raffiee & Jie (2014)	• Didn't measure entrepreneurism based on novelty or innovativeness of the businesses. • Only measured core self-evaluations at one point in time. • Data was not available on the success of previous entrepreneurial experience. • Generalizability of findings.	• Investigate other outcomes and measures of successful entrepreneurship. • Investigate the variables that lead to the success of hybrid entrepreneurship entry.

Stage	Paper	Limitations	Future Research Recommendations
	Krahn, Howard, & Galambos (2015)	• Inability to directly measure status changes. • Small amount of attrition bias. • Did not measure other factors that impact educational attainment, including intelligence and personality.	• Further examination of the individual factors that predict employment and education fluctuations. • Generational examination of labour trends.
	Fouad, Singh, Cappaert, Chang, & Wan (2016)	• All variables measured via self-report from the same source, common method bias may be a problem, and cannot rule-out alternate explanations. • Scales had not been validated in other studies. • Generalisability is limited as sample of women engineers.	• Further investigation into the similarities and differences in occupational and organisational turnover.
	Zhou, Min, Williams, & Tabvumac (2017)	• Some sample attrition over time. • Looked at only those that changed both employer and occupation, rather than occupation change within and across employers. • Economic conditions may have impacted the results for those that navigated career change.	• Compare and contrast outcomes of career change based on occupational properties (i.e. level of education required to enter a new occupation) • Outcomes of occupational change within organisations. • Replicate this longitudinal study in different economic environments.

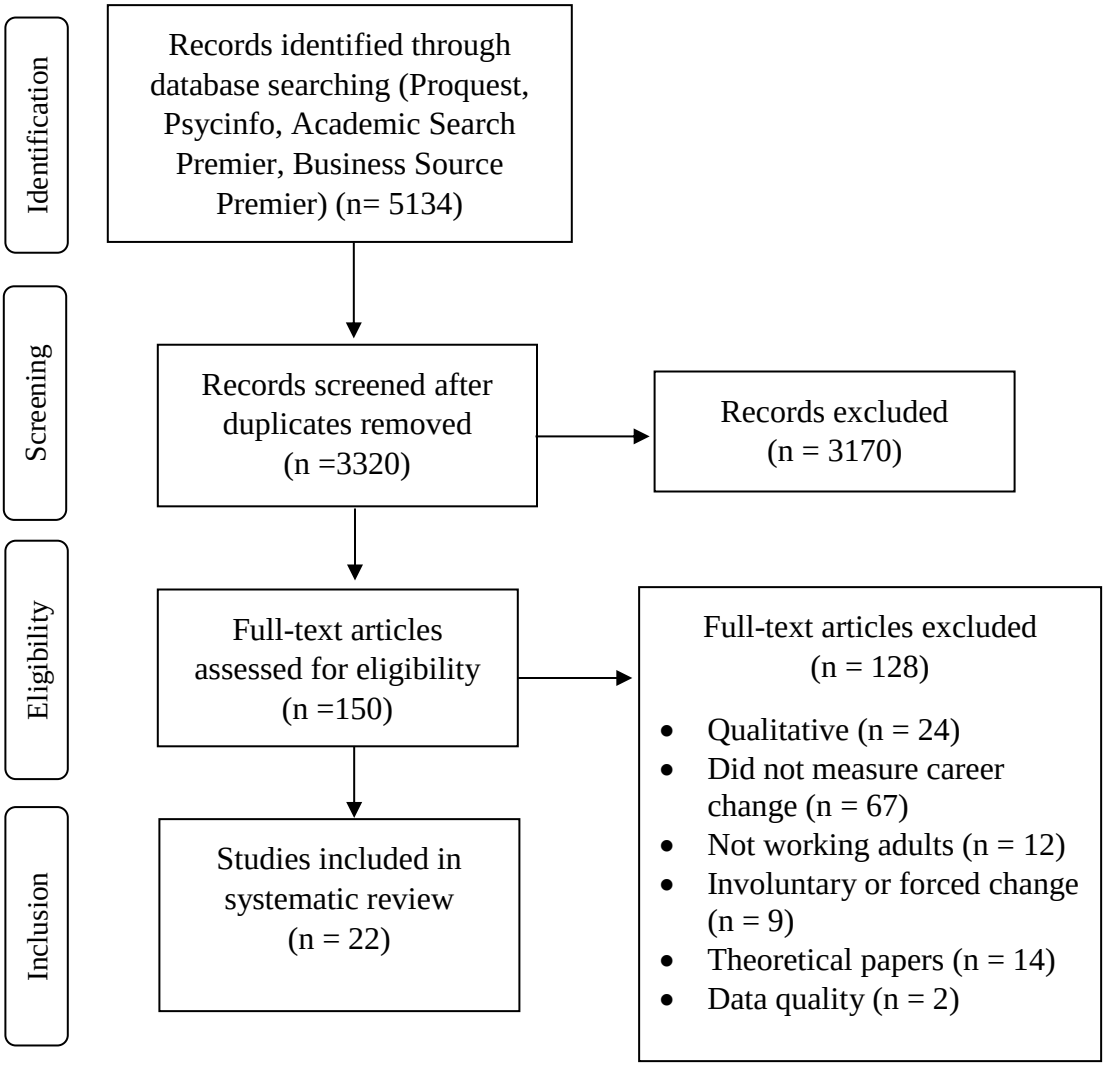

Figure 1. Procedure for study identification, screening, eligibility, and inclusion in systematic review

Conclusion to Study Three

In Studies 1 and 2 the organisation was seen to be providing career development support to individual employees, while Study 3 found that organisational factors could buffer the negative impacts of voluntary career change on the individual. A systematic review of the literature emphasised the transitional nature of voluntary career change as a process. This study also confirms that although outcomes of completing a voluntary career change are generally positive, individuals may have negative effects as they move through the pre-career change period of the transition. Study 3 identified that further research is needed to better understand the factors that support employees to more effectively navigate voluntary career change, which could be incorporated into an organisational career management system. In Study 4 these individual and organisational factors are investigated to better understand what supports employees' engagement in adaptive career behaviours during the pre-career change period.

Chapter 5

Importance of leadership in supporting employee career self-management

Introduction to Study Four

The aim of Study 4 is to examine the individual and organisational factors that support employee engagement in career self-management, even when employees are considering voluntary career change. Despite much speculation that individuals are responsible for their careers, Studies 1 and 2 results demonstrated that organisational career management is increasingly important, particularly in designing a system that supports individual responsibility for career development. Study 2 found the direct supervisor is a key stakeholder in an organisational career management system and Study 3 reviewed the literature that shows that organisational factors can buffer negative effects during the pre-career change period. Study 4 extends these findings by investigating leader-member exchange as a factor supporting employee participation in adaptive career behaviours. In addition to this leader-member exchange organisational factor, this study also investigates the impact of individual employee level generalised self-efficacy on adaptive career behaviours. To examine the impact of this voluntary career change process on the factors that support career self-management, career change intention was included as a potential moderator of these direct relationships. The aim of this study is to further examine the insights identified in the previous studies and to understand the individual and organisational factors that best support employees' career self-management. Understanding these factors is important in the effective design of an organisational career management system which encourages individual responsibility for career development. This fourth study was presented at the Australian and New Zealand Academy of Management Conference in Auckland, New Zealand on December 5th, 2018, as detailed on page vi. Reviewer feedback and feedback received at the conference presentation were incorporated in revisions to this paper. This paper has been prepared according to the publication guidelines for Career Development International.

Importance of leadership in supporting employee career self-management

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ABSTRACT

Purpose - Employees are increasingly required to take responsibility for their career development while organisations are required to design organisational career management (OCM) systems that facilitate career self-management. Understanding the factors that support career self-management is important in designing an effective OCM system.

Design/methodology/approach - In this survey study of 618 residential aged care employees, the social cognitive model of career self-management is adapted to examine both the individual and contextual factors that enable adaptive career behaviours.

Findings - Beyond age, gender, education level and personality factors, results demonstrated that self-efficacy and leader-member exchange (LMX) are direct predictors of career planning, proactive skill development, network building, and career consultation. Career change intention moderated the direct relationship between LMX and career planning, career consultation, and network building. The quality of leader relationship is an important direct and indirect factor that enables career self-management.

Research limitations/implications - Data were collected from a single source and career change intention was assessed at a single point in time. Future studies could examine how these individual and organisational support mechanisms work longitudinally.

Practical implications - Organisations are encouraged to design and review their OCM systems to ensure they incorporate these individual and organisational factors that support employee adaptive career behaviours.

Originality/value - These findings demonstrate the social cognitive model of career self-management is a useful framework for the design of strategic OCM systems and

highlight the importance of the leader in supporting employee career self-management in this system.

Keywords: Career adaptive behaviours, career change intention, career mobility, leadership leader member-exchange, self-efficacy.

Paper type Research paper

Importance of leadership in supporting employee career self-management

Career development is increasingly complex. While traditional theoretical frameworks have viewed careers as a relatively stable developmental process (Super, 1990; Super, Thompson, & Lindeman, 1988), technological and labour market shifts have changed how organisations operate and how employees develop their careers within and across organisations. Employees are anticipated to make an increased number of career transitions throughout their working life (Arnold et al., 2017; Clarke, 2013; De Vos & Dries, 2013). Organisations have additional demands in engaging employees in talent management and strategic human resources practices to support their career decision making. Understanding the individual and organisational factors that support employee career self-management during career change is important in the design of an effective organisational career management (OCM) system. Social cognitive model of career self-management (SC-CSM) identifies the individual and environmental factors that support employees engaging in adaptive career behaviours to support their own career development (Lent & Brown, 2013). Most research testing this model has focused on early career stage individuals making initial career decisions (Lent, Ireland, Penn, Morris, & Sappington, 2017). What we do not know is how this model can be adapted to include specific factors in the organisational environment, nor how both individual and organisational factors support career self-management for employees preparing for voluntary career change.

This paper examines the SC-SCM in relation to employees engaging in adaptive career behaviours in support of anticipated career changes. First, we examine the direct impact of the social cognitive factor of self-efficacy and the contextual factor of leader-member exchange (LMX) on engagement in adaptive career behaviours. Within an OCM system the most important stakeholder is generally the direct manager, and so the

relationship between employee and their direct manager is explored in this study through LMX. Second, we examine the roles of self-efficacy and LMX for employees navigating voluntary career change. Employees navigating voluntary career change are likely to face different career development challenges to employees who are not in the process of voluntary career change, which could lead to career indecision and potentially impact on employee wellbeing and organisational performance. Understanding the individual and organisational factors that support employee engagement in adaptive career behaviours throughout the voluntary career change process is important for both the individual employee and their employing organisation, both in reducing the impact of career indecision on the individual, and in supporting employees to identify relevant career opportunities in their current organisation.

Adaptive career behaviours

Individuals will engage in increased career planning and development activities when an organisation has a strategic focus on career development (Spurk et al., 2015). An organisational strategic focus on career development includes a focus on organisational career management and employee support for career planning. Organisational career management refers to "various activities established and practiced by organisations to improve the career effectiveness, career competencies, and career satisfaction of their employees" (Kong, Cheung, & Song, 2012, p. 713). Career interventions such as support for career planning or career development training tend to increase employee skills associated with career maturity and decision making (Whiston, Li, Goodrich Mitts, & Wright, 2017). Access to career opportunities and support for career development is associated with improved career satisfaction, organisational commitment and salary satisfaction, and reduced voluntary turnover (Kraimer et al., 2011; Sturges, Conway, Guest, & Liefooghe, 2005). Employees who engage in proactive or adaptive career behaviours can also more readily identify career

opportunities in their organisational environment (De Vos et al., 2009) and thus increase their employability (Fugate, Kinicki, & Ashforth, 2004; Nelissen et al., 2017).

Adaptive career behaviours are "behaviours that people employ to help direct their own career (and educational) development" (Lent & Brown, 2013, p. 559). These behaviours can include career planning, proactive skill development, career consultation, and network building (Claes & Ruiz-Quintanilla, 1998; Strauss, Griffin, & Parker, 2012). Career planning involves an employee considering career alternatives and setting career goals (Spurk et al., 2015). Career planning is an individual behaviour that can also be supported by the organisation, such as managerial support during a formal performance appraisal process (Granrose & Portwood, 1987). Proactive skill development refers to the individual employee seeking out opportunities for training and development to improve their skills (Claes & Ruiz-Quintanilla, 1998). Employees may engage in formal and informal learning experiences within their organisation to support their skill development. Career consultation involves an individual seeking support for their career decision making from their direct manager, peers, or other relevant stakeholders. Similarly, network building relates to the social activity of building an interpersonal network both internally and externally to the organisation. Network building allows employees to see their situation through a different frame of reference (Van der Heijden, 2002) thus supporting their ability to make relevant career decisions. Network building can also build an employee's social capital to assist them build their careers within and across organisations (Richardson, Jogulu, & Rentschler, 2017; Wolff & Moser, 2010).

Social cognitive model of career self-management

The social cognitive model of career self-management (Lent & Brown, 2013) examines factors that support engagement in adaptive career behaviours. Both contextual factors, such as the home or work environment, and social cognitive factors,

such as self-efficacy, can facilitate engagement in adaptive career behaviours. General self-efficacy explains an individual's perceived ability to meet the task demands across different situations. An individual's perception of their ability across situations will affect their perceived ability in a domain or task-specific situation (G. Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001). General self-efficacy has been found to be strongly related to domain-specific career decision making self-efficacy (Betz & Klein, 1996), as well as to job crafting (Gashi Tresi & Mihelič, 2018b) and engagement in learning experiences (Thompson & Dahling, 2012).

Individuals are also more likely to engage in adaptive career behaviours when they feel supported by contextual factors in their environment. These contextual factors could either enable or hinder engagement in adaptive career behaviours. Leadership is one of the most important work environmental contextual factors that affects employee career development (Litano & Major, 2016; Schyns, 2004). Although Lent and Brown (2013) highlight the importance of understanding contextual and personality factors that support adaptive career behaviours, they do not specifically target the direct manager in their model. Leader member exchange (LMX) theory defines the working relationship between leader and subordinate as a relationship based on mutual trust, respect, and obligations (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Peng, Chen, Xia, & Ran, 2017). In a lower-quality LMX, the leader and follower have only limited interactions, which are strictly contractual, whereas in higher-quality LMX, there are progressively higher degrees of mutual trust, respect and shared responsibilities. In these higher quality LMX partnerships, the follower may rely on the leader for needed support, encouragement, and career investment (Bolino & Turnley, 2009; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The quality of the LMX-relationship has been found to impact a range of individual employee outcomes, including increased job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intentions (Gerstner & Day, 1997), work engagement (Agarwal, Datta, Blake-Beard, &

Bhargava, 2012), job performance (Martin, Guillaume, Thomas, Lee, & Epitropaki, 2016), work-self facilitation (Gashi Tresi & Mihelič, 2018a), employee creativity (Peng et al., 2017), and reduced workplace bullying and burnout (Laschinger & Fida, 2014)

LMX has also been found to be directly related to higher levels of career satisfaction (Guohong, 2010; Joo & Ready, 2012), career and organisational commitment (Kang, Stewart, & Kim, 2011), perceived career success (Yang & Chau, 2016), and internal career development behaviours (Sturges, Guest, Conway, & Davey, 2002). Furthermore, although LMX and career mentoring were seen as distinct constructs by supervisors, for subordinates LMX and career mentoring were seen as the same, or compensatory (Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994). LMX was found to support employee salary progression, promotability, and career satisfaction, while career mentoring only influenced promotability (Wayne, Liden, Kraimer, & Graf, 1999). To achieve these outcomes, LMX appears to have an even greater impact when the organisational climate is supportive of career mentoring (Van Vianen et al., 2018) and strategic human resources practices (Audenaert, Vanderstraeten, & Buyens, 2017; Z. Liu, Cai, Li, Shi, & Fang, 2013). There has been limited research to examine the impact of LMX on employee's adaptive career behaviours to manage anticipated career development challenges across the lifespan (Gashi Tresi & Mihelič, 2018b; Sturges, Conway, & Liefooghe, 2010).

Career change intention

Career change is one such career development challenge, for both individuals and organisations. Career change intention is the outcome of expecting to make a career change to an occupation that is not part of a typical career trajectory (Slay Ferraro, Prussia, & Mehrotra, 2018). Career change intention has been associated with lower levels of wellbeing (Morin et al., 2015), lower job satisfaction (Blau, 2000; Carless & Bernath, 2007) and increased work-related worries (Otto et al., 2010). Employees who

are more proactive in their career management can more readily identify relevant career opportunities in their current organisation than employees that are not as proactive (De Vos et al., 2008). Engagement in adaptive career behaviours can also be moderated by an employee's outcome expectation (Lent & Brown, 2013). Employees navigating career change may engage in adaptive career behaviours to more effectively support their career change planning. We therefore would anticipate that LMX and self-efficacy are even more important for employees who are navigating voluntary career change than employees who are not.

The theory of role strain (Goode, 1960) suggests that each individual has a fixed amount of energy to expend across their different roles. As outlined by Rudderman (2002), "a metaphorical pie is often used to illustrate; the time and energy represented by one "slice" of activity depletes the amount of "pie" left for other roles" (p. 370). There is a conflict between the roles and each role will negatively impact on the other role. In contrast, role accumulation theory (Bourne et al., 2009; Sieber, 1974) and role enrichment theory (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) explain that rather than negatively impacting or a conflict of roles, dual engagement can have positive impacts on each other. Role accumulation or enrichment has also been found to improve managerial skills (Ruderman et al., 2002), increase vigour or energy over time (Moazami-Goodarzi et al., 2015), increase active listening skills (Mojza, Sonnentag, & Bornemann, 2011), positively relate to physical and mental health (McNall et al., 2010) and reduce perceived emotional exhaustion (Bourne et al., 2009). These studies have largely examined the dual roles of work and personal life, such as parent or care-giver, rather than employees' dual engagement in their current career and preparing for a future career. The key for role accumulation or enrichment to occur is that individuals have the personal resources to effectively balance the different roles (Harrington & Ladge, 2009; Ruderman et al., 2002). Self-efficacy and LMX could provide the resources that

employees need to further support employee engagement in adaptive career behaviours during career change.

The role of self-efficacy and LMX in supporting adaptive career behaviours related to career mobility have resulted in contradictory results. Self-efficacy has been found to increase individual career planning activities, but not career exploratory activities outside of the organisation (Van der Horst, Klehe, & Van der Heijden, 2017; Zikic & Klehe, 2006). LMX was also found to strengthen employee engagement in visibility behaviour aimed at developing their career in the current organisation, but weakened engagement in mobility-oriented behaviour aimed at increasing career development opportunities outside the current organisation (Sturges et al., 2010). LMX may also operate differently based on the career orientation of the individual, LMX appeared to buffer the negative impact of psychological contract breach for employees with a self-centred career orientation, but appeared to increase the detrimental impact of psychological contract breach for employees with an organisation-centred career orientation (Doden, Grote, & Rigotti, 2018). Self-efficacy and LMX also appear to have different levels of importance for both turnover intentions and preparedness for change based on cultural or labour contexts (Schyns, Torka, & Gössling, 2007). However, in a study examining outcomes following organisational change, employees with high quality LMX relationships immediately prior to changing organisations achieved greater objective career success in their next job role, including higher salary and higher responsibility, than those employees with lower quality LMX relationships (Raghuram, Gajendran, Liu, & Somaya, 2017). Understanding both the direct and indirect process of engagement in adaptive career behaviours is important to the effective design of a strategic organisational career management system.

The current study aims to adapt Lent and Brown's (2013) social cognitive model of career self-management to confirm the direct and indirect factors that lead to

employee engagement in adaptive career behaviours. We propose LMX could be incorporated into the model as an important contextual factor. Based on our research model, as shown in Figure 1, we have the below hypotheses.

First, we test the direct relationships between self-efficacy and LMX in predicting adaptive career behaviours:

H1a: Employee self-efficacy has a positive direct effect on adaptive career behaviours.

H1b: Employee LMX has a positive direct effect on adaptive career behaviours.

Second, we examine the moderating role of career change intention on this direct relationship:

H2a: Career change intention strengthens the direct effect of self-efficacy on adaptive career behaviours.

H2b: Career change intention strengthens the direct effect of LMX on adaptive career behaviours.

METHOD

Procedure and sample

The study was conducted with employees in an Australian aged care organisation with 1358 employees in 22 locations. This organisation was chosen as there are a broad range of job roles represented, including professional, skilled, and non-skilled job, which gives opportunities for internal career mobility. The survey was distributed to all employees in October and November 2017 with a choice to complete the survey either online or paper-based. There were 618 completed surveys, a 41% response rate. Respondents were aged from 18 to 72 years (m = 46.9, sd = 13.6), and 84% were female. More than half the participants had completed at least a higher school diploma (64%), were in long-term married or de-facto relationships (70%) and

employed on a permanent part-time basis (66%). Organisational tenure ranged from one week to 32 years (m = 6.37, sd = 6.15). Close to half (44.8%) of the respondents were in care assistant job roles, 27% of respondents were in operational job roles (including catering, maintenance, and cleaning), 12% were in nursing and nurse educator job roles, 11% were in managerial job roles.

Measures

Career change intention. Career change intention was measured using the career change intention item in the Adult Career Concerns Inventory (Super et al., 1988), the stem of which is: "After working in a field for a while, many people shift to another job for any of a variety of reasons: pay, satisfaction, opportunity for growth, shut-down, etc. When the shift is a change in field, not just working for another employer in the same field, it is commonly called a 'career change'. Following are five statements which represent various stages in career change. Choose the one statement that best describes your current status". Respondents rated their career change intention on a five-point scale from 1 = "I am not at all considering making a career change" to 5 = "I am in the process of effecting a career change". A higher score reflects a higher level of career change intention.

Self-efficacy. General self-efficacy was measured using three items by Chen, Gully, and Eden (2001). A sample item is "I believe I can succeed at most any endeavour to which I set my mind". Respondents rated each item on a five-point Likert scale from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree". Cronbach alpha coefficient for scale reliability was 0.87. *Leader-member exchange.* LMX quality was measured using seven items by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995). A sample item is "My working relationship with my supervisor is very effective". Respondents rated each item on a five-point Likert scale from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree", which was

an adaptation of the original response set for this scale. The Cronbach alpha for this scale was 0.91.

Adaptive career behaviours. Engagement in adaptive career behaviours was measured using the four sub-scales adapted by Strauss, Griffin, and Parker (2011). *Career planning* was measured by four items, a sample item is "I am planning what I want to do in the next few years of my career". *Proactive skill development* was measured by three items, a sample item is "I develop skills which may not be needed so much now, but in future positions". *Career consultation* was measured using three items, a sample item is "I make my supervisor aware of my work aspirations and goals". *Network building* was measured by three items, a sample is "I am building a network of contacts or friendships to provide me with help or advice that will further my work chances". Respondents rated each item on a seven-point Likert scale from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 7 = "strongly agree". Cronbach alphas for the scales were .94, .87, .90 and .93 respectively.

Control variables. The demographic variables of age, gender, organisational tenure, education level, employment type, and relationship status, and the personality factors of extraversion, agreeableness, and emotional stability were controlled as they have been theorised and shown to impact the independent and dependent variables (Dlouhy & Biemann, 2018; Lent & Brown, 2013; Van der Horst et al., 2017; Zhou et al., 2017). *Age* was measured as a continuous variable. *Gender* was measured as 1 = "male" and 2 = "female". *Organisation tenure* was measured by years and months of employment in the current organisation. *Education level* was measured on a 5-point scale from 1 = "school certificate" to 6 = "university post-graduate". *Employment type* was measured with a 3-point scale, where 1 = "full time (permanent)", 2 = "part-time (permanent)", and 3 = "casual". *Relationship status* was measured by a 4-point scale, where 1 = "single", 2 = "widowed", 3 = "divorced", and 4 = "long-term married/de-

facto". *Personality factors.* Extraversion, agreeableness, and emotional stability were measured by ten items each from the big-five markers scale (Goldberg, 1992). A sample *extraversion* item is "Don't mind being the centre of attention". A sample agreeableness item is "Am interested in people". A sample emotional stability item is "Am relaxed most of the time". Respondents rated each item on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 = "very inaccurate" to 5 = "strongly agree". Cronbach alphas for the personality scales were .88, .84 and 89 respectively.

Analyses

Moderated hierarchical regression analyses were conducted using IBM SPSS Statistics Version 25 for each of the adaptive career behaviours of career planning, proactive skill development, career consultation, and network building. Prior to the analyses, the independent variables were mean centred to reduce the impact of multicollinearity of the interaction terms (Aiken, West, & Reno, 1991) and 13 multivariate outliers were removed based on unacceptable Mahalanobis distance scores (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). In step 1, the control variables of age, gender, education level, organisational tenure, relationship status, employment status, and each of the personality factors were entered. To test Hypotheses 1a and 1b, the self-efficacy, LMX, and career change intention variables were entered in Step 2. To test Hypotheses 2a and 2b, the two-way interactions between career change intention and self-efficacy and LMX were entered at Step 3. In accordance with Dawson's (2014) recommendations, non-significant interactions were removed from the final models before any significant interaction graphs were inspected and simple slope analysis performed.

RESULTS

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics, correlations and Cronbach alpha reliabilities for the study variables. Surprisingly, there were no significant correlations between career change intention and any of the adaptive career behaviours. As

expected, there were significant correlations among the control and independent, moderator, and dependent variables. However, given that all correlations were below 0.90 and the Variance Inflation Factor values for the predictors were below 3.3, multicollinearity was not a concern (Hair Jr, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010) .

Table 2 shows the standardised beta coefficients (β), effect size (R^2), and effect size change (ΔR^2) for the predictors at their step of entry, together with the final beta coefficient for each of the four moderated regression analyses. Results show that entering the control variables demonstrated significant effect on career planning (R^2 = .16; F = 7.18, p < .001), proactive skill development (R^2 = .16; F = 7.12, p < .001), career consultation (R^2 = .13; F = 5.74, p < .001), and network building (R^2 = .14; F = 6.07, p < .001). Younger employees were associated with higher levels of career planning (β = -.23, p < .001), proactive skill development (β = -.30, p < .001), career consultation (β = -.21, p < .001), and network building (β = -.24, p < .001). Employees with higher level of education were associated with higher levels of career planning (β = .11, p < .05), and females were associated with higher level of career consultation (β = .11, p < .05). For the personality characteristics, higher levels of agreeableness were associated with higher levels of career planning (β = .20, p < .01) and proactive skill development (β = .12, p < .05), while higher levels of extraversion were associated with higher levels of career consultation (β = .12, p < .05) and network building (β = .13, p < .05).

Hypotheses 1a and 1b stated that self-efficacy and LMX would have a direct positive impact on the adaptive career behaviours. Hypothesis 1a was supported, as higher levels of self-efficacy were associated with higher levels of career planning (β = .17, p < .01), proactive skill development (β = .25, p < .001), career consultation (β = .15, p < .01), and network building (β = .15, p < .01). Hypothesis 1b was partially supported as higher levels of LMX were associated with higher levels of proactive skill

development (β = .12, $p < .001$), career consultation (β = .15, $p < .001$), and network building (β = .15, $p < .001$).

Hypotheses 2a and 2b stated that career change intention would strengthen the direct relationship between self-efficacy and LMX and the adaptive career behaviours. Hypothesis 2a was not supported, as the interaction terms between career change intention and self-efficacy were not significant, and therefore these interaction terms were not included in the final models. Hypothesis 2b was partially supported, as there were significant positive interactions for LMX and career change intention for career consultation (β = .18, $p < .05$) and network building (β = .08, $p < .05$). However, there was also a significant negative interaction effect for career planning (β = -.17, $p <. 05$). An examination of the interaction graph for career planning, as shown in Figure 2, revealed those respondents with a lower level of career change intention reported an increase in career planning as LMX increases. However, in contrast to the hypothesised positive impact, although those with higher career change intention reported a higher level of career planning than those with lower career change intention, the level of career planning decreased as LMX-quality increased for those with higher career change intention. Simple slope tests confirmed that when a respondent reported no career change intention, the regression of LMX on career planning was positive (β = 0.22, t = 2.19, p < 0.01), yet for employees who reported they were enacting a career change (β = -0.38, t = -1.40, *ns*) the relationship was negative. For career consultation, as shown in Figure 3, the interaction graph shows that higher levels of LMX led to higher levels of career planning, and this relationship was stronger for those with higher levels of career change intention than those employees with lower levels of career change intention. Simple slopes tests confirmed this relationship was stronger for employees who were enacting a career change (β = 1.03, t = 1.86, p = 0.06) than those not considering a career change (β = 0.42, t = 0.99, *ns*). Similarly, for network building

as shown in Figure 4, higher levels of LMX led to higher levels of network-building. This relationship was stronger for those with higher levels of career change intention than for those employees with lower levels of career change intention. Simple slopes tests confirmed this relationship was stronger for employees reporting they were enacting a career change ($\beta = 0.92$, $t = 1.65$, $p = 0.09$) than those not considering a career change ($\beta = 0.25$, $t = 0.50$, *ns*).

DISCUSSION

This study examined an adapted version of SC-CSM (Lent & Brown, 2013) to inspect the individual and organisational factors that support career self-management. Understanding the factors that support or hinder engagement in career self-management is important in the effective design of an organisational career management system. We examined the direct effects of self-efficacy and LMX in predicting adaptive career behaviours. We also examined if these direct relationships were moderated by the outcome expectation of career change intention.

In support of SC-CSM (Lent & Brown, 2013), we found significant positive direct effect for self-efficacy on all four adaptive career behaviours. Employees with higher self-efficacy were more likely to engage in these adaptive career behaviours than employees with lower self-efficacy. Contrary to previous studies, we found self-efficacy was a direct predictor across the adaptive career behaviours. It is possible that many managers would perceive a lack of employees' adaptive career behaviours, particularly career planning and career consultation, as a lack of interest in career conversations. These results suggest that those employees who may need career support the most, lower in self-efficacy, may be less likely to engage in these adaptive career behaviours than employees higher in self-efficacy. Employees with lower self-efficacy may not feel confident verbalising the challenges they are facing to their manager. It may be

important for organisations to both educate managers on how to identify this lower self-efficacy barrier in employees and build employee confidence in learning how to engage in the adaptive career behaviours.

We also found a significant positive effect for LMX on proactive skill development, network building, and career consultation. Employees in higher quality LMX relationships were more likely to engage in these adaptive career behaviours. These results are consistent with LMX theory (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), as LMX relationships provide opportunities for building mutual trust, and to expand opportunities for skill development and career exploration. Surprisingly, LMX did not have a direct effect on career planning. We went beyond these direct effects to examine the buffering effect of career change intention on these direct relationships. We found a significant interaction for LMX and career change intention for career planning, career consultation, and network building. For employees not planning to change careers, higher-quality LMX was associated with an increase in career planning, career consultation, and network building. However, LMX functioned differently for these three adaptive career behaviours for those employees considering career change. Employees with higher-quality LMX relationships were less likely to engage in career planning than employees with lower-quality LMX relationships. Career change intention could be buffering the impact of LMX on career planning. This could suggest an employee is less likely to engage in career planning, even when they have a strong career change intention, because they have a strong relationship with their direct supervisor. This result reinforces the importance of isolating the job and career influences on career change intention.

LMX-quality was even more important for those employees planning a career change to support engagement in career consultation and network building. Employees with higher career change intention appear to be exploring their career interests through

career consultation and network building, but do not appear to be acting on these intentions with career planning under situations of high-quality LMX. In higher-quality leader relationships, employees have developed a level of trust and responsibility, which may allow them to feel confident to discuss their potential career challenges such as career change intention, with their direct manager (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). In organisations where there are opportunities to move across occupational boundaries and therefore retain employees in the organisation, developing strong LMX relationships becomes even more important. Previous research has also found that career exploratory behaviours may increase employee career distress, while career planning decreases this career distress (Praskova, Creed, & Hood, 2015). Yet in this study, LMX appeared to encourage career exploratory behaviour, although buffer career planning. In accordance with role enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Sieber, 1974), LMX-quality could also be supporting employees develop the personal resources they need to engage in career consultation and network building during the process of career change. Fostering higher-quality LMX relationships would therefore be important in the development of an organisational career management system (Martin et al., 2016).

Surprisingly, career change intention was not found to be a significant direct predictor of adaptive career behaviours. This could reflect that people at all stages of career change are engaging in adaptive career behaviours. Alternatively it could be reflective of a misunderstanding or lack of understanding by employees of the skills needed to navigate career change and other career development challenges (Kidd et al., 2004). We confirmed age and personality factors are potential enablers and barriers to engaging in adaptive career behaviours. Younger employees were more likely to engage in these behaviours, consistent with developmental models of career development (Super, 1990). This could also mean that age is a potential barrier for employees engaging in organisational career management programs (Guan et al., 2015; Slay

Ferraro et al., 2018). Organisations may need to consider how to make the organisational career management opportunities relevant to different age and career stages (Kyndt et al., 2014). An alternative viewpoint is that adaptive career behaviours are of less importance for older employees who are established in their careers. However, with the shift to employees needing to manage their career development across their lifespan, there remains a challenge for leaders to engage all employees, regardless of age or career stage, to build their career adaptive skills. We also found that agreeableness had a direct influence on career planning and proactive skill development, and extraversion had a direct influence on career consultation and network building. This highlights that these adaptive career behaviours are unique and specific behaviours in which individual employees may engage. By confirming these personality factors do directly impact these adaptive career behaviours we also add support to Lent and Brown's (2013) social cognitive model of career self-management.

In relation to practical implications, employees are increasingly encouraged to take control of their career development (Jung & Takeuchi, 2018). Organisations need to build effective systems to support career self-management. This study highlights individual and organisational factors that support employee engagement in career self-management. LMX-quality was found to be significant direct and indirect factor to engage employees in the adaptive career behaviours. Organisations would be encouraged to look at ways to educate and support line managers in building higher-quality relationships with their employees. This study has highlighted that age, gender, education level, extraversion, and agreeableness and self-efficacy could be potential barriers or enablers for engagement in adaptive career behaviours. More emphasis may be needed to help all employees understand how they can build career development skills and competencies within the organisation and how these adaptive career behaviours can support them navigate future career development challenges.

Limitations and directions for future research

This paper highlights that both individual and contextual factors have both direct and indirect effects on the engagement in adaptive career behaviours. Lent and Brown (2003) viewed these adaptive career behaviours as “instrumental” or “intermediate” to other career outcomes or decisions. Further research is needed to examine the impact of the adaptive career behaviours on individual and organisational outcomes, such as employee wellbeing, turnover and performance. The regression models explained only 20 to 25-percent of the variance in the study variables, emphasising that a wider range or different variables could better explain adaptive career behaviours. There are further opportunities within the social cognitive model of self-career management to investigate additional contextual, outcome expectations, and career adaptive behaviour variables, in addition to looking at the impact of goals within this model. Furthermore, this study looked at general self-efficacy, domain specific self-efficacy level could add additional insights. Being a cross-sectional study with only self-report data, validation of the results is also required across different organisational settings, with multiple perspectives over time. This study only looked at the career experiences within one organisational context, different internal labour markets are likely to impact the adaptive career behaviours employees engage in. There is further opportunity to examine the impact of internal labour market and job role hierarchy on career self-management. Furthermore, career change intention was measured by a single-item measure at a single point in time, understanding how these factors support the career change longitudinally will provide further understanding of the process of career change and factors that support this process.

Conclusions

Organisations need to build effective career management systems that engage employees to take control of their career development. This study highlighted that social

cognitive model of career self-management (Lent & Brown, 2013) could be a useful framework for the design of these systems. Self-efficacy and LMX are factors that either enable or act as barrier for employee career self-management. This study has highlighted that the direct effect of LMX enabling adaptive career behaviours is buffered by an employees' career change intention. In that, employees planning a career change, the level of LMX was even more important to enable career consultation and network building yet appeared to hinder career planning by employees. These results emphasise the importance for organisations to build systems to help employees manage their career development challenges across the lifespan.

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FIGURES AND TABLES

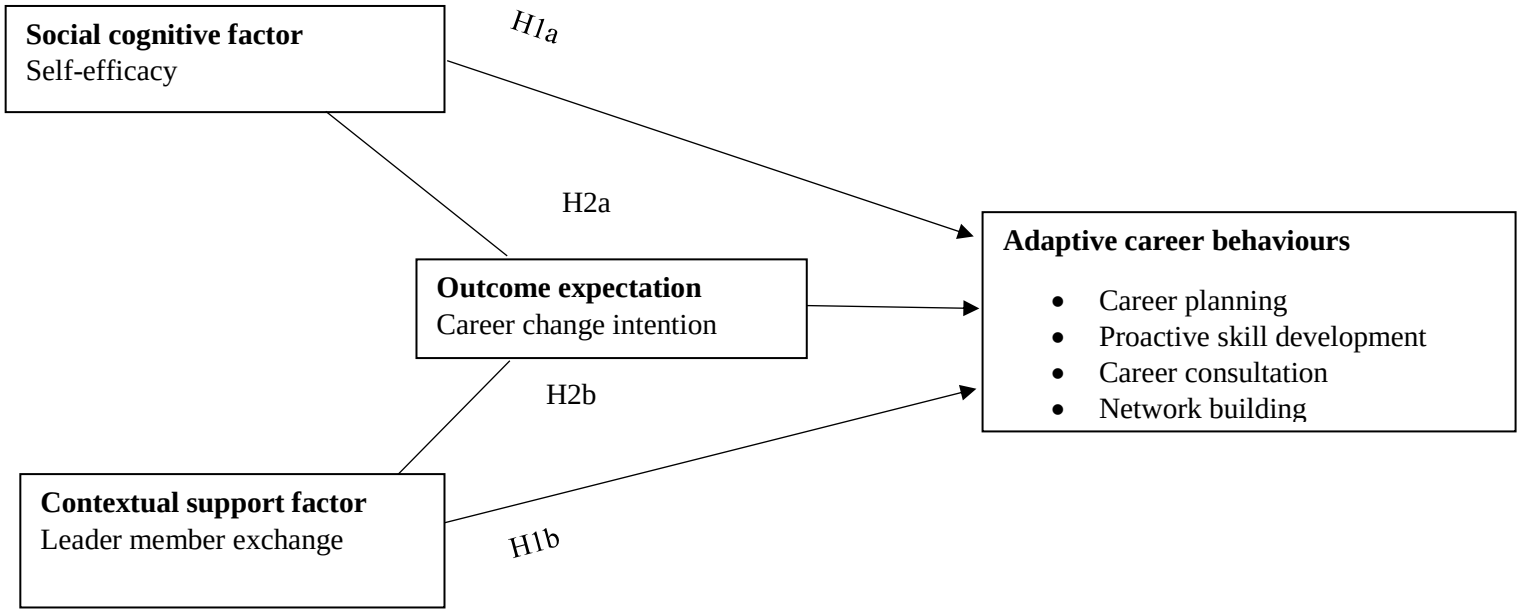

Figure 1. Research model based on social cognitive career self-management model.

Table 1.
Means, standard deviations, and Pearson correlations among study variables

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Age	46.86	13.57	-															
2. Gender	1.84	0.368	0.02	-														
3. Organisational Tenure	6.37	6.15	0.45***	0.07	-													
4. Education Level	3.30	1.72	-0.08	0.06	-0.09*	-												
5. Employment Type	1.85	0.57	-0.24***	0.18***	-0.28***	-0.11**	-											
6. Relationship Status	3.36	1.11	0.30***	-0.04	0.09*	0.09*	-0.03	-										
7. Extraversion	3.20	0.76	-0.12	-0.04	-0.07	0.14**	-0.02	-0.05	(0.88)									
8. Agreeableness	4.32	0.59	0.14*	0.14**	0.04	0.03	-0.10*	0.01	0.22***	(0.84)								
9. Emotional Stability	3.72	0.81	0.17**	-0.03	0.05	0.04	-0.14**	0.13**	0.22***	0.41***	(0.89)							
10. Career Change Intention	1.50	1.02	-0.26**	0.03	-.14**	0.15**	0.10*	-0.14**	-0.07	-0.11*	-.20***	-						
11. Self-Efficacy	4.43	0.28	-0.05	0.03	-.13**	0.05	0.07	-0.02	0.24***	0.22***	.13*	-0.07	(0.87)					
12. Leader-Member Exchange	3.83	0.83	-0.03	-0.05	.12**	0.02	-0.12**	0.05	0.19***	0.22***	.15**	-0.11**	0.19***	(0.91)				
Adaptive career behaviours																		
13. Career Planning	5.24	1.45	-0.26***	-0.01	-0.17***	0.16***	0.04	-0.09*	0.19***	0.23***	0.06	0.07	0.26***	0.16***	(0.94)			
14. Proactive Skill Development	5.40	1.22	-0.27***	-0.01	-0.15**	0.13**	-0.01	-0.06	0.21***	0.19***	0.11*	0.08	0.33***	0.22***	0.75***	(0.87)		
15. Career Consultation	5.10	1.38	-0.18***	0.08	-0.01	0.04	-0.04	-0.02	0.25***	0.19***	0.13*	-0.03	0.25***	0.39***	0.51***	0.67***	(0.90)	
16. Network Building	4.79	1.53	-0.23***	0.02	-0.08	.013**	-0.02	-0.02	0.25***	0.15**	0.11*	0.07	0.23***	0.27***	0.52***	0.62***	.63***	(0.93)

Notes: ***$p < .001$; **$p < .01$; * $p < .05$; Cronbach's alphas are added on the diagonal where appropriate.

Table 2

Summary of regression results for the adaptive career behaviours

	Career Planning			Proactive Skill Development			Career Consultation			Network Building		
	Model 1 β	Model 2 β	Model 3 β	Model 1 β	Model 2 β	Model 3 β	Model 1 β	Model 2 β	Model 3 β	Model 1 β	Model 2 β	Model 3 β
Step 1: Control variables												
Age	-0.24***	-0.23***	-0.23***	-0.29***	-0.30***	-	-0.25***	-0.20**	-0.21**	-0.27***	-0.23***	-0.24***
Gender	-0.04	-0.04	-0.04	-0.02	-0.01	-	0.09	0.11*	0.11*	0.02	0.03	0.03
Organisational Tenure	-0.04	-0.03	-0.04	-0.04	-0.03	-	0.07	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.02	0.02
Education Level	0.12*	0.12*	0.11*	0.08	0.07	-	-0.02	-0.20	-0.02	0.07	0.06	0.06
Employment Type	0.02	0.02	0.02	-0.05	-0.06	-	-0.08	-0.06	-0.08	-0.05	-0.04	-0.06
Relationship Status	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	0.02	0.02	-	0.05	0.02	0.02	0.05	0.04	0.04
Extraversion	0.09	0.04	0.04	0.11*	0.05	-	0.19***	0.12*	0.12*	0.17**	0.13**	0.13*
Agreeableness	0.24***	0.20**	0.20**	0.18**	0.12*	-	0.13*	0.05	0.04	0.12*	0.06	0.06
Emotional Stability	-0.02	-0.02	-0.00	0.05	0.05	-	0.06	0.05	0.03	0.05	0.05	0.03
Step 2: Independent variables												
Career Change Intention		0.03	0.01		0.07	-		0.00	0.02		0.07	0.08
Self-Efficacy		0.17**	0.17**		0.25***	-		0.15**	0.15**		0.15**	0.15**
Leader-Member Exchange		0.08	0.21**		0.12**	-		0.30***	0.16		0.19***	0.16
Step 3: Interaction effects												
Leader-Member Exchange x Career Change Intention			-0.17*			*ns*			0.18*			0.08*
R^2	0.16***	0.19***	0.20***	0.16***	0.24***		0.13***	0.24***	0.25***	0.14***	0.19***	0.20***
ΔR^2		0.04**	0.01*		0.08***	*ns*		0.11***	0.01*		0.05***	0.01*

***$p < .001$ **$p < .01$ * $p < .05$

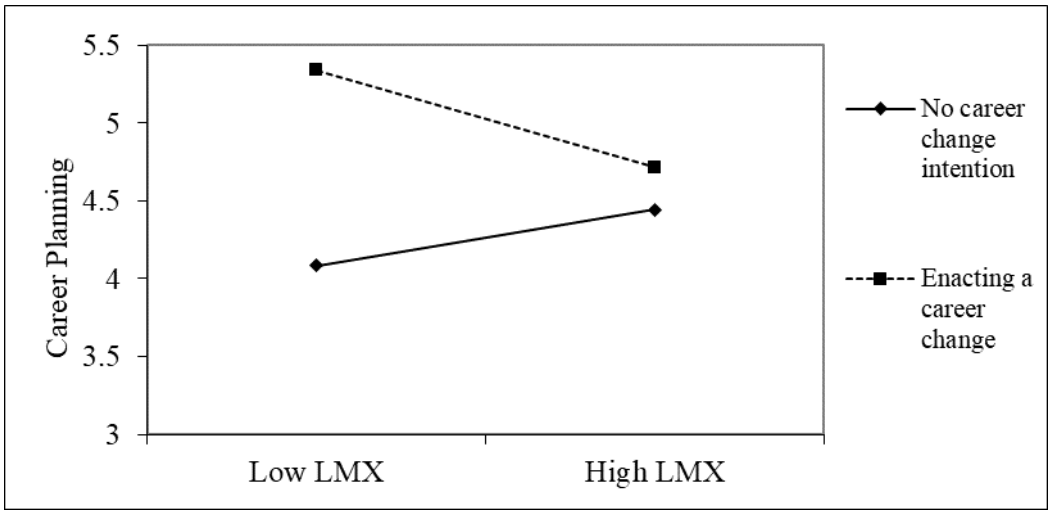

Figure 2. LMX and career planning moderated by career change intention

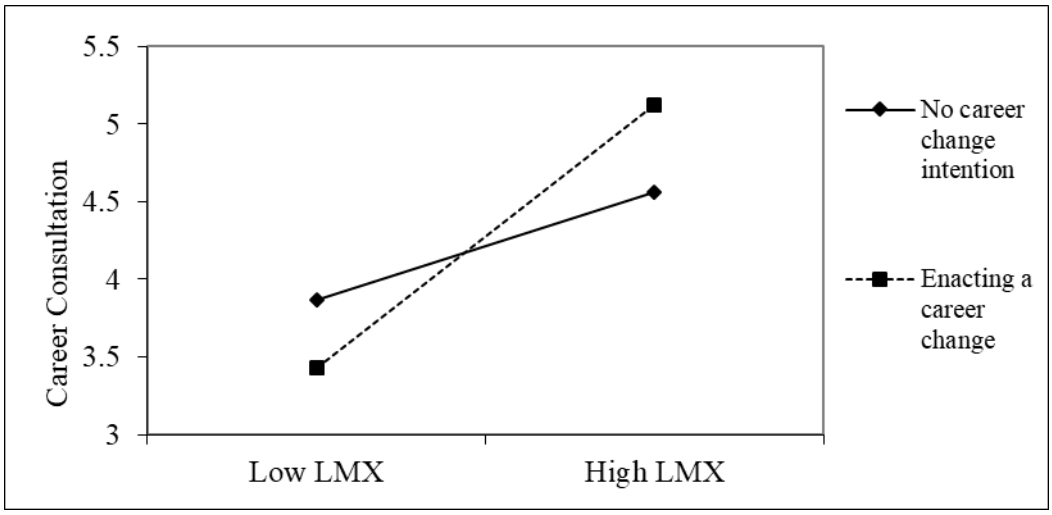

Figure 3. LMX and career consultation moderated by career change intention

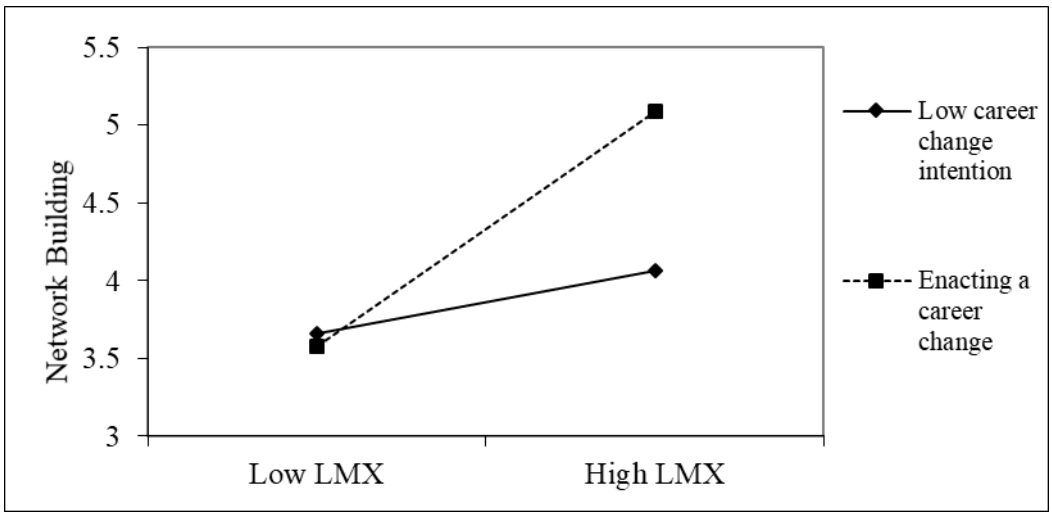

Figure 4. LMX and network building moderated by career change intention.

Conclusion to Study Four

Study 4 extends the results of the previous three studies. Self-efficacy and leadership member-exchange were found to be factors that directly support employee engagement in adaptive career behaviours. Leader member-exchange appeared to be even more important during the process of voluntary career change in supporting the career exploratory adaptive behaviours of career consultation and network building. Again, highlighting the weighing up of different factors during the process of career change, voluntary career change appeared to buffer the support of leader-member exchange on individual career planning. This could reflect that the individual is less confident in engaging in career planning towards a voluntary career change, given they have strong supportive relationship with their direct supervisor. Study 4 also provides further support for the use of an adapted social cognitive model of career self-management in the design of an organisational career management system. The results of all four studies, including practical and theoretical implications, are further discussed in the Chapter 6 general discussion.

Chapter 6

General Discussion

Boundaryless and protean careers propose the individuals are taking increased individual responsibility for their careers (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Hall, 1996b). Organisations were said to be unable to offer secure career pathways for their employees, and therefore these individually-driven career perspectives were established as alternatives to the organisational career. However, strategic human resources management lamented the increased importance of employee development and employee retention for organisational strategic advantage (Arnold & Cohen, 2008). The current thesis aimed to reunite these individual and organisational career perspectives and resolve this OCM paradox. In this thesis we examined OCM from the organisational and individual perspectives. We explored both how organisations support employee career development, and the factors that support employee engagement in OCM. In this concluding chapter, we first provide a discussion of the findings from the four chapters within this thesis. We then provide a discussion of the theoretical and practical implications, limitations of the research, and recommendations for future research directions.

Organisational support for employee career development

The first aim of this thesis was to examine the role of the organisation in supporting employee career development. In Study 1, as detailed in Chapter 2, OCM was examined from the organisational perspective. Data from the Cranfield Network on International Strategic Human Resources Management (Cranet) was analysed to confirm changes over time in flexible employment conditions and OCM practices, and the impact of OCM at the organisational level. Findings from this study confirmed that flexible employment conditions of part-time, teleworking, and fixed-term contracts had significantly increased from 1996 to 2015. Contrary to what was hypothesised, there was no significant change in the flexible employment condition of temporary work over this same time period. In terms of the sixteen OCM practices examined, it was found

that rather than decreasing, there were significant increases in nine of these OCM practices from 1996 to 2015. The OCM practices that increased over this period included internal job postings, performance appraisal as a basis of career planning, succession planning, career paths, assessment centres, secondments, job rotations, mentoring, and high flier schemes. Employee turnover was significantly lower in organisations that offered secondments than in organisations that did not offer secondments. It was also found that those organisations that offered secondments, job rotations, or networking had significantly higher levels of organisational innovation than those organisations that did not offer these OCM practices. These findings suggest that organisations providing opportunities for employee career exploration may benefit through lower employee turnover and increased organisational innovation. Although causal conclusions are unable to be drawn from this data, these findings do add further support to the importance of examining the impact of OCM practices at the organisational level (De Vos & Cambré, 2017).

Study 2, as detailed in Chapter 3, further broadened our understanding about how organisations support employee career development. In this study human resources managers, direct managers, and employees were interviewed about their perceptions of both the OCM system and engagement in OCM. OCM is largely conceptualised as a system in the literature, yet little is known about how this OCM system operates (Baruch, 2006; Lips-Wiersma & Hall, 2007). This study provided richness to our understanding of the OCM system. Seven factors of the OCM system were identified, including OCM strategy, OCM practices, OCM stakeholders, organisational contingency, differentiated system, and individually-driven system. Organisations appear to be providing a system of OCM practices, which are informed by OCM strategy, and implemented by OCM stakeholders according to OCM processes. This system is largely an individually driven system, in which individual employees are

required to proactively engage. Yet some organisations also did have some boundaries in the support that is offered. OCM practices are occasionally combined with organisational contingencies to ensure the organisation receives benefit for the support provided for employee career development. The support provided may also be differentiated based on employee type, or the strategic importance of the employee, yet across organisations within this study, a level of OCM practices and support for career development was available for all employees.

Together these findings from Study 1 and Study 2 highlight the enduring importance of OCM. Three key contributions are made about OCM. Firstly, these findings highlight that organisations have an increasingly important role in supporting employee career development. There has been debate in the literature about the role of the organisation in supporting employee career development (Bagdadli & Gianecchini, 2018; Clarke, 2013). Study 1 is the first study that has examined changes in OCM practices over time, and Study 2 provided context of how the OCM system is operationalised. Of note in Study 1, was that the majority of OCM practices increased in the last twenty years, and by 2015 the most popular OCM practices to be offered by organisations were the individual employee focused practices of career coaching, mentoring, and performance appraisal as basis for career planning, which require moderate to high involvement from the organisation. While in Study 2 organisational support for career development was reported to be available for all employees. These findings highlight that organisations still see themselves as having an important role in supporting the career development of employees. Secondly, these findings provide support for the criticism of the death of the organisational career (Arnold & Cohen, 2008; Dries et al., 2012). As found in Study 1, employment conditions have changed, however, these changes do not appear to be as dramatic as some may have initially hypothesised. Although increases were confirmed in part-time, teleworking, and fixed

contract flexible employment conditions, it was also found that by 2015, less than twenty percent of organisations were offering each of these conditions to more than twenty per cent of their workforce. Furthermore, in Study 2 it was found that organisations are still providing opportunities for employees to develop careers within the organisation, in fact for some organisations this support was contingent on the employee remaining within the organisation. Thirdly, these findings reinforce the importance of the organisation as relevant context to study individually-driven careers. Study 1 provided some evidence of the organisational benefit of active management OCM practices, which are OCM practices where the individual employee plays an active role in the engagement of the OCM practice provided by the organisation. Study 2 highlighted that individuals were taking greater responsibility of their career development within the OCM system. There has been a recent call to provide synergy between the organisational and boundaryless career perspectives (Arthur, 2014), and these studies highlight how OCM and individually-driven careers, rather operating in opposition, appear to be operating together.

Employee engagement in OCM

The second aim of this thesis was to examine the factors that support employee engagement in OCM. Boundaryless and protean career theories propose that individuals are taking increased responsibility for their career development and will experience an increased number of career transitions across their working life. Within Study 2, beyond exploring employee perceptions of OCM, we also explored the factors that support engagement in OCM. Study 2 identified seven factors that acted as either enablers or barriers to engagement in OCM, these factors were age or career stage, social cognitive-factors (self-efficacy, personal goals, outcome expectations), personality factors, career decision making, individual characteristics, OCM system, direct manager, and contextual factors. These findings provide support for the social cognitive model of

career self-management (SC-CSM) (Lent & Brown, 2013) as a useful framework for understanding career self-management within the OCM system. These findings also highlight the importance of both organisational level and individual employee level factors in support of engagement. A key contribution was identifying the importance of both the organisational factor of direct manager and individual factor of career decision making on employee engagement in OCM. The direct manager acted both as a conduit of information about OCM practices and OCM processes, but also had direct responsibility for supporting employees with their career development through career advice, career coaching, or identifying career opportunities available for their employees. Career decision making was either an enabler or barrier to engagement, employees clear in their career decision making appeared more likely to engage in OCM than employees not clear in their career decision making. Therefore, employees unable to reconcile their career decision making appeared unable to make progress towards career development activities.

Study 3 and Study 4 further examined the factors that support employee engagement in OCM. The focus in Study 3, as detailed in Chapter 4, was on the self-initiated career transition of voluntary career change. This study provided a review of the career transition theoretical frameworks and a systematic review of the voluntary career change literature. Results of this study emphasised the importance of career transition theoretical frameworks in examining voluntary career change as a process. Notably, job satisfaction was found as a consistent antecedent towards voluntary career change across studies, emphasising that factors related to the current job could have direct impact on individual employee decisions about their future career direction. Employees also reported reduced job satisfaction and wellbeing during the pre-career change period, yet organisational factors appeared to be buffering this negative impact of voluntary career change intention on the individual. This study identified the need for

further research to examine each stage of voluntary career change, and to examine the individual and organisational factors that support employees navigate the process of voluntary career change.

Study 4, as detailed in Chapter 5, focused on examining these individual and organisational factors that support employees to engage in adaptive career behaviours. Based on the findings of the previous studies, in Study 4 an adapted version of the SC-CSM was used. Firstly, the individual factor of generalised self-efficacy was examined as a direct influencer of engagement in adaptive career behaviours. Adaptive career behaviours are behaviours that employees engage in to support their own career development (Lent & Brown, 2013). In this study the adaptive career behaviours of career planning, proactive skill development, career consultation, and network building were analysed. Secondly, the organisational factor of leader member exchange (LMX) was also examined as a direct influencer of engagement in adaptive career behaviours. Study 2 highlighted the importance of both individual and organisational factors in engagement in OCM, and also reinforced the importance of the role of the direct manager in engagement in OCM. In Study 4, LMX was conceptualised as the direct manager within the adapted SC-CSM model. Finally, career change intention was examined as a potential outcome expectation that would moderate the direct relationships between both generalised self-efficacy on the adaptive career behaviours, and LMX on the adaptive career behaviours. Based on SC-CSM (Lent & Brown, 2013) and role accumulation theory (Sieber, 1974), it was proposed that these individual and organisational factors would support employees develop the personal resources needed to engage in adaptive career behaviours when navigating voluntary career change.

Results showed that generalised self-efficacy had a direct impact on engaging in each of the four adaptive career behaviours, but these relationships were not moderated by voluntary career change intention. LMX had a direct impact in engaging proactive

skill development, career consultation, and network building, and voluntary career change moderated the relationships between LMX and career planning, career consultation, and network building. Employees low in career change intention showed an increase in career planning, career consultation, and network building as LMX increased. For employees high in career change intention, career planning decreased as LMX increased, but career consultation and network building increased as LMX increased, and this increase was stronger for employee higher in career transition intention than for those lower in career transition intention. These results suggest that LMX-quality could buffer employees high in career change intention on acting on their career change through career planning, but rather support employee engagement in career exploratory activity to resolve their career indecision. These findings emphasise the importance of building generalised self-efficacy in employees to support their engagement in career self-management and reinforce the results from Study 2 about the important role that direct managers have in supporting employee career development. In Study 2 it was identified that direct managers had both a role in providing direct support to employees and in facilitating career development opportunities. Study 4 reinforced these findings, for employees high in career change intention, LMX-quality appeared to be even more important to support employee engagement in career exploratory behaviours such as career consultation and network building.

Together these findings from Study 2, Study 3, and Study 4, highlight the importance of both individual and organisational factors in the design of an OCM system. One of the key contributions highlighted from Study 1 and Study 2 about the OCM system, was that the organisation could provide a relevant context for the study of individually-driven careers. This context was further explained in Study 2, as employee engagement in OCM was driven by individual characteristics of the employee, as well as their experience of the OCM system and support by their direct manager. Findings

from Study 3 and Study 4 highlight the role that organisations could have in supporting employees manage voluntary career change. An important, but surprising finding in Study 4 was that career change intention did not directly predict the four adaptive career behaviours. In Study 2 it was found that career decision making could impede employees engaging in OCM and Study 3 identified the potential negative impacts of the pre-career change period on the individual, and potentially the organisation as a whole. It could be suggested that without support from their direct managers or their organisation, employees are not aware of the skills needed to navigate career indecision or voluntary career change. Much like the fears reported in some OCM literature about the risks associated with supporting employee career planning, such as increased employee turnover (Walker, 1978; Zenger, 1981), some could say that it is not the responsibility of the organisation to support employees to make career changes. Yet Study 4 has highlighted that LMX could be a factor that supports employees engage in career consultation and network building when navigating voluntary career change. Employees who engage in career self-management can also more readily identify career opportunities within their organisation (Guan et al., 2015). Therefore, much like the impact of OCM on individual employees (Kraimer et al., 2011), the impact of organisations supporting voluntary career change will most likely be dependent on the career opportunities available for employees within the organisation. However, organisations will also need to be careful not to create unmet expectations for their employees, which could result in negative outcomes for both the employee and organisation as whole (De Cuyper, Van der Heijden, & De Witte, 2011).

Implications for theory

These findings offer several potential contributions to theoretical development. Firstly, synergy was found between individual-driven career perspectives, such as boundaryless and protean careers, and organisational careers. In Study 1 we found that

supporting employee career development remained an important component of OCM. Furthermore, results in Study 2 emphasise that individual responsibility of career development within the OCM system was both expected and required by employees to access OCM. Yet, the individual was still supported in this career self-management by the OCM system, including support by their direct manager. These findings highlight that rather than working in opposition, individually driven careers are being enacted and supported in the context of the organisation. Arthur (2014) identified that synergy between boundaryless and organisational career perspectives could "span both the richness of the career concept and the diversity of challenges that careers can involve" (p. 12). This synergy between individually-driven and organisational career perspectives is not without challenges. Study 2 highlighted that a range of both individual and contextual barriers, including the direct manager and the OCM system, can hinder employee career self-management within the OCM system. However, depending on the individual and organisation, these barriers can be turned into enablers of individual career development within the OCM system. Bringing the individually-driven and organisational career perspectives together provides opportunities to add richness of understanding of the continuum of career concepts, and how employees are supported to enact careers within and across organisations (Clarke, 2013).

Secondly, OCM research remains an important part of both the careers and strategic human resources management literature. In support of Baruch and Peiperl's (2000) model of OCM practices, we found references to all levels of OCM practices across Study 1 and Study 2, and we found fewer organisations offering the multi-directional practices that require the highest level of organisational sophistication in Study 1. There has been some critique about the relevance of these different types of OCM practices (De Vos & Cambré, 2017) in a career landscape that is more individually focused, yet these findings emphasise that understanding the impact of

different types of OCM practices remains relevant. An additional theoretical contribution was finding active management practices, practices that shared individual and organisational accountability, may also provide organisational benefit. Previous research has highlighted the organisational performance impact of supportive and development OCM practices, such as career coaching and individualised support, on organisational performance (De Vos & Cambré, 2017; Segers & Inceoglu, 2012). Study 1 identified that offering OCM practices that support career exploratory activity, such as secondments, relates to reduced employee turnover and increased organisational innovation. Understanding both the individual employee and organisational mechanisms for the link between OCM and organisational outcomes is a further potential opportunity for synergy between individually-driven and organisational career perspectives, and more specifically provide a link between the careers and strategic human resources management literature. A range of individual career factors, such as boundaryless orientation or protean orientation (Rodrigues et al., 2015) and career anchors (Arnold et al., 2017) have been identified as factors that can affect awareness of OCM opportunities. There is opportunity to further link the careers literature with the strategic human resources literature to examine individual impact on these organisational level results.

Third, social cognitive model of career self-management (Lent & Brown, 2013) was identified as a potential relevant theoretical model to examine career self-management within the OCM system. Throughout this thesis it has been highlighted that the individual is being tasked with taking responsibility for their career development. Study 2 specifically identified the factors that support individuals taking this responsibility within the organisational system. Beyond the factors within the SC-CSM model, two important organisational contextual factors were highlighted, namely the direct manager and OCM system. Direct manager was seen as both the facilitator of

OCM practices, for example career coaching, but also as a support person to navigate the OCM system. The OCM system itself also was an important contextual factor, including employee perceptions and awareness of the OCM practices and OCM processes. We conclude from Study 2 that an adapted version of SC-CSM that incorporates the direct manager and OCM system could be a useful framework for the study of the OCM system. Study 4 provides support for both the importance of generalised self-efficacy as a direct influencer for engagement in adaptive career behaviours, but also the relevance of LMX as both a direct and indirect influencer of adaptive career behaviours. Providing initial support for the inclusion of the direct manager within SC-CSM as an important contextual factor. Additionally, this study provides support for role enrichment theory as a potential theoretical framework to explain the benefit of the support of the direct manager in building personal resources to support engagement in career consultation and network building.

Finally, throughout this thesis the importance of career development and career transition theories in understanding the employee experience of OCM was reinforced. In Study 1, OCM practices were offered with a direct focus on supporting individual employee career development. In Study 2, age or career stage and career decision making were identified as both potential enablers or barriers for engagement in OCM. Study 3 emphasised the importance of career transition theories in understanding the process of voluntary career change. Study 4 confirmed that LMX provided different levels of support for adaptive career behaviours for employees navigating voluntary career change, and age was a significant barrier for engagement across all adaptive career behaviours. OCM cannot be designed without awareness of the career development or transitional challenges employees will face throughout their career. These studies highlight that for some employees, career development is not of interest, which is both an important observation and acknowledgement of their current career

stage. Nevertheless, in a world of work that requires increased responsibility, understanding both the career development and career transition processes, and the factors that best support these processes will remain an increasingly important part of career theoretical development.

Implications for practice

A key finding from this thesis is the career development expertise that is needed in the design and management of an effective SHRM system. Firstly, in relation to the design of the system, the human resources (HR) function was largely seen as the architect of the system. As noted in Study 2, the HR function appeared to have less responsibility for direct employee support for career development, which was either outsourced to the direct manager or career coaches. There is opportunity to further embed career development training with HR training and also to build the skills and competencies of career development professionals to more effectively work in supporting the design of the strategic HR systems. Career development professionals have for the most part largely worked in the context of outplacement services in business settings. There may be a skills gap for these individuals in adapting these skills to career development at a more proactive organisational or strategic level but could also offer increased job opportunities for employees with this career development expertise. Of note in this study, was the appointment of specialist career coaches as an internal resource that employees can engage, operating independently to the HR function. Organisations, especially large or complex organisational settings with a range of alternative career opportunities, may consider inclusion of this expertise either as an outsourced function or a staff member within the organisation.

Secondly, the individual and direct manager were identified as the direct stakeholders responsible for managing employee career development. It was expected that LMX would support adaptive career behaviours during voluntary career change, but

it was not expected that voluntary career would not relate to adaptive career behaviours, nor that LMX could lessen career planning behaviour during voluntary career change. These findings could suggest that individual employees do not understand the adaptive behaviours needed to support career development challenges, nor managers know how to support employees enact career planning to resolve career challenges. Together these suggest there could be opportunity to further develop the skills and competencies of both employees and managers in career development. In Study 2 a number of organisations highlighted that training and resources were being provided to support employee career development. However, previous research on manager responsibility of career support (Yarnall, 1998) and lack of career planning in performance management discussions (Schleicher et al., 2018) could suggest there are gaps in how this operates in practice. There may be further opportunities for organisations to develop career decision making skills in employees, and career coaching skills in managers.

Thirdly, this study has also highlighted a range of enablers and barriers for employee engagement in OCM. Understanding these factors has implications not only in the design of OCM system, but by extension to review potential barriers within strategic HR management systems that prevent employee career development or engagement in HR practices. These barriers were at both the organisational and individual level. A review of these barriers in an organisational setting could support organisations more effectively to review, manage, and update their strategic human resources management systems. For some employees it was a lack of confidence that prevented engagement, while for others it was their career indecision. A direct manager without the skills to have more constructive career conversations could misconstrue these barriers as lack of interest in career development, rather than potential lack of career decision making skills that is preventing the employee to engage in OCM. By greater awareness of enablers and barriers, organisations can both design systems that

help overcome these barriers and support managers to more effectively identify these barriers in their employees.

Finally, without senior manager leadership of an organisational strategy that is supportive of employee career development, then the OCM system will not work. Senior managers are driven by organisational performance outcomes. This thesis has highlighted that some OCM practices could impact on employee turnover and organisational innovation. Of note was the perceived importance of secondments in employee turnover and organisational innovation. Better understanding of secondments and the business impact of different types of OCM practices could also more effectively support the strategic design of OCM system to achieve organisational outcomes.

Limitations of the current thesis and future research directions

The overall aim of this thesis was to examine the role of the organisation in supporting employee career development in a boundaryless and protean world. Rather than working in opposition, organisations appeared to be creating opportunities to support individually-driven career development. These results demonstrate a potential synergy between OCM and boundaryless and protean career perspectives. This thesis further amplifies the calls to re-energise OCM research and to provide synergy between the individually-driven and organisational career perspectives. Further research is needed to understand both the OCM system and the factors that support the career self-management within this system, and the benefits or potential barriers to both the organisation and individual. To further advance the understanding of both, this thesis examined OCM from both the individual and organisational perspectives. Together these studies highlight opportunities for future research. The studies in this thesis were also not without limitations. Most notably the studies in this thesis examined employees in a limited range of contexts, which may not be representative of the career experiences in other cultural settings, in small organisations, or other professional settings. There is

therefore opportunity to extend OCM research to compare and contrast different organisational contexts (Guest & Rodrigues, 2012).

Study 1 is the first study to have examined changes in OCM practices over time. The Cranet survey is designed to be reflective of HR practices at different time periods, therefore, this study did allow us to make some conclusions about the continuing importance about OCM practices from 1996 to 2015. However, one of the largest limitations of this study was that responding organisations were not mapped from survey to survey, which limited our ability to make definitive casual conclusions about the reasons for changes, and the organisational outcomes of these OCM practices. Further research is needed to better understand what organisational factors influence an organisation to increase or decrease OCM practices over time, and the employee and organisational outcomes of these OCM practices. This survey also did not explore level of employee engagement in the OCM practices. It could be, for example, that the most frequently offered practices were of the least interest to employee or provided the least value to organisations. Further research is needed to better understand intermediary outcomes from OCM practice to organisational performance, such as employee career exploration or employee innovative work behaviours.

Furthermore, in Study 2, employees' perceptions of OCM were explicitly asked. These results could be further strengthened through additional scenario-based research to review which factors lead to engagement under different career development scenarios. Both Study 1 and Study 2 largely highlight the positive impact of career self-management within an OCM system, further research is needed to better understand the potential negative impacts for both employees and organisations. Across Study 3 and Study 4, the models examined explained only a small to moderate amount of variance in the study variables, suggesting there are range of other variables that could add further insights into our understanding of both voluntary career change and career self-

management. SC-CSM highlight the impact of personal goals, and other individual and contextual factors that could support engagement in OCM. Further research is also needed to examine the boundaries of career change, both within the organisation and across organisations. The results of Study 3 highlight the importance of examining the job role and organisational influences on employee career change decision making, further research is also needed to better differentiate *career* versus *job* change. Study 4 did not explicitly examine the impact of the OCM system, beyond the direct manager, on an employees' outcome expectations or awareness of career development opportunities. Further research can both extend this research to incorporate these contextual variables, but also explicitly examine the individual employee outcomes associated with the adaptive career behaviours. There is also opportunity to examine the process of voluntary career change longitudinally, and explore the organisational factors, including OCM practices or support from direct manager, that support the employee during different stages of the transition.

Conclusions

By assessing both individual and organisational perspectives of OCM, this thesis makes several important contributions to resolving the OCM paradox. More organisations are providing OCM practices to support employee career development than before. A range of individual and organisational factors either enable or act as barriers to these OCM opportunities. There is a risk that when employees lack the skills and competencies to manage their career, they may be ill-prepared to drive their own career development within an OCM system. Additional burdens could be added to the OCM system should employees be managing their voluntary career change process. Furthermore, HR managers are being tasked with a greater strategic role in the design of the OCM system, and direct mangers are being tasked with directly supporting employees with their career development. Together these findings emphasise the critical

role that career development and career transition theoretical frameworks provide for the effective design and management of strategic HR systems. This thesis also highlights the potential organisational and employee benefits of OCM. Further OCM research is needed to provide additional catalyst for synergy between individual and organisational career perspectives. Rather than a paradox, OCM can be seen as strategic advantage for both the individual and the organisation, which can skilfully combine the strengths of both the individual and organisational career perspectives.

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